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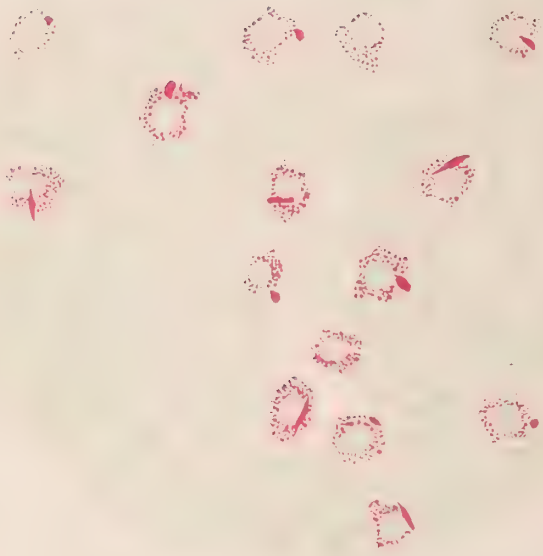
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SPINDLE LIKE FORMATIONS FOUND IN UVEAL TISSUE IN SYMPATHETIC OPHTHALMITIS, SHOWN PRINCIPALLY EMBEDDED IN FUCHSINOPHILE CELLS. (ICHIKAWA.)

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SPINDLE LIKE FORMATIONS IN THE INFLAMED UVEAL TISSUE OF SYMPATHETIC OPHTHALMITIS.

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These observations, reported from the University Eye Clinic of Kioto, call attention to a class of bodies that have hitherto received little attention from histologists, but are probably crystals and of considerable importance. With one colored plate. Translated from the German by H. W. Aufmwasser, M. D.

Of late I have been able to demonstrate in bacteriologic investigations of sections of eyes enucleated for sympathetic ophthalmitis, a spindle-shaped formation in the inflammatory uveal tissues. As this remarkable occurrence has not been previously observed by any one, I wish to report about it in the following:

Siegrist,[1] Manolescu,[2] Quint,[3] Calhoun,[4] Chaillous,[5] Browning,[6] and others have noted the favorable effect of salvarsan in sympathetic ophthalmitis. This therapeutic experience has brought authors to believe that the exciting cause of this illness may be in close connection with the exciting cause of syphilis. This seemed to be more probable, since Gradle[7] could prove in three cases of perforating injuries of the eyes, the presence of a spirillum.

I have, therefore, in my investigations made it my task to prove the correctness of this conception. The eyeballs which I had for my experiments were seven in number. For the identification of the spirochetes we used the method of Levaditi. Among these seven eyeballs, six were already embedded in celloidin, so that these had to be freed from celloidin for the Levaditi treatment. They were all sympathizing eyes and have shown the typical picture of sympathetic ophthalmitis.

The result of this examination was, however, wholly negative, altho I examined the sections very carefully.

Since my first examination was without result, I tried then to find any bacteria in the sections of the sympathizing ophthalmitis.

That the histologic picture of this affection is very similar to that of tuberculosis, is sufficiently known. No one has succeeded so far in proving the presence of tubercle bacilli in the inflamed tissue of sympathetic ophthalmia. Neither have the numerous tests by implantation on animals susceptible to tuberculosis furnished a positive proof. The search for bacteria of other nature was also negative.

As matters stand, the finding of bacteria in the tissue of sympathetic ophthalmitis is therefore an exceedingly difficult problem. In spite of all this, the fact that no one used the method of Ohtori[8] of staining, for the bacteriologic investigation of sympathetic ophthalmia, caused me to stain these sections by this method.

I have stained by this method numerous sections which had been kept in the clinic for a long time. In the beginning the results were entirely negative. Occasionally, however, I have found in one of the sections, which was treated for a short time with acid, a highly remarkable fact, a fact which no one had so far observed. That is

the occurrence of peculiarly formed fuchsinophile structures in the inflamed uveal tissue. I wish, therefore, to report more minutely about these structures.

Morphology.—It concerns a spindle-like formation whose size fluctuated. In length it measured 6.64μ to 2.82μ, in thickness 1.0μ-0.55μ. Most of these were pointed at both ends, while others ended more or less bluntly. Generally the short specimens were thicker and less pointed than the long ones. They have mostly a straight, elongated form; those which were bent were very few. Its surface is everywhere smooth; in no place angular. One sees in places, taken up in eosinophile leucocytes, rounded formations which in thickness and color resemble perfectly the formation in question, and which cannot be regarded as anything else but the spindles seen in the section transversely. The formations in question are consequently, according to their shape, to be likened to a true spindle. They appear in sections stained with fuchsin with few exceptions, spotted-like, as they are at times less stained in the center or at one or the other end, about which I will speak later. (See Plate I.)

Staining Conditions. — They are fuchsinophile, not acid-fast, but alcohol-fast; in long exposure to acid they lose their stain quickly. They are stained slightly rose with eosin, and also with Giemsa; but these two staining fluids give no contrast staining. Neither methylen blue nor Gram's give a positive result.

The best method that I have found so far is the following:

1. Staining with carbolfuchsin for three or four hours. (Better in incubator.)
2. After rinsing in distilled water for five or six seconds, stain in the following solution:

Saturated solution of picric acid	100.0
Indigocarmin	0.5

3. Wash in distilled water.
4. Differentiation in absolute alcohol.
5. Xylol balsam.

This method is in principle similar to Ohtori's method for staining tubercle bacilli. The difference consists only in the fact that by my method the treatment with hydrochloric-acid-alcohol is superfluous.

In successful staining the spindles stain with fuchsin red, collagenous tissue and nucleus with indigocarmin green, red blood cells reddish-yellow. Besides the spindles, the granules of the eosinophile leucocytes and Russell's bodies, should they be present, are also stained red. The red stain of the spindles and of the eosinophile granules is, however, not altogether the same, since the latter are distinctly darker stained than the former. (See Plate.)

The red stain of the spindles is generally not a proportionate one; they are in places stained weaker, so they appear more or less spotted. The pale stained portion, which can make its appearance anywhere, appears then as a shadow. The spindles, which on both ends have such weaker stained portions, make one think of a rod.

Heidenhain's iron-alum-hematoxylin method also gives a beautiful stain; the spindles with the eosinophile granules and nuclei are stained intense black.

Biologic Characters.—Histologically we notice above all that the spindles in the tissues are in intimate connection with eosinophile leucocytes. They are found most regularly within the bodies of the eosinophiles; few are found external to the latter. This condition facilitates exceedingly the discovering of the spindles in the tissues, especially when they are only sparingly present.

They are found exclusively in inflamed uveal tissue, and indeed appear often in the vicinity of the giant cells, where the eosinophiles tend to assemble. They always lie singly, and are therefore easily overlooked.

Chemical Characters. — They are soluble in ether-alcohol, likewise in acid and water. I have placed the sections, after freeing them from celloidin, for 12 hours in an acetic solution, and in boiling water for 15 minutes, without, however, being able to notice a marked difference in the numbers as well as in the staining quality of the

spindles. In warm one per cent caustic potash solution they become unstainable after five minutes. I have furthermore treated the sections freed from celloidin with antiformin; the spindles behaved the same as with the treatment with potash solution, as not antiformin-fast.

Frequency of the Spindles.—In order to know how often the spindles appear in sympathetic ophthalmitis, I have examined all the sections which had been kept in the clinic. With these I had at my disposal seven cases which all showed typically the picture of the disease. Among these seven I could prove the presence of the spindles only in five.

The number of spindles differ as to the case. Among five cases with positive findings I could in two cases find a moderate abundance, in others only a scarcity of spindles. When they are numerous their discovery is not difficult. I could, in one case which contained them most numerously, observe in one field 8-10 spindles. If they are sparingly present their discovery is a very painstaking task, so that after repeated examinations of a whole section we find only a solitary spindle. As to the presence of spindles in other inflammatory eye affections, I wish to remark here, that I have in no case observed them. As a control experiment I have examined three cases of phthisis bulbi dolorosa, three cases of nonsympathetic uveitis after perforating injury, and one case of tuberculosis of the iris and the ciliary body. In all these cases the result was negative. From my examinations up to this time, spindles appear only in sympathetic ophthalmia.

What are these spindles? Primarily one asks himself the question if they are not artificial products which through fixation and hardening have originated secondarily. To this I wish to remark at once that from the five eyeballs which have shown the positive test, four were fixed in Mueller's solution, and the other in the Orth-Mueller solution, immediately after enucleation. Of two eyeballs in which the test was negative, the one was fixed in Zenker's solution, the other in formalin. Undoubtedly the almost regular appearance of these in eosinophile leucocytes, if they can be found at all in the tissues, speaks decidedly against this conception that they are artificial.

That they are neither tubercle bacilli nor similar bacilli can hardly be doubted by their behavior towards acid and their external shape.

Are they not a crystal? According to their external appearance they resemble a crystal very much. It requires hardly further explanation that they are neither fat-crystals nor fuscineedles. The intimate relation which exists between the spindles and eosinophiles permits the conjecture that they have been formed thru melting together or crystallization of the eosinophile granules. This conception is so much more probable since, according to some authors, the so-called Charcot-Leyden crystals are believed to be crystallization products of these granules. Levy[9] could find, for instance, in 47 cases of nasal polyps 32 times the Charcot-Leyden crystals and 17 times in 29 cases in such individuals, who never had suffered from asthma. The crystals thereby have shown in their staining qualities a pronounced acidophile condition. They have also been in the tissues with the eosinophile leucocytes, with which they were numerously associated and intimately connected. Levy also remarks that the crystals are found to be more numerous when the tissue which is under investigation has been exposed primarily to spontaneous putrefaction.

My spindles and the Charcot-Leyden crystals are very similar in their staining conditions, as both are decidedly acidophile. Whether they act chemically alike is for the present not ascertainable, as the behavior of Charcot-Leyden crystals in hardened preparations had not heretofore been mentioned in the literature, as far as my studies are concerned. The Charcot-Leyden crystals are in fresh condition very easily soluble in acid, alkali and warm water.

Lubarsch[10] was also able to prove in the cells of the human testicle, small crystalline bodies, which were in hardened preparations soluble in boiling water and 50 per cent acetic acid, but insoluble in alkali. My spindles differentiate, therefore, from these small bodies thru their chemical behavior.

Are they not a kind of microorganism? The pathogenic bacilli, named *bacillus fusiformis,* have a spindle shaped form, and have been found heretofore in different diseases both local and general. The most important form of these spindle-like bacilli is the bacillus Vincenti and the one found by Babes[11] in scurvy. Similar bacilli are encountered also occasionally in the normal buccal cavity. All these bacilli distinguish themselves[12] thru their peculiar form, their spotted appearance in stained condition, and finally thru their inconstant size. They have, therefore, no similarity at all with my spindles, at least not in their external form.

That the spindles are not microorganisms is undoubtedly true. In the same manner there is no certain proof for their nature of a microorganism. To decide this question we have to wait till the time comes when their multiplication can be surely proven in some nutrient medium. The differentiation of the spindles from Charcot-Leyden crystals must also be left for future investigations.

The fact which, however, deserves special consideration is that the spindles are found very frequently only in sympathetic ophthalmitis. If these spindles were a kind of spindle-formed bacilli, and would appear sometimes as a saprophytic inhabitant of the normal buccal cavity, it would be not at all unnatural, that they would occasionally, in a perforating injury of the eye, infect the wound and produce sympathetic ophthalmitis.

While the true nature of my spindles is not at all clear at this time, and I certainly do not intend to assert that they are of any importance for the etiology of sympathetic ophthalmitis, I claim the privilege of now bringing to the knoweldge of the profession the result of my investigations, which at any rate are remarkable in their findings.

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CONGENITAL TUMOR OF THE CORNEA OF DOUBTFUL CLASSIFICATION.

H. H. Stark, M. D.

EL PASO, TEXAS.

The case here reported seems unique in that the probable dermoid tumor was nowhere connected with the limbus. The reports on its pathologic anatomy and review of the literature bearing most directly upon it complete the paper. With four illustrations.

Uncomplicated tumors confined to the cornea, either congenital or acquired, are of so rare an occurrence that I feel the case I have recently seen may be worthy of reporting.

CASE.

A. A., Mexican, female, age 15; well nourished but of nervous temperament, reported to me on November 6, 1917, having been sent home from school by her teacher with instructions to see a doctor regarding a growth she had on her right eye, which she claimed had been there since birth. No family history could be obtained, both parents being dead.

On examination the following conditions were found:

Both lids were normal in shape and movement. The right eye was slightly smaller and deeper set in the orbit than the left, having a convergent strabismus of about twenty degrees, with no movement to the temporal side past the median line. The conjunctiva and sclera were apparently normal.

On the cornea was a growth protruding between the lids, with a perfectly round base of about eight millimeters in diameter, and about five millimeters high. It was bluntly conical in shape, and slightly flattened, horizontally, from lid pressure. The body of the tumor was light pink, the tip darker in color with faint stippling due possibly to exposure and inflammation. On examination with a loupe the stippling became faintly papillary in character, but no hairs could be seen.

Surrounding the tumor was a distinct area of clear cornea about three



Fig. 1. Congenital tumor of cornea, front view showing separation of tumor from the limbus.

millimeters wide on the temporal side, shading down to two millimeters on the nasal side, having what appeared to be a normal curvature. On the nasal side with the aid of a loupe could be seen one large, one medium and several finer vessels passing thru the cornea from the limbus, terminating in the tumor, but no clouding of the corneal tisue. Thru the clear cornea could be seen the iris, normal in color. The pupil was dilated evenly with atropin, and with an oblique view showed normal reflex of the fundus.

An interview with a relative with whom the patient was living confirmed the history that the tumor was congenital. She also said that it had increased in size during the last few years.

Photographs of the eye were taken, and a few days later, under a general anesthetic, the growth was removed. On picking up the tumor with forceps it was found to be very hard, requiring a firmer grip than ordinary tissue. After fixing, a cataract knife was passed along the base of the tumor at its juncture with the cornea, carefully working and pulling on the tumor, thinking there might possibly be a connection some place with the anterior chamber.

After loosening part of the base and pulling with considerable force, a distinct line of demarcation could be seen between the tumor and cornea, along which was passed the knife, easily peeling the growth from its attachment. About the center of the base of the tumor was a marked bleeding, coming from a point in the cornea. The bleeding continued for several minutes after the removal of the growth.

Examination of the cornea after the operation showed it to have a normal curvature and apparently a normal thickness and transparency. There was no sign of scar tissue or injury in any place. The healing was rather slow on account of the large area to be covered with epithelium. The spot in the center corresponding to the bleeding point remained red for at least two weeks, as though a blood clot had been formed, finally disappearing. At the time of the operation, blood was taken for a Wassermann test, which proved negative.

After healing, the pupil was dilated with atropin and an indistinct view of the fundus was obtained, but no abnor-



Fig. 2. Tumor of cornea from the side showing protrusion of tumor.

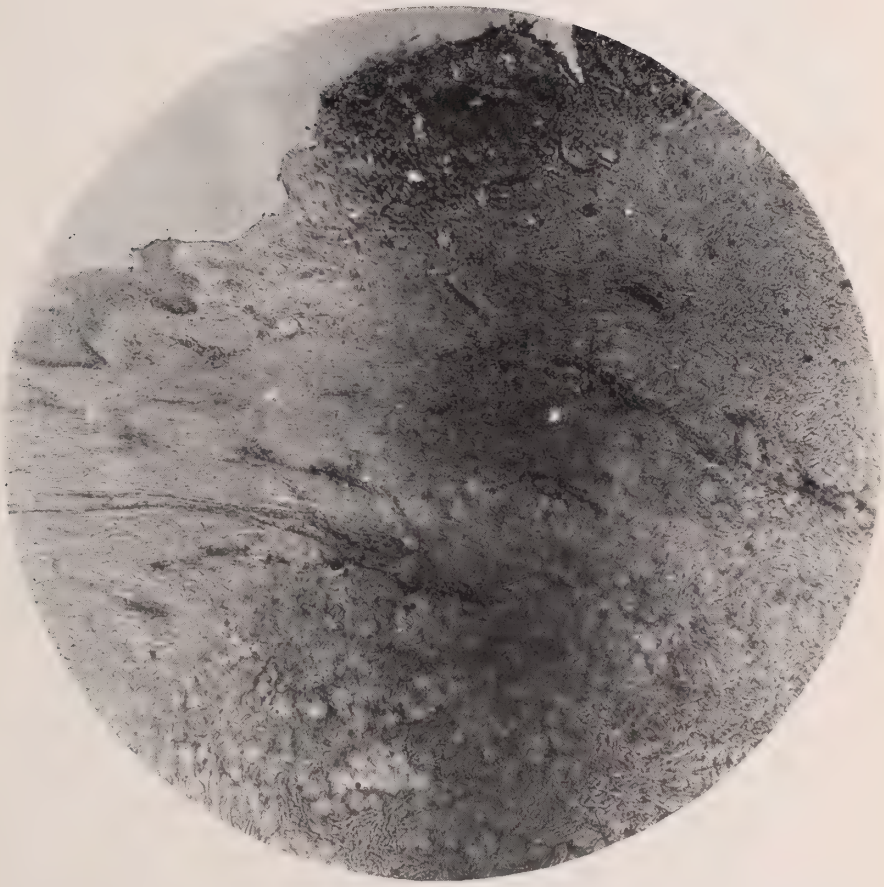


FIG. 5.—SECTION OF TUMOR SHOWING CONNECTIVE TISSUE MASSES AND FAT CELLS IN STARK'S CASE OF TUMOR OF THE CORNEA.

malities were found. The cornea at the present time shows a thick mottling of scar tissue rather than a dense scar, many places being so clear that a distinct view of the iris may be had. The eye was practically blind, no doubt from the fact that vision had never been developed. Now, seven months after the operation, there is no recurrence. The left eye was normal in appearance and vision.

Examination of the Tumor.

Much to my regret, I allowed eagerness on my part to determine the nature of the growth to prompt me to turn the tumor over to our local pathologist, with instructions to make frozen sections rather than to have serial sections made. The frozen sections were made from the center of the tumor and stained with hematoxylin eosin. Examination showed the tumor not to be of ordinary character and some of the millimeters in diameter and 2 or 3 millimeters thick, covered on one side with epithelium, the other side being the raw surface where it was peeled off the eye. The epithelium was roughened in places, containing elevations that might be classed as small papillae, but for the most part it looked as if it had been subject to considerable ulceration, with an attempt at healing. The whole specimen was hardened in formaldehyde. A small section was taken out through the center for freezing to section.

"On section the tissue was very firm, and the frozen block cut with difficulty, like cutting a piece of tough leather. Sections stained in hematoxylin and eosin, on microscopic examination showed a layer of fibrous tissue, covered by a fairly thick layer of stratified epithelium. The epithelium was somewhat irregular on the surface, and in the space beneath it there was considerable infiltration with small round cells. In none



Fig. 3. Eye after removal of tumor. Front view.

sections were sent to different pathologists for their opinions. Later, a part of the tumor was embedded in paraffin, sectioned and stained with van Gieson's stain and sent to the same men, these procedures using about two-thirds of the tumor. The remaining one-third was embedded in paraffin and sectioned serially.

Report of Dr. W. W. Waite, El Paso, Texas.—"I wish to report on the pathologic specimen removed from the eye of a Mexican girl. This specimen was a small button or disc-shaped tumor, 8

of the sections was there any suggestion of glands or hair. Plate II.

"The connective or fibrous tissue layer was made up of rather coarse fibres, stained deeply with eosin, in some ways suggesting smooth muscle tissue, but further examination showed there was considerable hyalin change. In the fibrous tissue layer there were small areas of fatty tissue. The fact that hyalin degeneration was present in the fibrous tissue shows that it was degenerating. To make sure that the fibrous tissue was really connective tissue, sec-

tions were stained with van Gieson's connective tissue stain, and the entire layer took the red stain. Another piece of tissue was embedded in paraffin and sectioned. The results from these sections were the same as those described above. In looking over a large number of sections, I did not see anything that resembled a gland or hair-follicle. My diagnosis of this case would be a *fibroma.*"

Report of Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston, Mass.—"The two sections submitted to me show the tumor to consist chiefly of hyalin fibrous tissue. Its surface shows marked papillary outgrowths and is covered with squamous epithelium, beneath which in places there is a moderate infiltration with chronic inflammatory cells. At the base of the tumor there is an abundance of adipose tissue. Diagnosis —*dermoid tumor* of the cornea.

"The unusual feature of this case was the marked character of the surface; and the fact, apparently indicated by the photograph of the patient, that the tumor was not connected with the limbus, but was confined to the cornea. There are no sweat or sebaceous glands in the section, but these are not necessary for the diagnosis. It is possible, however, that other sections may show such glands. I have seen one similar case, in which, in addition there was an independent teratoid tumor of the bulbar conjunctiva." In a subsequent letter he states: "The large amount of fat tissue present in the other sections you sent me rules out a simple fibroma. You could call this tumor a dermo-fibro-lipoma if you wished, but it is essentially of the same nature as a dermoid."

Report of Dr. Allen J. Smith, Pathological Department, University of Pennsylvania.—Through the kindness of Dr. William Zentmayer, sections of this tumor were submitted to Dr. Allen J. Smith, Pathologic Department, University of Pennsylvania, who writes: "I must confess to an inability to recognize the tissues as corneal had I not been told of their origin. The epithelium is too thick, forms penetrating roots or pegs, and in its best places is not flat enough. I cannot distinguish a Bowman's membrane; the matrix is not lamellated, is too cellular, and in its vessels (of course, because of the fact the sections do not reach all the way through the cornea), I find no Descemet's membrane in its lining cells. True, too, in several of the sections, fat cells, as in isolated cells, occur in the matrix.



Fig. 4. Eye after removal of tumor. Lateral view.

"The cornea apparently had small nodosities or granular projections upon its surface, as small fibricular protrusions appear in the section covered by epithelium. The thickened epithelial layer, such nodosities, even the epithelium penetrations, and, of course, the fibrous tissue, especially the finer parts close to the surface, might well be explained as to the vascularization referred to, on the basis of a chronic inflammatory process, but I can scarcely think of the adipose cells in this relation. I feel this feature can only be explained by the suggestion



FIG. 6.—SECTION OF TUMOR OF CORNEA (STARK'S CASE) SHOWING PAPILLAE ON PART OF THE SURFACE.

you give me that the condition is a dermoid.

"With this idea that I have skin instead of, or added to corneal tissue, the thickening of the epithelium, the non-lamellated fibrous matrix, the presence of blood vessels, and particularly the presence of fat, are all in conformity, but I wish Dr. Stark could also find a hair or two or a skin gland in some of the material to complete the picture. I am inclined to agree very strongly that this is a dermoid, but I would urge further search for one of these structures as final proof, although I do not feel that failure to find one or the other bars the diagnosis, which stands more as the most probable condition, at any rate. I feel that a chronic inflammation has, however, co-existed, the swollen epithelial cells, the epithelial hyperplasia in producing the penetrating roots, the turgid capillaries and the cellular investments along these and some of the older vessels, and the dense fibrous tissue areas met with, I think, argue for this, and doubtless this has occasioned a little nodular papilla as well. I do not seriously question the *diagnosis of a dermoid,* but feel that he may be able to establish the point beyond the shadow of a doubt if he will continue the examination of the material."

Dr. Marcus Feingold, New Orleans, La. "The specimens submitted represent perpendicular sections through a meniscus-like growth of about 7 by 1.5 mm. The mass of the growth is made up of coarse bundles of connective tissue, closely packed and running in different directions, containing very few cells and blood vessels. It is covered by an epithelium similar to corneal epithelium, but containing decidedly more layers; no cornification can be seen anywhere. The epithelium runs smoothly over the growth but forms short down-growths and thickenings here and there to compensate for the slightly irregular surface of the underlying tissue. The epithelium is overlying the connective tissue directly; only in some short places is a more loosely arranged connective tissue interposed.

In a very few sections typical fat cells can be seen near the wound-surface of the growth, and extending from it into some spaces between the connective tissue. In a small area at the edge of the growth a decidedly papillary formation of connective tissue and epithelium is seen (Plate III), with arrangement of the blood vessels typical for it. Here some infiltration with cells is visible, the nature of which cannot be decided owing to the defective preparation. No satisfactory study of the connective tissue is possible.

The growth represents, therefore, a connective tissue tumor covered by epithelium; and may be considered as the result of scar formation following an intrauterine inflammation of the cornea or possibly as a product of adhesion between amnion and cornea."

After receiving these reports, serial sections of the remaining one-third of the tumor were made and carefully examined, all showing the same character of tissue as was found in the other part of the tumor. No signs of hair follicles or glands was found, nor do I believe there were any in the other sections.

CORNEAL TUMORS IN GENERAL.

Tumors of the cornea are divided as other tumors into malignant and benign, the malignant being sarcoma and epithelioma; the benign being fibromyxoma, papilloma, dermoids and teratoids.

In considering corneal tumors, Parsons[1] says:

"A review of the recorded cases of corneal tumors leaves one in great doubt as to their true status. No sharp line can be drawn between purely inflammatory conditions and many so-called growths. There is an even gradation from the simple corneal scar to the myxoma on one hand and the papilloma on the other. . . . The same applies with equal force to the new growths, both benign and malignant, for all are vascular, though in varying degrees, and derive their vessels from the limbus. Most doubtful of all are the malignant growths, especially the epitheliomata and the endothelial type of sarcomata."

He is justified in his contention that growths of any kind confined to the cornea are rare, as it is a well-known fact that the favorite seat of practically all tumors is found, on careful reading of

the literature, either astride the limbus or connected with the limbus in some way. This fact becomes more evident when one makes a search of the literature. In reviewing different articles on tumors of the eye, it was found difficult in many cases to determine from the description whether the tumor was confined to the cornea or had some connection with the limbus. It is true that only a slight connection with the limbus is necessary, because, as the growth increases in size, advancement is usually made over the corneal surface.

Many cases of reported corneal tumors are found, on careful reading of the article, to have connection with the limbus. Even many of those looking like pure corneal growths are questionable and should not be so classified. However, including doubtful cases, the number of tumors confined to the cornea is very small, in comparison with all tumors of the eye. A fairly good search of the literature was made classifying the tumors under the head of malignant growth, including sarcoma and carcinoma, papilloma, fibromyxoma, dermoids and teratomas, the result being as follows: malignant growths, 20; papilloma, 4; fibromyxoma, 1.

Of dermoids and teratomas there was none, unless we include multiple tumors of the eye, where one was situated on the cornea, the second on some other part of the eye. Even these are very rare. Just why there are so many more malignant than benign growths is a doubtful question. Two views may be taken on this point—first, that many of the malignant growths are simply degeneration of a former benign tumor; second, that the tendency is stronger with the oculist to report a malignant growth than one of a benign character. No doubt both of these views have a bearing on the question.

In considering this tumor, we may safely exclude malignancy. The history of the case and the histologic structure of the growth would exclude papilloma, leaving us only the dermoid and fibroid to be considered.

DERMOID TUMORS AND THEIR ORIGIN.

According to Parsons[2], "Dermoids are lenticular yellow or reddish congenital tumors, which occur astride the corneal margin, usually on the outer side, containing the elements of skin (stratified epithelium, hairs, sebaceous glands, etc.). They were described as early as 1742, and four cases were published by Wardrop in 1808. They were named 'dermoids' by Ryba in 1853. While commonest at the outer part, they occur rarely at any part of the limbus, even under the outer canthus. They are often associated with other congenital malformations—(according to Picqué, 27 out of 94)—colobomata of the lids, fleshy bands from the globe to the face, etc."

Various theories have been suggested for the explanation of dermoids. Ryba suggested failure of complete closure of the lids, with consequent cornification of the conjunctiva, and cited the correspondence of dermoids and lid-notch. This view is accepted by Bland-Sutton and Treacher Collins; the latter regards cryptophthalmia, in which the whole surface of the eye-ball is covered with skin, as the ultimate manifestation of dermoid development. Gallenga drew attention to the plica semilunaris, which in fetal life, covers the globe like its phylogenetic equivalent, nictitating membrane. He thought it might remain adherent to the membrane. Osborn thought the tumor might be a remnant of the epiblast which forms the lens. Van Duyse considered it was due to an adhesion of the amnion to the eye. While it is not the province of this paper to discuss the origin of these growths, it is worth considering, as it may be possible that both the theories of Ryba and van Duyse are correct; and that those showing true dermal character come from the lid, while those without the dermal characteristics come from the amnion.

CLASSIFICATION OF DERMOID TUMORS.

On the classification of these tumors many interesting and instructive papers have been written. Among the early ones is Gallenga[3], who classifies them as, first: pure dermoids; second, lipo-dermoids; third, mixed form or lipomata containing acinous or rather acino-tubular glands, or cartilage. Concerning the origin of the pure typical dermoids, Gallenga accepts Ryba's explanation, according to

which dermoids develop as the result of disturbed closure of the oblique facial fissures, and thereby also of the palpebral gap.

Saemisch[4] says that, "the dermoid of the conjunctiva is the designation usually applied to tumors which are congenital and closely related to the skin in their histologic features. They are accordingly to be interpreted as teratoid tumors. However, the histologic components of the skin may be unequally developed in individual cases, the epidermoidal structures of the skin, the hairs as well as the glands (sebaceous and sweat glands) being much more distinctly manifested in some cases than in others. The degree of development of the subcutaneous fatty cellular tissue is especially variable, being sometimes merely suggested, whereas on the other hand it may form the main bulk of the tumor. Nerves, vessels, and smooth muscle fibres are likewise seen variably developed in their growths; more rarely discs of cartilage have been noted. . . . Notwithstanding the great variability in the histologic behavior of these tumors, they share the common peculiarity of representing cutaneous structures which have been developed in the conjunctiva, although the individual tissue varieties of cutaneous character are by no means necessarily developed to the same degree. Hence it does not appear to be justifiable to select this factor as the criterion for a classification of these tumors, as suggested by Gallenga, but it would seem more appropriate to have the classification of these tumors on their topography."

Fuchs[5] says: "A dermoid tumor is a flat growth of a solid consistence, which, so to speak, straddles the margin of the cornea, being situated partly in the conjunctiva and partly in the cornea, with which latter it is immovably connected. It most frequently occurs on the external (temporal) side of the cornea. Histologic examination shows that the growth possesses the composition of the external skin. It consists of a stroma of connective tissue, covered with epidermis, and contains hair follicles and various glands. It is, so to speak, an island of skin upon the surface of the ball."

The latest and perhaps the most exhaustive paper on dermoids is that by Pignatari[6], who writes as follows:

"As shown by numerous reports in the literature concerning dermoids of the corneo-scleral junction, there is not one constant structure for these mixed teratomata. According to Gallenga's classification, which is adopted by the author, these growths are divided into several groups, as follows:

"A dermoid of the conjunctiva is a congenital tumor whose histologic structure has very close relations with that of the normal skin. Its volume is usually small, seldom more than half a nut; the color is usually whitish, often slightly pink or yellowish, a tint attributed formerly to the presence of fat, though this has been shown not to be the case. The form most common is a truncated cone; but hemispheric is not uncommon, and occasionally they may be pedunculated.

"The surface is sometimes smooth, sometimes slightly irregular; rarely it presents a series of small irregularities arranged similarly to those of the skin. Sometimes the surface of the tumor may become covered with fine drops of fluid while it is being examined; these drops come from small glands in the subjacent tissue, and their ducts may be seen by close inspection with the aid of a powerful loupe. The surface usually bears hairs, varying in length with the age of the patient. It is rare to see in children anything but a fine down.

"The site of the tumor is important; commonly they ride the lower outer part of the sclero-corneal junction; more rarely they are purely conjunctival; a completely corneal seat is the least common. In four instances only has the seat been the caruncle. The histology of these tumors shows their close relation to the skin; all the parts of the true skin are to be found; hair glands and sebaceous glands are almost constant; on the other hand, sweat glands are comparatively rare, though not so infrequent as they were held to be by the earlier observers."

Under the name of lipo-dermoids, Pignatari includes those forms which are congenital and have a superficial layer like that of dermoids, but which differ

in containing a large quantity of fat, as well as certain other elements, acinous glands and smooth muscle fibres, which are less frequent in this form. The normal situation of a lipo-dermoid, in which some 70 per cent are found, is between the insertions of the rectus superior and the rectus externus. The structure of these lipo-dermoids varies within wide limits; sometimes the dermal features predominate, sometimes the fat. Often there will be so little development of the cutaneous elements that they may be overlooked, unless series of sections are taken of the whole mass. In a considerable number of cases a mass of cartilage will be found in the deeper part.

The pure conjunctival lipoma is a tumor developed in the subconjunctival tissue and devoid of all cutaneous elements. Many of the cases which appear to be lipomata on clinical examination, prove to be lipodermoid when subjected to the microscope. Great difference of opinion still prevails between pathologists as to the constitution of lipomata, and on their congenital origin.

MIXED TERATOMATA.

As far back as 1888, Gallenga suggested this third division for these tumors, and placed in it those cases in which lipomata were found to contain acinous or acino-tubular glands, or remains of the semilunar cartilage. Later, Gallenga redivided this group into two: (1) mixed teratoma with mucous surface; (2) mixed teratoma with cutaneous surface. The origin of these is probably different from that of the tumors so far considered.

Mixed teratomata contain acino-tubular glands, and these glands often very closely resemble the lacrimal in structure. Gallenga and some others are inclined to consider them really derived from the lacrimal gland, and to be simple ectopia glandis; they reason thus from the fact that the secretion from the gland is neither wanting or abnormal. Gallenga thinks also, that the growth of this aberrant gland accounts in some cases for the presence of cartilage or bone, those fragments having been cut off from the orbital margin by the gland in its extension. Probably, however, in most cases the cartilage is derived from the cartilage in the membrana nictitans, which has become, in the course of development, adherent to the eye.

Concerning the development of teratomata, Pignatari accepts Gallenga's views in accordance with which the typical dermoid is a part of the lid margin which has become adherent to the globe, and has gradually become separated from the lids by the development of abnormal lines of division, which form furrows growing gradually deeper until the dermoid is cut off from the lid and remains a part of the globe. The other form of teratoma is due, in his opinion, to ectopia of some part of the lacrimal gland, which takes up a new position because of the faulty direction of some of its parts. The presence of amniotic bands is only a rare cause.

A comparatively large proportion of dermoids is associated with some faulty development of the eye lids or face. Presumably, coloboma of the lid is chiefly due to the adhesion of a part of the lid-margin to the eye and its separation afterwards; thus a gap is left in the lid, the coloboma, which is accurately filled by the dermoid.

FIBROID TUMORS.

The idea prevailing with practically all authors is that fibroid tumors originate from scar tissue, most of them being simply hyperplasia of this tissue. This is agreed to by Parsons[7], but he says there are cases which are apparently true fibroma. Regarding the structure, he says: "They consist of irregular bands of fibrous tissue, with scant flat and round cells."

CONCLUSIONS.

After reading the literature on corneal tumors and considering this case, I have come to the following conclusions:

(1) Corneal tumors occur less frequently than the literature would indicate.

(2) In order to be classified as a corneal tumor the growth must have no connection with the limbus at any place.

(3) That dermoid may be used as a

term to classify congenital tumors, even those of simple histologic structure containing no dermal tissue, hairs or sweat glands.

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DETERMINATION OF MINIMUM LIGHT SENSE AND RETINAL DARK ADAPTATION WITH PRESENTATION OF A NEW TYPE OF PHOTOMETER.

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This paper reviews the principal hypotheses with reference to light and dark adaptation, and suggests a practical photometer, using a radioactive substance as a standard of comparison. With three illustrations, and experimental findings with this instrument.

The retina is the physiologic point of contact between the external stimulus, light, which the eyes require to convert the world without into a place of form and dimension, luminosity and color; and the final perception of these as "definite qualitative entities in consciousness." The conversion of the physical into a psychologic stimulus is brought about by demonstrable structural, chemic and electric changes engendered by the action of the light waves upon the retinal neuro-epithelial layer of rods and cones.

Reference to one monograph (J. Herbert Parsons, An Introduction to the Study of Color Vision, Cambridge, 1915) is sufficient to show the vast literature dealing with the complex elements, singly and combined, that go to make up this one phase of the visual act. The whole question may be roughly reduced to the one statement that all visual sensations are dependent upon the power that the retina possesses of adapting itself to, and converting into nerve stimuli, light vibrations of varying degrees of intensity.

The simplest example of light and dark adaptation of the retina is the experience of common knowledge, that if we pass from the bright sunlight into a dimly lighted room we cannot plainly distinguish objects until our eyes have become accustomed to this feeble illumination. If, again, we go out into the sunlight we are dazzled by its brightness, until the eyes have once more become adjusted to this degree of light. From the physical standpoint this is entirely a question of the intensity of the external stimulus. From the psycho-physiologic viewpoint, these phenomena are dependent upon certain material alterations which take place in the nerve cells of the retina, in turn exciting neuro-visual consciousness.

It is with this latter aspect that we are concerned, for we may assume that the external stimulus as such exists whether or not we have eyes to see; therefore, we may dismiss from consideration all the qualities of light as vibratory energy in ether, except its quantitative variability, on which depends the two great classes of sensation into which our consciousness of light may be divided, viz.: color sensation and colorless sensation.

Light vibrations are converted into nerve stimuli by the neuro-epithelial rods and cones which make up the outer layer of the retina. It is necessary to remember that there are no rods at the fovea centralis, but passing outward from the

central spot rods begin to make their appearance in increasing numbers, until at the periphery they far outnumber the cones. Parsons distinguishes three areas, as follows: The fovea centralis measuring 0.24 mm. to 0.3 mm. and subtending a visual angle of from 55′ to 70′. A rod free area measuring 0.8 mm. and subtending 3° 3′. The macula measuring from 1 to 3 mm. and subtending 4° to 12°.

Beneath the layer of rods and cones is the layer of pigment epithelium which, tho counted as part of the retina, is in reality outside. The cells of this layer are hexagonal in section and have processes passing up between the rods and cones. The cells contain minute needle shaped crystals of pigment. In the rods alone there is found the substance known as rhodopsin or visual purple, which may only be demonstrated after the eye has been in the dark, as it is completely bleached out by the action of light and is supposed to be reformed only in contact with the pigment cells. In the dark the pigment crystals are found in the cells close to the nucleus, but when the eyes are exposed to light they wander up into the cilia-like processes between the rods and cones. With these anatomic facts in mind let us consider the relationship that can be made out to exist bebetween the varying intensities of the external stimulus light and the resulting sensations elicited.

Let us assume, for example, that we are seated in a room brightly and uniformly illuminated from a source capable of gradual reduction in power until the room is in complete darkness. Under the bright illumination the eyes may be said to be light adapted, or *photopic* (nomenclature of Parsons), we see all objects distinctly and recognize colors. As the illumination decreases in intensity the yellows, normally the brightest colors, are exceeded in brightness by the greens, the blues become lighter and the reds darker. These changes in the relative brightness of colors constitute the well known Purkinje phenomenon. Finally, we can no longer perceive colors at all and objects take on various shades of grey. Later, we can only perceive the form of objects, and then comes complete darkness with no visual sensations. The eyes have been gradually becoming dark adapted or *scotopic*.

Under the conditions described we know that the following changes have been taking place in the perceptive end-organs of vision. In the photopic eye the rods are free of all demonstrable visual purple, and the pigment crystals are found in the cilia between the rods and cones. As dark adaptation proceeds the crystals of pigment migrate back into the cell body, and visual purple becomes evident in the base of each rod. On these anatomic facts there have been built up many theories, two of which must be briefly quoted, (1) The visual-purple theory of Edridge-Green and (2) the duplicity theory of v. Kries.

F. W. Edridge-Green (The Hunterian Lecture on Colour Vision and Colour Blindness, 1912), states his theory as follows: "A ray of light impinging on the retina liberates the visual purple from the rods and a photograph is formed. The rods are concerned only with the formation and distribution of the visual purple, not with the conveyance of the light impulses to the brain. The ends of the cones are stimulated thru the photo-chemical decomposition of the visual purple by light (very probably thru the electricity which is produced); and a visual impulse is set up which is conveyed through the optic nerve fibers to the brain. The character of the stimulus varies according to the wave length of the light causing it. In the impulse itself we have the physiologic basis of the sensation of light, and in the quality of the impulse the physiologic basis of the sensation of color."

Edridge-Green feels that he has proved his theory on evidence which he gives in his book. It is not necessary to go into this except to further quote: "that the visual purple is the essential factor in the retina which enables it to transform light into visual impulses. I find four depressions or canals which lead into the larger depression of the external fovea. These canals appear to have smaller branches and serve to conduct the visual purple into the part of most acute vision. The cones which are present in the fovea

have very long outer segments which would present a greater surface for photo-chemic stimulation. I have examined under the microscope the retinas of two monkeys which had been previously kept in a dark room for forty-eight hours. The yellow spot was the reddish part of the whole retina and the visual purple was seen to be between and not in the cones."

The duplicity theory of v. Kries (Parsons) states that achromatic scotopic vision is carried out thru the medium of the rods alone, the cones being the organs of photopic vision. In dark adaptation with low intensities of light, vision is performed by the rods stimulated by the visual purple, as the intensity of the light increases the liminal stimulation values for the cones is exceeded, and vision is carried out both by the rods and cones (chromatic scotopia). At still higher light intensities vision is carried out chiefly or wholly by the cones (photopia), but whether the rod effects are added to the cone effects, or are abolished, is as yet uncertain.

It will be seen that the formation of the visual purple is, at least, the basis of dark adaptation. In everyday life there is always a moderate amount of scotopia present which is constantly varying to meet the requirements of the moment. We cannot perceive colors unless the light stimulus is above a certain intensity whose liminal value Parsons calls the specific or color threshold. Below this is the colorless interval of light perception, which increases with the amount of dark adaptation present. It is with this interval that my studies are chiefly concerned.

In every physiologic process there is a stimulus which excites, and a resulting reaction, or sensation. There is, of course, a more or less constant relationship between the stimulus and the reaction; and in any investigation it is usual to reduce the external stimulus to its simplest form and then study the resulting sensations, or to observe the simplest reaction that can be elicited by a variety of stimuli. The simplest visual sensation that we can have is the recognition of light, and the simplest stimulus is one that will just produce this reaction under approximately known conditions of retinal adaptation.

It occurred to me that the radioactive preparations so extensively used in the manufacture of luminous watch-dials and other instruments, would furnish an ideal light stimulus of constant value and low intensity, and with the coöperation of the "Cold Light Mfg. Co." of Denver and New York I obtained a series of discs of the radioactive substance which they put out under the trade name of "Marvelite." This substance is sulphid of zinc impregnated by radium: the latter constituent I have proved to my own satisfaction by numerous photographic experiments.

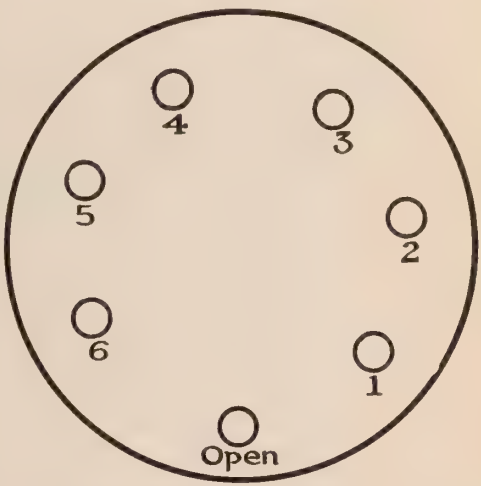


Fig. 1. Disc with openings carrying "Marvelite" exposed or covered with varying thicknesses of celluloid.

The Cold Light Mfg. Co. has instituted photometric measurements concerning the compound, and so far they have been able to determine that there is a rapid initial increase in the luminosity of the radium luminous compounds, followed by a decrease over a period of about six months, the rate of decrease then becomes slower and and slower, until at the end of one year the luminosity attains a value which is sensibly constant. The "Marvelite" discs which I am employing in my ex-

periments have been in my possession for a year.

As my experiments were to be along clinical lines I have calibrated these discs in the following manner. One was chosen as a standard which would just give the sensation of light as soon as I had passed from a well lighted room at midday into a photographic dark room. This disc is considered the minimum light stimulus to the light adapted eye. By photographic exposures I obtained a series of discs of similar intensity and by covering them with layers of No. 5 opaque white celluloid I determined, by experiments carried out at night after two hours in an absolutely dark room, that my minimum lightsense in full dark adaptation was represented by the standard disc covered by five layers of the celluloid.

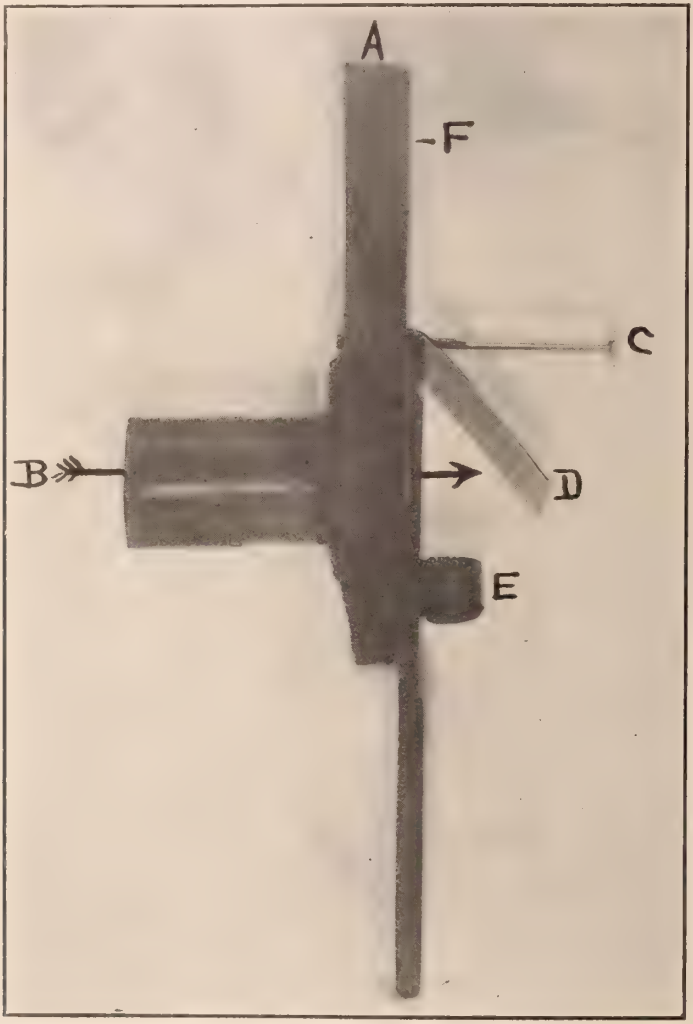


Fig. 2. The photometer described in the text. At F there is an opening through which may be read off the number of the "Marvelite" disc which is before the eye.

Six of these discs were then mounted on a circular plate (Figure 1), Disc No. 1, being the uncovered "Marvelite Button" accepted as the minimum effectual stimulus for the photopic eye. Disc No. 6 covered with five layers of celluloid being the minimum light stimu-

lus under full dark adaptation or scotopia. Discs Nos. 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 being covered with 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 layers of the celluloid. I have, therefore, six light stimuli of different degrees of intensity. The following apparatus was then constructed and certain experiments undertaken:

Figure 2 is a photograph of the photometer. The large wheel (Fig. 1) is mounted in the Box A and can be revolved before the eyepiece B by the handle C. When the opening in the wheel is before the eyepiece the observer is, of course, looking straight thru the instrument against the reflector D, which is covered with greenish blue paper to correspond with the faint greenish glow exhibited by the "Marvelite" discs of the higher intensities. The object E on the handle of the instrument is to hold a small electric light for experimental purposes to be later described. The "Marvelite" test discs are 7 mm. in diameter. The instrument is generally used at 10.5 cm. from the eye. The retinal image is therefore 1 mm. and subtends a visual angle of 4°. Figure 3 represents the "blinders" which are used in the application of the test. The slides are easily removed and the photometer brought into position and kept light proof by a leather cuff.

Let us for the moment anticipate the many problems involved and assume that the instrument is of accepted usefulness. The "blinders" are adjusted with the shutters out of the eyepieces. One shutter is replaced and the instrument is adjusted over the other eye-tube. The test object wheel is set at "open" and the observer is told to watch the round spot of light. The "Marvelite" disc No. 1 is now quickly turned into place and the individual should immediately see it. The actual test of the dark adaptation is made as follows. The "blinders" are closed and the patient is asked to keep the eyes shut. At the end of ten minutes the photometer is adjusted over one eye and the individual is asked to say when the light spot first becomes visible. The test-wheel is now slowly revolved so that the "Marvelite" discs of the weak intensities first appear before the eye. The moment the patient says, "now I see light," the number of the disc is noted and the result written in the form of a fraction the numerator of which denotes the patient's mini-



Fig. 3. The "blinders" which are fastened over the eyes.

mum light sense, the denominator the minimum light sense which numerous observations have indicated as the normal. After ten minutes in complete darkness, disc No. 5 should be seen. If the dark adaptation of the retina is normal the test is completed in ten minutes; this statement, I think, can be substantiated by the experimental work now to be described.

Experiment 1. — Is the Marvelite Disc No. 1 the minimum light stimulus for the light adapted or photopic eye? Under ordinary conditions of everyday room illumination, yes. Under full light adaptation or what may be termed light excess induced by looking at the clear sky on a bright day, no. But even under the latter conditions disc No. 1 becomes evident within thirty seconds after the eye is brought from light into darkness, which proves that the range of light adaptability even in the photopic eye is exceedingly wide. This has been proved by experiments on many individuals. If we accept Edridge-Green's theory, then we must assume, that in the light exhausted eye the visual purple is very rapidly reformed, or that it still preserves photochemic activity even in the bleached out state.

Just how greatly the sensitiveness of the retina to light is increased by dark adaptation is proven by the comparative luminosity of the "Marvelite" disc No. 1 under photopic conditions and in scotopia. In the latter state of the retina the disc is sufficiently intense to illuminate the tube of the eye piece and to slightly raise the minimum light sense. For example, if Disc No. 1 is viewed under full scotopia and the test wheel is then quickly turned to disc No. 6, the latter cannot be distinguished for a few seconds, altho it represented the minimum light sense just a few moments before. Under photopia disc No. 1 can just be discerned as an extremely faint light.

Experiment 2.—Dark adaptation is very rapid at the beginning of the process and exceedingly slow toward the completion. When the light adapted eye is brought from light into darkness disc No. 2 will become visible in about thirty seconds. Disc No. 3 requires at least ninety seconds of dark adaptation. Disc No. 4 is seen in from three to four minutes and after ten minutes disc No. 5 is just discernable. After ten minutes of dark adaptation the process becomes very slow. In observations made at midday disc No. 5 represented the minimum light stimulus after ten minutes; this was not lowered during an hour's experimentation, altho the luminosity of disc No. 5 became appreciably greater. After two hours observation in a dark room disc No. 6 could just be seen.

As Parsons has said, experiments in dark adaptation are much influenced by the condition of retinal adaptation at the beginning of the observations. I have found that if the individual to be tested has been sitting in a dimly lighted room his photopic minimum light sense may be represented by disc No. 2. With this in view I experimented with a small electric light mounted on the back of the photometer with the idea of bringing all eyes to the same degree of light adaptation before beginning any tests. This has been found unnecessary for the reason that dark adaptation, according to my observations, progresses with definite constancy within all periods under an hour. Disc No. 2 as the minimum photopic light sense only indicates that there is already that amount of dark adaptation present; disc No. 5 may become the minimum light stimulus in less than ten minutes, but beyond that time there will be no appreciable lowering of the light sense, certainly not within the time that one has to devote to a clinical test.

To obtain uniform results it is well to allow the patient to sit in a moderately lighted room for a while before the test is to be made. The photopic minimum light sense is then tested by bringing the instrument before the eye, the patient should immediately see disc No. 1. If there is some slowness in this, beyond sixty seconds, it is indicative of slow dark adaptation. The blinders are then put on and the patient allowed to wait for ten minutes. At the end of this time each eye is tested and

disc No. 5 should be seen. If disc No. 5 is seen the test may be discontinued and the dark adaptation noted as normal. If disc No. 4 represents the minimum light sense after ten minutes the test should be continued for ten minutes longer, when, if disc No. 4 still represents the minimum light sense, the result may be noted 4/5 and dark adaptation considered as "slow." A minimum light sense below disc No. 4 is considered "abnormal."

For the time being I have adopted the following chart to preserve a record of examinations.

	Min. Light Stim.	Dark Adaptation
Immediate	R. Disc. No.	
	L. Disc No.	
After 10′	R. Disc No. /5	
	L. Disc No. /5	
After 20′	R. Disc No. /5	
	L. Disc No. /5	

Remarks:

Experiment 3.—Dark adaptation occurs in each eye independent of its fellow and is not influenced by light adaptation of the other eye. One eye was kept in darkness for one hour, the other was left open, the experiments being made in a brightly lighted room at midday. Dark adaptation proceeded as heretofore described, disc No. 5 becoming visible in ten minutes and remaining the minimum light stimulus during an hour of further experimentation. Ordinary light stimulus of the other eye had no influence on the dark adaptation of the other eye. Excessive light stimulation of the open eye, e. g., looking directly toward the sun, had no appreciable effect on the dark adapted eye, except that for a moment the dazzling occurring in the light adapted eye seemed to confuse the dark adapted eye. This seemed more the result of the vast difference in the cerebral impressions than any effect on the retina, as the disc could be seen surrounded by a halo of after-dazzling.

Experiment 4.—Dark adaptation of one eye does not hasten dark adaptation in the other. After one eye had been kept in the dark for one hour, the other eye was closed and frequent observations made. It was found that dark adaptation proceeded in exactly the order before noted, that is to say it took ten minutes to bring the sensibility of the retina down to disc No. 5.

Experiment 5. — Dark adaptation proceeds equally in both eyes. If both eyes are tested simultaneously it will be found that dark adaptation is the same in each eye after the same period of time. This has been confirmed by numerous tests and, therefore, I feel that it may be stated that dark adaptation, altho an independent process of each eye, is an extremely constant and uniform chemico-physiologic process. If, in clinical determinations, one eye is found to be different from the other, after the same period of time, it is more than suggestive that there is some abnormality in the retinal adaptation.

Experiment 6.—Is there a summation of effect in the dark adapted eyes? Some observers have found that the minimum light stimulus required is less with binocular vision than with monocular vision. Working with these light stimuli of exceedingly low intensity I have not been able to confirm these findings.

Experiment 7.—Full dark adaptation is very quickly overcome by exposure of the eye to light. If, after full dark adaptation, the eyes are completely exposed to light, dark adaptation will be overcome in thirty seconds at the most; that is to say, that the minimum light stimulus will be raised from disc No. 5 to disc No. 1, and it will again require the minimum ten minutes to bring the minimum light sense down to disc No. 5. In other words, the bleaching out of the visual purple is very rapidly accomplished if the whole retina is exposed. If, however, only a restricted portion of the retina is exposed to light, the minimum light sense of that portion of the retina is raised, but very quickly regains its minimum light sense. This, to my mind, rather confirms the theory

of Edridge-Green that there is a flow of the visual purple.

Experiments in regard to this were conducted in the following way: Both eyes were kept in the dark for twenty minutes so that the minimum light sense was represented by disc No. 5. Then the blinders were entirely removed and the eyes exposed to bright daylight for thirty seconds; the blinders were then replaced and it was found that the minimum light sense had been raised to disc No. 1. Furthermore, it required the usual ten minutes to again lower the light sense to disc No. 5. After full dark adaptation was again obtained the eye was exposed to a bright light thru a small aperture (5 mm.). This raised the minimum light sense to disc No. 1, but within sixty seconds the minimum light sense was again disc No. 5. In my opinion dark adaptation proceeds regularly over the whole retina. It may be locally bleached but this portion is again quickly sensitized by a flow of the visual purple to the spot, rather than by immediate reformation, otherwise it would require a much longer time to lower the light sense of the restricted area. From these experiments I am inclined to believe that a test of a restricted portion of the retina, such as is made by my photometer, is sufficient to judge the adaptability of the whole retina.

Experiment 8.—Is there any dark adaptation at the central part of the retina? It has already been noted that Parsons distinguishes three areas in this part of the retina, the fovea, a rod-free area and the macula containing a few rods. Used at 10.5 cm. from the eye the 7 mm. test object subtends a visual angle of 4°. This would overlap the rod-free area slightly as this portion is estimated by Parsons to subtend 3° 3′. On the other hand it covers the minimum area allotted to the macula proper of from 4° to 12°. In the discs of low intensity the area of the disc is less than 7 mm. As these discs do not emit any divergent radiations and can only be perceived as light "spots" of very low intensity, irregular in outline and not luminous in the periphery, I calculate their diameter to be about 5 mm. *Undoubtedly there is marked dark adaptation at the macula and if the size of the discs is reduced to* 5 *mm, dark adaptation can be shown to be present to the same degree in the rod-free area.*

If, however, the discs are viewed thru a pinpoint opening, thus reducing the visual angle practically to zero and making visibility entirely a question of luminosity, disc No. 2, even under complete dark adaptation, becomes the minimum light stimulus. I do not find, however, that the light sense is lower than disc No. 2 even in the extramacular region when tested with the pinpoint disc. I have reached the conclusion, therefore, that there is marked dark adaptation at the macula and in the rod-free area thereof, if the test-object is sufficiently large to subtend a definite angle. At the exact fovea, or in the periphery for that matter, when probably a few cones are stimulated by the point of light, there is very slight dark adaptation below the minimum light sense of the photopic eye. Conclusions in this regard are as yet uncertain. This particular phase of the question is open to much further investigation.

Finally, the work which I present at this time, is to a large degree confirmation of the findings of others; the instrument and the experiments are admittedly elementary.

The manufacturers of "Marvelite," with the coöperation of the United States Bureau of Standards, are making a scientific effort to standardize the luminosity of their product. It is probable that they will be able to produce a radiant substance of uniform value, which can be accurately calibrated. Clinically I have used the test for a year and have found the results extremely interesting and worthy of further study. These reports with further experiments I reserve for a future communication.

COMMON CHANGES IN REGULAR ASTIGMIA AND THEIR CAUSES.

EDWARD JACKSON, M. D.

DENVER.

This paper points out the error of supposing astigmia remains unchanged throughout life. Tabulates the changes found in 1,294 eyes remeasured after five to seventeen years, and the relation of corneal to total astigmia. With one diagram. Read before the Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, June 12, 1918.

The first reported cases of astigmia were of high degree, so that moderate changes in the amount or meridians would not be very noticeable. The first correcting lenses, determined with considerable difficulty, were accepted as an accurate correction thruout life, except in the case of the astronomer Airy,[1] who remeasured his astigmia after nearly 20 years and found it had somewhat diminished. As we would express it today:

His correction of —6.5 ⌒ —5.5 cyl., had changed to —4.5 ⌒ —4.0 cyl.

Donders[2] classed the great mass of cases of astigmia as congenital, recognizing as acquired astigmia that depending on disease, or injury, or incision of the cornea, or upon traumatic displacement of the crystalline lens. He states, "In the great majority of cases it is congenital."[3] This thought was dominant in all his writings on the subject. He implies some skepticism as to the change in Airy's case when he says: "With a man like Airy we may assume that he observed for his farthest point with unaltered accommodation; otherwise we should venture the supposition that, in his earliest observations, in consequence of accommodation on the approach of the point of light, the myopia in the vertical meridian had turned out too great, whereby the recession of the farthest point with the increase of years (which certainly with the existing degree of myopia is extremely rare), should only apparently have taken place."

Knapp's[4] early observations with the ophthalmometer revealed the corneal astigmia unchanged during the brief time over which they were repeated. Javal's[5] statistics dealt with single observations upon each case. The same is true regarding the statistical record of 806 astigmic eyes published by Burnett.[6] The thought of ophthalmologists regarding astigmia was given a strong bent toward the conception that the astigmic condition of an eye was permanent. It was believed to be a congenital characteristic, that each eye carried from the cradle to the grave, unless altered by some accidental circumstance. This was in strong contrast to the earlier writings of Donders and others regarding the increase of hyperopia with age, the progressive tendency of all cases of myopia in the early part of their course, and the senile myopic change that gives second sight.

Early in his work on ametropia, the writer encountered some rather striking cases of progressive hyperopic astigmia, including his own eyes which were repeatedly measured under different cycloplegics. A series of 18 cases of such change was reported to the American Ophthalmological Society in 1890.[7] Attention was also given the changes in astigmia following cataract extraction, and other corneal incisions.[8]

Early in these studies of astigmia, the impression arose that the common belief in its permanence was not well grounded; and the study of this subject was begun by the observation of changes in astigmia presented by patients returning for the remeasurement of their refraction. It was interrupted after a few years by removal from Philadelphia, so that patients previously measured no longer returned for reexamination. These studies, resumed in Denver with a new set of patients, have now been continued for 20 years, and a sufficient number of observations has accumulated to afford a basis for a statistical

study. These include notes on 1,294 eyes of 648 patients who have had their ametropia remeasured after periods of five to seventeen years. All cases of operative or other injury of the eyeball, or of keratoconus or other ocular disease except eye strain, have been excluded. The average period over which the observations of the refraction extended was eight and two-thirds years. Of these eyes 421, or 32.7 per cent, showed less than 0.25D of change in the amount of astigmia present; and 873, or 67.3 per cent, showed at least that much change in their astigmia, as measured for the correction of their ametropia. Of these latter, 394, or 31.2 per cent, showed 0.50D, or more change in the amount of their astigmia.

These cases in which the change was 0.50D. or greater were made the basis of a further statistical study as to the general direction of this change in the astigmia and the ages at which it occurred. The results of such study are embodied in Table I.

The first column gives the ages of the patients thus: Those given as 10 years were under 10 years when first examined; but the large majority were over 10 years at the last examination. Those given as 20 years were between 10 and 20 when first examined, but most of them over 20 when last seen. This plan is followed thruout the table, except that the line for 70 years includes all patients that were over 60 years when first examined.

Column A gives the number of eyes in which the change was an increase of astigmia with the rule, or a decrease of astigmia against the rule, or a passing of astigmia against into astigmia with the rule. Astigmia with the rule was made to include all cases in which the axis of the convex correcting cylinder was placed within 30° of the vertical, or the axis of the concave correcting cylinder within 30° of the horizontal; i. e., plus axes between 60° and 120°, or minus axes between 150° and 30°. Astigmia against the rule includes all cases in which the axis of the convex correcting cylinder lies between 150° and 30°, and the axis of the concave correcting cylinder lies between 60° and 120°.

Column B gives the number of cases in which the change was a decrease of astigmia with the rule, or an increase of astigmia against the rule; or where astigmia with the rule changed to astigmia against the rule as these terms are defined in the preceding paragraph.

Column C gives the number of cases of oblique astigmia in which the change was 0.50D. or more in amount, and in which the direction of the meridians for either convex or concave correcting cylinders lay between 30° and 60° on the one hand, or between 120° and 150° on the other.

TABLE I.

	A		B		C		
Age	Cases,	Per Cent	Cases,	Per Cent	Cases,	Per Cent	Totals
10 years.....	17	55	10	32	4	13	31
20 years.....	30	33	51	55	11	12	92
30 years.....	24	28	55	63	8	9	87
40 years.....	14	16	59	71	11	13	84
50 years.....	13	22	42	71	4	7	59
60 years.....	7	25	19	68	2	7	28
70 years.....	2	15	10	77	1	8	13
	107	27	246	62.5	41	10.5	394

From this table it appears that of this 394 eyes (31.2 per cent of all eyes) that showed a change of 0.50D or more in the amount of their astigmia, a majority, 62.5 per cent showed change toward astigmia against the rule, 27 per cent showed a change toward astigmia with the rule, and 10.5 showed changes in astigmia which remained or became oblique.

When we come to consider the distribution of these changes thru the different periods of life, the percentages show certain unmistakable tendencies. In early life, increase of astigmia with the rule, or the tendency in that direction, predominates, affecting 55 per cent in the first period. But as life advances, this tendency becomes less frequent, until in the last period it is shown in only 15 per cent of eyes. On the other hand, the tendency for astigmia with the rule to diminish, or the tendency toward astigmia against the rule, increases as life goes on. In the first period, it was shown by only 32 per cent. But in the last period, it was manifest by 77 per cent of eyes that remained without recognizable change in amount thruout the period they were under observation. The proportion that remain unchanged is least during the period of growth, but is considerable at all times of life, varying from 23 per cent before 10 years to 39 per cent after 50 years.

It must not be forgotten, however, that this diagram represents only the changes that occur during an average period of eight and two-thirds years. This is only one-fifth of the average life of these patients. It is extremely probable, if not absolutely certain, that many of this 32.7 per cent that showed no change in the amount of astigmia during the period

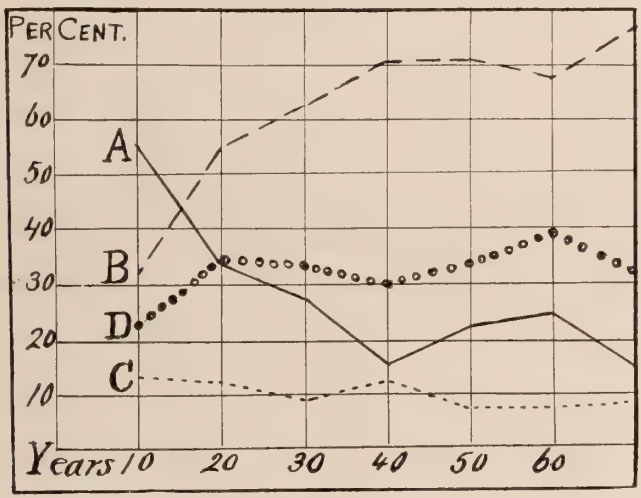


Figure 1.

the eyes examined. On the other hand, the number of cases of astigmia that vary in amount but remain oblique does not vary much (less than 4 per cent from the average of 10.5 per cent) thruout life. These facts are most easily grasped when presented graphically as in Fig. 1.

While these opposing tendencies are unequally represented, or predominate at different ages, it must be noted that each of them is represented at every period of life. There is no period of life at which any change of astigmia may not occur, quite apart from trauma of any kind, or from recognizable ocular disease. In Fig. 1 has been added a fourth line D showing the number of of observation have or will experience such changes at other periods of life.

CAUSES OF CHANGE IN ASTIGMIA.

It is generally assumed that the eye presents three dioptric surfaces bounding its dioptric media. But to the anterior surface of the cornea and anterior and posterior surfaces of the lens must be added the posterior surface of the cornea, and the surfaces bounding the different layers of the crystalline lens. Each layer of the crystalline lens has its individual index of refraction, differing from that of every other layer, so that each layer constitutes a distinct dioptric medium; and every one of

these dioptric surfaces may be astigmic.

It is customary to speak of the total astigmia of the eye as the resultant of its corneal and lenticular astigmia. But Tscherning[9] points out that this is not strictly exact. He calls the astigmia due to the anterior surface of the cornea the ophthalmometric astigmia; and the other possible factors that unite to cause the "subjective" or total astigmia, he groups as together causing what he calls the "supplementary" astigmia. Any difference between ophthalmometric and subjective astigmia is to be counted as supplementary. Let us consider whether these changes in astigmia are due to changes in the ophthalmometric or the supplementary astigmia. This may be detected by comparing the ophthalmometric readings with the total astigmia.

Ophthalmometric readings admit of a certain error of observation that makes differences of 0.25D or 0.50D too small to give reliable results. Those eyes were therefore selected that showed a change of 1D or more in the amount of astigmia for a study that might indicate where the change was located. The successive ophthalmometric readings have all been made with the ophthalmometer of Javal and Schiötz as made by Goubeaux of Paris, model of 1889. As before noted, all cases of distinct keratoconus have been excluded.

The following cases have been selected as being all in which the change of astigmia observed amounted to 1D or more. They illustrate the different relations between the ophthalmometric changes and those noted in the subjective astigmia. In the first group, the changes in anterior corneal surface show some correspondence with the changes in the total astigmia. In a few the change of corneal surface is exactly such as would produce the change in subjective astigmia. In other cases, the correspondence is not so exact, but evidently the anterior surface of the cornea has been one factor in the changes that have altered the astigmia. Under the case number is given the age of the patient when first examined and the age at the last examination. In the second column is given the ophthalmometric astigmia, and in the third column, the subjective astigmia found at the same time. R. and L. indicate the right and left eyes.

GROUP A.

	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 1—				
8	R.+1. cyl. ax. 90°		R.+1. cyl. ax. 83°	
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°	
17	R.+3. cyl. ax. 75°	+2.	R.+2.75 cyl. ax. 80°	+1.75
	L.+3. cyl. ax. 105°	+2.25	L.+2.75 cyl. ax. 113°	+2.
Case 2—				
12	R.+5. cyl. ax. 105°		R.+4. cyl. ax. 105°	
	L.+4. cyl. ax. 75°		L.+4. cyl. ax. 77°	
20	R.+5.75 cyl. ax. 110°	+0.75	R.+5.50 cyl. ax. 110°	+1.50
	L.+4. cyl. ax. 85°	0.	L.+4.50 cyl. ax. 83°	+0.50
Case 3—				
9	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 75°		R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 60°	
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 100°		L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 93°	
19	R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 90°	—1.	R. no cyl.	—1.25
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 120°	—0.25	L.+0.37 cyl. ax. 150°	—0.87
Case 4—				
14	R.+3. cyl. ax. 65°		R.+4. cyl. ax. 60°	
	L.+3. cyl. ax. 115°		L.+3.50 cyl. ax. 130°	
23	R.+2.75 cyl. ax. 60°	—0.25	R.+3.50 cyl. ax. 55°	—0.50
	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 105°	—1.50	L.+2. cyl. ax. 115°	—1.50

	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 5—				
16	R.+6. cyl. ax. 135°		R.+5. cyl. ax. 165°	
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		L. no cyl.	
21	R.+7. cyl. ax. 145°	+1.	R.+6.50 cyl. ax. 1°	+1.50
	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 30°	+1.	L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 155°	+2.50
Case 6—				
19	R+1.50 cyl. ax. 100°		R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 95°	
	L.+1.75 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+1.75 cyl. ax. 90°	
31	R.+2. cyl. ax. 100°	+0.50	R.+2.25 cyl. ax. 93°	+1.
	L.+2.25 cyl. ax. 85°	+0.50	L.+2.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+0.50
Case 7—				
22	R.+4.50 cyl. ax. 145°		R.+3. cyl. ax. 7°	
	L.+4. cyl. ax. 35°		L.+3.50 cyl. ax. 10°	
28	R.+6. cyl. ax. 140°	+1.50	R.+5.50 cyl. ax. 5°	+2.50
	L.+7. cyl. ax. 45°	+3.	L.+5.50 cyl. ax. 5°	+2.
Case 8—				
23	R.+2.25 cyl. ax. 100°		R.+1.75 cyl. ax. 90°	
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 85°		L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 95°	
29	R.+3.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+1.	R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 88°	+0.75
	L.+3. cyl. ax. 90°	+1.	L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 103°	+1.
Case 9—				
23	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°		R.+0.37 cyl. ax. 105°	
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 100°		L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 40°	
32	R.+2.75 cyl. ax. 90°	+1.50	R.+1.37 cyl. ax. 82°	+1.
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 110°	+1.	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 125°	+1.25
Case 10—				
28	R.+3.25 cyl. ax. 105°		R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 105°	
	L.+4. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 88°	
44	R.+4.25 cyl. ax. 97°	+1.	R.+3. cyl. ax. 105°	+0.50
	L.+4.75 cyl. ax. 85°	+0.75	L.+3.75 cyl. ax. 85°	+1.25
Case 11—				
40	R.+4. cyl. ax. 90°		R.+3.50 cyl. ax. 85°	
	L.+4. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+3.50 cyl. ax. 95°	
46	R.+4.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+0.25	R.+3.75 cyl. ax. 84°	+0.25
	L.+4.50 cyl. ax. 95°	+0.50	L.+4.50 cyl. ax. 96°	+1.
Case 12—				
43	R. no cyl.		R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 145°	
	L.—0.50 cyl. ax. 180°		L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 180°	
50	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 135°	+0.50	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 115°	+0.50
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 15°	+0.50	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 165°	+1.
Case 13—				
53	R. Less than 0.25		R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 65°	
	L. Less than 0.25		L.+0.62 cyl. ax. 90°	
66	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 25°	+1.50	R.+2. cyl. ax. 10°	+1.75
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 175°	+1.	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 175°	+0.62
Case 14—				
57	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		R. no cyl.	
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		L. no cyl.	
71	R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°	+0.75	R.+1. cyl. ax. 175°	+1.
	L.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°	+0.75	L.+1. cyl. ax. 175°	+1.

The cases in the following group show wide discrepancies between the changes in the ophthalmometric readings and the changes in total or subjec-

tive astigmia. In some cases, the two changes have been in opposite directions, so that the change in astigmia is clearly due to some factor other than the change in the anterior corneal surface.

GROUP B.

	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 15—				
7	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°	
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°	
18	R.+1. cyl. ax. 105°	+0.50	R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 25°	+1.25
	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+0.75	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 113°	+0.25
Case 16—				
13	R.+1. cyl. ax. 85°		R.+0.62 cyl. ax. 95°	
	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.62 cyl. ax. 85°	
24	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+0.25	R.+0.37 cyl. ax. 170°	—1.
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 90°	—0.25	L.+0.37 cyl. ax. 10°	—1.
Case 17—				
23	R.+1.75 cyl. rx. 90°		R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 103°	
	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+1. cyl. ax. 85°	
36	R.+3.50 cyl. ax. 90°	+1.75	R.+2. cyl. ax. 102°	+0.50
	L.+3.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+1.75	L.+2. cyl. ax. 90°	+1.
Case 18—				
26	R.+6. cyl. ax. 98°		R.+6. cyl. ax. 97°	
	L.+5. cyl. ax. 85°		L.+6. cyl. ax. 83°	
38	R.+6. cyl. ax. 100°	0.	R.+7. cyl. ax. 92°	+1.
	L.+5.5 cyl. ax. 80°	+0.50	L.+6.50 cyl. ax. 83°	+0.50
Case 19—				
28	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 180°		R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 10°	
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 180°		L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 172°	
39	R.+1. cyl. ax. 10°	—0.25	R.+2. cyl. ax. 10°	+0.75
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 125°	+2.50	L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 138°	+1.25
Case 20—				
39	R.+3. cyl. ax. 90°		R.+2.75 cyl. ax. 85°	
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+1.75 cyl. ax. 95°	
51	R.+3. cyl. ax. 75°	0.	R.+2. cyl. ax. 80°	—0.75
	L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 105°	+0.50	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 85°	—1.
Case 21—				
40	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°		R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 140°	
	L.+0.25 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 30°	
46	R. no cyl.	—0.50	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 170°	+0.50
	L. no cyl.	—0.25	L.+1.75 cyl. ax. 175°	+1.
Case 22—				
50	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 90°		R.+1. cyl. ax. 105°	
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 90°	
59	R.+1. cyl. ax. 90°	—0.50	R. no cyl.	—1.
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 90°	—1.	L. no cyl.	—1.50
Case 23—				
55	R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°		R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 105°	
	L. no cyl.		L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 88°	
67	R.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°	0.	R.+3. cyl. ax. 105°	+0.50
	L.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°	+0.25	L.+3.75 cyl. ax. 85°	+1.25
Case 24—				
65	R.+1. cyl. ax. 75°		R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 40°	
	L. no cyl.		L.+1. cyl. ax. 170°	
73	R.+1.25 cyl. ax. 35°	+0.25	R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 20°	+1.75
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 135°	+0.75	L.+250 cyl. ax. 170°	+1.50

	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 25—				
67	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 30°		R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 15°	
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 150°		L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 170°	
74	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 15°	0.	R.+4.50 cyl. ax. 7°	+3.25
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 150°	+0.25	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 170°	+0.25

In the third group are included cases in which the changes in one eye would place the case in the first group, but the changes in the other eye are such as have occurred in cases of the second group. They emphasize the fact that even in the same patient, at the same time, differing factors may be working to produce changes of astigmia.

GROUP C.

	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 26—				
11	R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°		R. no cyl.	
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°		L. no cyl.	
17	R.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°	0.	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 115°	+1.50
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 90°	0.	L. no cyl.	
Case 27—				
15	R.+2. cyl. ax. 90°		R.+2. cyl. ax. 85°	
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+2.25 cyl. ax. 100°	
22	R.+2. cyl. ax. 90°	0.	R.+1.75 cyl. ax. 90°	−0.25
	L.+2. cyl. ax. 90°	0.	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 87°	−1.
	Ophthalmometric Astigmia	Change	Subjective Test Astigmia	Change
Case 28—				
17	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 90°		R.+0.62 cyl. ax. 90°	
	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.62 cyl. ax. 85°	
25	R.+5. cyl. ax. 100°	+3.50	R.+2.25 cyl. ax. 130°	+1.62
	L.+1.25 cyl. ax. 90°	+0.25	L.+0.37 cyl. ax. 165°	−0.25
Case 29—				
32	R. no cyl.		R. no cyl.	
	L.+0.75 cyl. ax. 15°		L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 5°	
39	R.+1. cyl. ax. 90°	+1.	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 72°	+0.50
	L.+0.25 cyl. ax. 180°	−0.50	L.+2.50 cyl. ax. 180°	+1.
Case 30—				
35	R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 100°		R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 120°	
	L.+1.50 cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 18°	
41	R.+1.50 cyl. ax. 105°	−1.	R.+0.50 cyl. ax. 138°	−1.
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 80°	−0.50	L.+1. cyl. ax. 80°	+1.50
Case 31—				
56	R.+5. cyl. ax. 125°		R.+2.50 cyl. ax. 145°	
	L.+1. cyl. ax. 90°		L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 90°	
68	R.+5. cyl. ax. 115°	0.	R.+3.75 cyl. ax. 102°	+1.25
	L.+0.50 cyl. ax. 105°	−0.50	L. no cyl.	−0.50

In examining Group A, it will be noticed that among the 28 eyes included, 24 showed the change to be one of increase of the astigmia; and that 15 showed increase of astigmia with the rule and 9 against the rule. The 4 in which the astigmia diminished were all cases in which it was changing from with to against the rule. These general tendencies hold good regarding lower degrees of astigmia, in which, however, there is a greater chance of error. So far as these statistics indicate, the changes in the anterior surface of the cornea generally tend in the direction of relative increase of curvature in the vertical meridian, altho to this rule there are exceptions.

Examination of Group B shows that where the change in total astigmia depends chiefly on a change of the supplementary astigmia, the corneal curvatures not showing any corresponding change, the tendency is generally toward astigmia against the rule, this being the case in 16 of the 22 eyes given in that group.

With regard to Group C, which includes 6 cases, we find that in the eyes in which the total corresponded to the corneal astigmia, 3 are with the rule, and 1 against. While in the eyes in which the change of corneal and total astigmia did not correspond, 3 are with the rule, 3 against; and 2 changing from with the rule to oblique, which has the same significance as changing from with the rule to against the rule.

In all three groups, therefore, it appears that the tendency is for astigmia to increase with the rule by increase of the corneal astigmia; and to increase against the rule by increase of the supplementary astigmia.

As to congenital astigmia, there is a sense in which a large proportion of cases may be regarded as congenital in origin. The work of Steiger[10] upon the heredity of ametropia has demonstrated what many observers had believed, that a tendency to astigmia exists in many families. Spengler[11] reported such a tendency in the family of Javal. Out of such a congenital tendency undoubtedly a large proportion of cases of astigmia develop, just as a congenital tendency may determine that in certain persons the hair will get white at an exceptionally early age, or that glaucoma or cataract will develop.

But many of these cases of astigmia of congenital origin differ entirely in their history from such congenital defects, as microphthalmos, or coloboma of the iris, or congenital color blindness. It is certain that in some of the cases the astigmia, although due to a congenital tendency, develops during life. The large proportion of children in whom the astigmia changes after they reach an age when it comes to be accurately measured, and the proportion of these in which the subjective astigmia corresponds to the form of the anterior corneal surface, indicates that many cases of "congenital" astigmia arise during the period of growth. Nor can it be claimed that the corneal development is the only factor in producing these cases of astigmia. In some of them an asymmetric growth of the lens is the most logical inference.

The progressive increase in the number of cases of astigmia changing from "with the rule" to "against the rule" is perhaps the most striking fact brought out. This is not at variance with the recorded experience of others. The statistics of Nordenson[12], which showed such a large percentage of corneal astigmia with the rule were based upon the examination of school children. It was about the time of their publication that the great preponderance of astigmia with the rule was generally accepted. Knapp's[13] original measurements of the cornea found among nine cases one in which a flatter meridian was vertical, and four in which it was more or less oblique. Donders'[14] fifteen cases show one case in which the meridian of greatest refraction was at 2°, another at which it was at 17°, and one at 172°; and in which all but five were the eyes of persons under thirty years of age.

In 1891, de Schweinitz[15] reported one hundred cases of astigmia contrary to the rule. Of his patients, 30 per cent were under forty and 70 per cent over forty. In 1903, Bennett and Clemesha[16] published a study of astigmia, in which they gave the proportions of the different forms of astigmia found at difrent ages. They found that among persons in the first decade of life, 88 per cent showed astigmia with the rule, while after seventy less than 30 per cent showed astigmia with the rule, and 63 per cent showed astigmia against the rule.

In this paper nothing has been said of changes in the meridians of astigmia, except regarding the three general classes of "with the rule," "against the rule," and "oblique." In Case 16 the change in total astigmia was only 0.25 D, but the change of 75° in the meridians of each eye made it a re-

versal of astigmia, equal in significance to a change of 1D in the amount. But changes in the meridians may be so readily produced by slight changes in one of the factors entering into the total astigmia that a study of changes in the direction of the axis of the correcting cylinder measured in degrees would be more confusing than helpful. An examination of these changes confirms observations based on the amount of rough change of axis; but shows that astigmia is even more variable than the facts here brought out would seem to indicate.

CONCLUSIONS: The facts before us demonstrate that astigmia is liable to change at any period of life. In childhood, it frequently increases because of the increased asymmetry of the anterior surface of the cornea. Such change is usually in the direction of relatively greater curvature in the vertical meridian. But this change may occur at any time of life. In childhood, also, the astigmia sometimes changes because of change in the other dioptric surfaces of the eye; and changes due to this cause become more and more frequent as time goes on. Such changes cause "astigmatism with the rule" to become the exception in the latter part of life, its opposite being now the rule.

This fact makes these generally understood terms entirely inappropriate, and they should be replaced by others, such as: *Direct,* with the meridian of greatest curvature approximately vertical; *inverse,* with the meridian of greatest curvature approximately horizontal, and *oblique* in the same sense in which it is used in this article.

Astigmia is congenital chiefly in the sense that a tendency to asymmetric refraction exists, which works itself out at some stage in the development of the individual.

The variety of the changes that may occur in astigmia point to the interplay of a number of factors that are yet to be studied. The fact that a large majority of eyes undergo such changes to an extent that makes them of practical importance makes it imperative that the astigmia shall be remeasured whenever symptoms arise that may be due to uncorrected astigmia.

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HYPERMETROPIA RESPONSIBLE FOR HETEROPHORIA ASTIGMATISM AND MYOPIA.

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NEW YORK.

This paper contains an explanation and argument based upon statistics of the relative frequency of these different conditions at different ages. It was read before the American Ophthalmological Society, July 10th, 1918.

In the year 1888 the Stevens theories and claims of cures of certain ailments by partial tenotomies caused so much interest that a committee of ophthalmologists and neurologists was appointed to investigate them. In the writer's belief, the results of the new treatment were not satisfactory, but it was adopted by a large number of ophthalmologists all over the country. They were divided into the following six groups as to cause of deviation: muscles too strong, too weak, too long, too short, attached too near the cornea, and malformation of the orbit. Stevens, in his book on Functional Nervous Diseases, states that the superior rectus of one eye is too strong, or the inferior rectus of its fellow is too strong. In either case he calls the vertical tendency "hyperphoria," and cuts the superior rectus of the eye that is on the higher plane. If that fails to correct the tendency, he cuts the inferior rectus of the fellow-eye.

During the investigation by the committee the writer had the good fortune to measure the tendency before and after these operations. During the first period of the operations the writer discovered that the eye operated on was the fixing eye, and, of course, was the eye on the horizontal plane, while its fellow was below it. A commonsense view afforded a simple explanation. Instinctively, man or animal fixes with the better eye, whether or not the fellow-eye has a tendency to deviate. The writer saw cases of tenotomy of superior rectus in eyes with vision 20/20 to 20/15, while the vision of their fellows was 20/30 or 20/40 or even less, this faulty vision being due to a greater error of refraction. Thoroly convinced that the vertical tendency to deviate was due to the difference in the error of refraction, and that the tendency was downward, the writer worked out the causes and discovered that the fault was not in the muscles but in errors of refraction. Those muscles act instinctively to aid the fixing eye by a greater muscular effort, just as an eye with distorting vision produced by lesion causes the eye instinctively to turn. If the fixing eye is better than the two combined, the affected one is discarded.

On this subject a paper was written and read before the ophthalmic section of the Academy of Medicine in 1893, with a report of 200 cases showing the following:

Refraction the same:			
Esophoria	70		(90.1 per cent.)
Exophoria	21		
	—	91	
Hypophoria	1		
Hypoesophoria	5		(9.9 per cent.)
Hypoexophoria	4		
	—	10	
		101	
Refraction different:			
Horizontal tendency	19		(19.2 per cent.)
Vertical tendency..	80		(80.8 per cent.)
	—		
	99		
Tendency downward	65		(81.25 per cent.)
Tendency upward..	15		(18.75 per cent.)
	—		
	80		

TORSION.

After reading Dr. Savage's paper on Insufficiency of the Oblique Muscles, the writer began to look for cases showing those defects, and found only three, all of which were in eyes having a different error of refraction. This led the writer to prepare and read a second paper before the ophthalmic section in 1898. In this collection of

514 cases the following conditions appeared:

Refraction the same:		
Horizontal tendency....	194	(81 per cent.)
Vertical tendency.....	45	(18 per cent.)
	239	
Refraction different:		
Horizontal tendency....	42	(14.55 per cent.)
Vertical tendency.....	233	(85.45 per cent.)
	275	
Hyperphoria	74	(31 + per cent.)
Hypophoria	159	(68 + per cent.)
	233	

Of these two papers combined, 340 showed the same error of refraction, the tendency to deviate being confined to the horizontal plane, 83.82 per cent., and those showing a vertical tendency, 16.18 per cent.

The remaining 374 cases were anisometropic, showing a horizontal tendency to deviate of 16.32 per cent., and a vertical tendency of 83.68 per cent.

It thus appears that the totals in the two classes of cases are virtually reversed, the percentage being about 84 and 16 per cent. respectively in each class, the difference being about one-seventh of 1 per cent.

The third paper on this subject was published in 1904, in the Archives of Ophthalmology, vol. xxxiii, with a report of only a dozen cases.

EMMETROPIA.

The writer believes that all the external ocular muscles supplied by the third nerve act with the ciliary muscle in accommodation. The four recti muscles are so attached to the globe of the eye that, acting singly, they turn in the direction of that muscle. Any two muscles acting together turn the eyeball in the diagonal of these directions, as in looking around a room. The oblique muscles rotate the eyeball on its anteroposterior axis, keeping the eye in its vertical plane.

The internus and inferior rectus are governed by a common tendon,—the ligament of Zinn,—which is attached around the circumference of the optic foramen except at its upper and outer part. These two muscles are larger and stronger than any other two muscles combined, the internus being the larger and stronger. In accommodation they act together, of course, downward and inward. The superior recti are the thinnest and narrowest of the four recti muscles which pull the eye upward and inward. The inferior obliques, thin, narrow muscles, pull the eye upward and outward, and both are supplied by the third nerve. If the inferior oblique turns the eye outward above to keep it on its vertical plane in accommodation, what action could the superior rectus take except to relax? It is hardly logical to assume that it is the only idle muscle in accommodation supplied by the third nerve. It must be included in the process of accommodation, the superior rectus and inferior obliques counteracting or counterbalancing each other, and holding the upper part of the eye in its original position, while the internus and inferior rectus turn it inward and downward. At the same time the externus and superior oblique relax, so as to place the lower part of the eye directly under the upper part, thus keeping the eye in its vertical plane, turning downward and inward.

When hypermetropia is the same in both eyes, and the vision is normal, the tendency to converge is equal in the two eyes. If esotropia develops, one eye turns downward and inward by increased action of the two muscles to avoid diplopia. We should call this a voluntary contraction, because it is independent of the amount of stress necessary to work with the fellow-eye. That this is independent of the action necessary for accommodation is shown by the fact that there is usually no latent hypermetropia. That is, the eye would accept a +4 D., while the fixing eye would probably have a manifest of not more than 1 D. When under atropin they would both accept +4 D. When they work together (absence of squint), the manifest varies from nothing to probably the full amount of error. When the hypermetropia is different, we have either hypophoria or hypoesophoria, more often the latter. The hypophoria is in the more hypermetropic eye, while the fixing eye is on the horizontal plane.

When hypermetropia differs in the two eyes, and each accommodates to correct its error, the eye with the greater error turns more inward, as it turns more downward and may be thrown on a different plane. Torsion is more apt to be found in myopic eyes differing in refraction. As they cannot work together, the discarded eye is turned outward and downward by the contraction of the externus and superior oblique.

PSEUDO- AND TRUE HETEROPHORIA.

Dr. Savage claims that pseudoheterophoria is the amount that glasses can correct; that true heterophoria is the uncorrected esophoria in hypermetropia, the uncorrected exophoria in myopia, exophoria in hypermetropia, and esophoria in myopia. If it can be shown that what Dr. Savage calls "true" is pseudoheterophoria, something worth while has been gained. Our literature on the subject of accommodation is with emmetropic eyes or eyes made emmetropic by correcting glasses. This is preliminary to what we wish to prove. We will take 13 inches as a comfortable distance for an emmetropic eye. The first impulse is to see distinctly, causing the crystalline lens to increase 3 D. The second impulse is to avoid diplopia by converging to a point at 13 inches. So long as nature provides an emmetropic eye to go with accommodation and convergence to a given point, all goes well. But when eyes hyperopic 3 D. have to accommodate 6 D., an attempt to converge to a point 13 inches away, when the natural convergence would be six and a half inches, all goes wrong. This convergence to 6½ inches is prevented by a volunteer contraction of the externi and superior obliques—the counteraction muscles; unless it is possible for the interni and inferior recti to contract, only half the amount of the ciliary muscle. In such cases, if we do not get a convergent squint, we have either esophoria or exophoria. The cases of exophoria in hypermetropia can be attributed to two causes, working together or separately:

1. The strain or fatigue of the ciliary muscle may come first, which would be indicated by a blurring or, as patients often say, everything turns black before their eyes. This would be followed by a relaxation of the internal and inferior recti muscles.

2. The fatigue in convergence is more likely to come first, as they are antagonized by two opposing sets of muscles, the externi and the superior obliques, to offset the extra physiologic action of the interni in accommodation to a given point, indicated by the extra increased curvature of the crystalline lenses. The indication of the interni fatigue is either a separation of the letters into two sets of letters, or a tendency to do so, indicated by the broadening out of each letter, making the letters unrecognizable. This condition is described by the patient as "the letters dancing all over the page." This may mean either exophoria or esophoria, or alternating struggles against the ciliary muscles to hold convergence at a distance of 3 D. We may have exophoria for the near and esophoria for the distance, which is not at all uncommon, and in other cases exophoria for both far and near, which is often found.

When the hypermetropia is different, the eye with the greater error moves inward and downward, on account of greater muscular effort to correct the difference. Thus hypoesophoria 80 per cent. The hyperesophoria of 20 per cent. is accounted for by the internus and inferior rectus becoming tired, for the same reason that we have exophoria in hypermetropic eyes the same.

If the full correction for the hypermetropia is made, Dr. Savage's true heterophoria turns out to be the pseudoheterophoria. When this full correction is given, the interni and ciliary muscles act in harmony; and neither the exophoria or hypoexophoria any longer exists either near or at the distance. Recently, considerable attention has been given to ciliary muscle fatigue by some of our distinguished ophthalmologists. The most recent was by the chairman of a committee of the ophthalmic section of the American Medical Association for eye

muscle research. This report on the ciliary muscle gave the measurement of fatigue at different ages.

While such reports are interesting, their practical value is questionable. If all errors of refraction are corrected, ciliary muscle fatigue will be confined practically to emmetropic presbyopic eyes, and to those of younger people who hold their work too near the eyes. It is the opinion of some ophthalmologists that amblyopia, in hypermetropia, precedes the squint, and of others that amblyopia comes subsequent to the squint from the non-use of the eye. As this paper is confined strictly to muscles and refraction, no other amblyopic cases are considered.

In the writer's opinion, excessive accommodation causes double vision, followed by alternating squint, which later on becomes a permanent squint of one eye. While the writer agrees with the latter group that the amblyopia is subsequent to the squint, he does not believe that it is directly due to the squint. We have all seen eyes where the squint had existed for years with normal vision in the squinting eye, with or without a glass. The reason for this is that the accommodation in that eye has continued, and all rays of light have fallen upon the retina, including the macula, with the same sharp focus as that of the fellow-eye. This continued sharp focus keeps the retina active, notwithstanding images are ignored or suppressed. When we find a squint of long standing with amblyopia, we find the hypermetropia to be 4 D. or over, with absolutely no accommodation. This produces the amblyopia, because the rays of light fall upon the retina and macula under circles of diffusion. With no focus to stimulate the retina, the eye becomes amblyopic. This eye will show under the test the total error, while its fellow will show about one-fourth. If the two eyes are placed under atropin, we shall probably find that the fixing eye has the same amount of error, with no increase in the refraction of the squinting eye. We have also noticed that very high degrees of hypermetropia, such as 6 or 7 D., do not have squint. Such cases we shall find are amblyopic unless glasses have been worn to correct the error.

ESOPHORIA IN MYOPIA.

Esophoria in myopia is not very common and is found when myopia is the same in both eyes. In these cases we have no accommodation or less than the amount required to stimulate convergence to the point of fixation. The interni take on an independent contraction to produce sufficient convergence to prevent crossed diplopia. A forced action of an individual muscle outside the laws of accommodation and associated movements of the eyes may produce heterophoria, and in the case of myopia produce esophoria. The myopia corrected will force the eyes to accommodate, as in emmetropia, and the convergence produced by the action of the ciliary muscle will correct the esophoria. When the eyes cease to maintain binocular single vision, for the want of a stimulating influence of the ciliary muscle, one eye begets a tendency to diverge and soon becomes more near-sighted. It then begins to turn outward and downward. When the prism test is made to determine the amount of deviation, the eye will move further outward or downward to avoid fusing with the other light. When the externus and superior oblique can no longer overcome the prisms, they give up, and the larger light crosses to the other side and may move above or below and back again to the right or left. It seems that any of the six muscles are liable to come into play to avoid fusing. When these muscles become exhausted in their efforts and the lights are finally brought together, the eyes see a smaller and a more defined light in the larger and more blurred light. Unless the vision is very faulty under the correction, the eyes will work together when the image is made the same size on the retina, even in cases of actual divergence, and even after partial tenotomies, when the muscles are not displaced by the cutting.

While the cases above reported show about 84 per cent. horizontal tendency, when the refraction is the same, and

about 84 per cent. vertical tendency in anisometropia, about 20 per cent. of the 84 per cent. are hyperphoria and 80 per cent. hypophoria. The cases where refraction is the same show 20 per cent. exophoria in hypermetropia and about 20 per cent. esophoria in myopia; so the exceptions to the rule are about the same.

REGULAR ASTIGMATISM.

During the year 1892 the writer adopted the theory that the greater curvature of the cornea is in the horizontal instead of the vertical axis in more than 50 per cent. of the cases after the age of fifty years.

A paper was subsequently prepared and read at the ophthalmic section of the New York Academy of Medicine in 1894. The following is a summary of the 1071 cases therein referred to, grouping those, according to age, in the horizontal axis. Age ten up, 27 per cent.; twenty up, 29 per cent.; thirty up, 34.4 per cent.; forty up, 47 per cent.; forty-five up, 49.3 per cent.; fifty up, 54.4 per cent.; sixty up, 64.3 per cent.; seventy up, 100 per cent.

It was observed that oblique axes increased with age below axes 45 and 135, but those cases were not included. No case of astigmatism was found in children under six years of age, and only about a dozen in children under ten. These were excluded.

At the beginning of the writer's studies the text-books stated that astigmatism was either congenital or acquired. When the theory that the axis in the greater curvature of the cornea changed with age was adopted, a cognate idea was presented; it was observed that in the majority of cases the defect was acquired and that the cases of a high degree were congenital and probably the only ones.

Among the thousands of cases examined, from which the 1071 were selected, no cases of congenital origin were discovered. Still the congenital theory was so widely held among eminent specialists that the writer hesitated to publish his convictions. But an added experience of a quarter of a century has dissolved all doubt. Ophthalmologists agree that, as a rule, babies at birth are hypermetropic; and, as they grow, the eyes become more nearly spheric until the majority become round or emmetropic. Add to this the fact that no cases of astigmatism are found under the age of six in the former list of 1071 cases, or the present list of 1752, we are forced to the conclusion that astigmatism begins at the kindergarten age, say from six to ten, due to hypermetropia, at a time when near eye-work is very light.

Assuming that the primary cause of astigmatism is hypermetropia, we proceed to consider the unsettled question, "How is astigmatism produced?" The distinguished writers Fuchs, Juler, Donders, and Schmidt-Rimpler locate the seat of astigmatism in the cornea. Landolt says it is occasionally formed by the crystalline lens. Fuchs, Landolt, and others speak of astigmatism as congenital or acquired, either from irregular development or an irregular action of the eye. They all state that the greater curvature of the cornea lies closer to the vertical meridian than to the horizontal. When they say it is congenital, there is no more to be said; when they say it is acquired, some of them speak of the lids as the cause. They also speak of an increased curvature of the crystalline lens in the opposite axis to the greater curvature of the cornea, to correct the corneal astigmatism entirely in some cases and in others overcorrect it, as Landolt mentions and claims to have proved by the use of atropin.

That the crystalline lens becomes astigmatic in order to correct the corneal astigmatism is, we believe, universally accepted, but we are not aware that any one believes the crystalline lens produces it when there is no corneal astigmatism. The crystalline astigmatism is only a remedy for the corneal astigmatism.

The purpose of the lids in astigmatic cases is to cut off the end rays on the macula, so as to square the letters and make them more readable. The lids also trombone in myopia and high degrees of hypermetropia in order to cut off a part of the rays to diminish the

circles of diffusion. When these three classes of cases are corrected with glasses, the lids cease to trombone and furnish no evidence of having produced astigmatism. If the lids produce permanent astigmatism, this pressure would come directly above and below the cornea, thus making the vertical curvature greater. If this pressure were continuous, we might have some reason for believing that the lids cause astigmatism, partly closing to produce vision, if only for a moment.

The writer has endeavored to eliminate the three universally accepted causes of astigmatism in order to bring forward what he believes to be the true cause, namely, the external ocular muscles. The six are all opposing muscles, and all work together in accommodation. We begin life with hypermetropic eyes. A child's mental capacity at first is not strong enough to fix intently on any object, so no direct image is formed on the retina. When he gets away from his mother's lap and learns to walk, his mind is still not sufficiently developed to form a sharp focus on objects. This weakness may produce convergent squint, though not astigmatism, as the eyes are not fixed long enough on objects, and then they are constantly changing to distant objects.

When children reach the kindergarten age, as the hours are short and the study is light, only a few cases of astigmatism develop. Only 20 plus and 9 minus were found—a total of 29 of the 1752. During the school years from ten to twenty more concentration is required and longer hours, and astigmatism is increased to 82 plus and 58 minus, total, 140. From twenty to thirty, when a large percentage have entered the commercial world, and some are still in college, the work is harder, with longer hours. The number in this decade is 218 plus and 143 minus, total, 361. In the thirties the work is still more trying, as it is the time entirely of practical application of the knowledge they acquire in the second and third decades. The number is increased to 277 plus and 185 minus, total, 462. In the forties we find a slight decrease, to 230 plus and 146 minus, total, 376. This is accounted for by half of the fifth decade being in the presbyopic age. In this period we find the increased vertical curvature of the cornea decreased 11.6 per cent., while the obliques above axis 45 degrees and 135 degrees, including axis 90 degrees, decreased only 7 per cent. This means either that the axis is shifting from the vertical to the oblique above axis 45 degrees and 135 degrees, then later below and finally to the horizontal, or that the astigmatism disappears first in axis 90 degrees and second above the 45 degrees, and later on in life there is a decrease below axis 45 degrees until the astigmatism is almost entirely confined to axis 180 degrees for plus glass, and 90 degrees for minus glass.

If we are willing to admit that the four external ocular muscles supplied by the third nerve act in accommodation and the fourth and sixth nerves supplying superior oblique and external muscles counteract at the time of accommodation, then we are obliged to acknowledge that all these muscles act in correcting hypermetropia at the distance.

These muscles are inserted in the sclera near the cornea in such a way that any one muscle may have more or less a countereffect upon any other muscle, unless it should be the interni and inferior recti, which are from the same origin; still, in a way, they oppose each other as they pull downward and inward instead of directly downward or inward. The superior recti guide the inner and upper direction of the eyes to prevent them from being too much under control of the inferior recti. The inferior oblique acts in accommodation to counteract the superior recti and keeps the upper part of the eye in the vertical plane, just as it would be when at rest. The superior oblique relaxes to allow the inferior rectus to hold the eye below in its vertical plane, while the eye is turning downward and inward. In this particular action the superior and inferior obliques are allies, because the relaxation of the superior oblique would not

be sufficient if the inferior oblique did not prevent the eye from tipping inward above. On the other hand, the upward action of the inferior oblique can prevent too much torsion by the relaxation of the superior oblique. All these actions are to prevent torsion. Besides these, we have the direct opposing actions, the superior oblique against the superior recti, inferior oblique against the inferior recti, and externi against the interni, which is shown by paralysis of any single muscle, as the eye turns from that muscle in the direction of the opposite muscle.

We must keep in mind that hypermetropia is corrected from the time the eyes are opened in the morning until closed at night by accommodation for the distance, except in high degrees, when the eyes frequently blur to give the muscles a rest. Another exception is when the hypermetropia is so great that all attempts to correct it are abandoned. These cases become amblyopic. This hypermetropia runs from 5 D. to 7 D., and in some cases more, and vision is usually 20/100 or 20/70.

We have another class of amblyopia: compound hyperopic astigmatism about equally divided between the sphere and cylinder, total, 5, 6, or 7 D. These cases, in my opinion, struggle to correct the error, change half the error into astigmatism, without being able to accommodate to correct the remaining spheric part. This gives a double lined diffusion instead of circle diffusion. (The writer's explanation in his paper, published in 1894, on the changed spheric cornea to spherocylindric by the action of the muscles, will be the same here, as time has not changed his opinion.)

Our experience in taking the tension of an eye with the fingers shows us how easily the curvature of the eyeball is increased between two fingers. Why should not the curvature of the eyeball be increased by two opposing muscles? In fact, the insertion of these muscles is practically where the fingers are placed in taking the tension. If the pulling of the opposing muscles can have a like effect as the fingers, we not only have an increased curvature of the eyeball but of the cornea as well. As the eye approaches the presbyopic age the ciliary muscle has less effect on the eyeball, as it is gradually less soft and less yielding to the opposing muscles. Thus, the accommodation begins to subside and the astigmatic error changes into a spheric error. Many of the writer's private cases have demonstrated this fact.

The writer has collected an additional list of 1221 cases from his office records, which afford further proof that muscles cause astigmatism. In compound hypermetropic astigmatism, when the sphere is the same, we have corresponding axes in the astigmatism. The table shows this to be true in 90.4 per cent. against 9.6 per cent. different axes; also that the axes differ when the spheres differ. These cases show only 25 per cent. corresponding and 75 per cent. different axes. This proof holds good with both compound myopic and simple astigmatism; also in mixed, when spherocylindric glasses are ordered the same or different.

We sometimes overcorrect the astigmatism at the expense of the spheric or the reverse, as the eye may see the same with a slight overcorrection of the other, but to increase one without diminishing the other reduces the vision. If this be true, the theory advanced may be wholly true. The reason as it looks to the writer is this: The same sphere requires the same accommodation which causes a corresponding axis. Anisometropia, requiring more accommodation in one eye than in the other, causes a torsion of that eye which makes a different axis; or if the accommodation is suspended in that eye, a torsion with axis different ensues on the reverse side.

In other papers the writer has stated that when astigmatism exists, whether the same, different, or only in one eye, the hypermetropia, if any, will be found to be the same, with few exceptions. The usual exceptions occur when there is a decided difference from 1 D. to 4 or 5 D. This is true also with no astigmatism. Only 3 cases were found in 19 that had less than 1 D.

difference in simple hypermetropia. With astigmatism only 5 in 17 cases with less than 1 D. spheric difference. Total of 36 cases, 28 more and 8 less than 1 D. difference, 78 per cent. and 22 per cent. The apparent reason for this is that if astigmatism develops in anisometropia, it begins first in the eye of the greater hypermetropia by changing the difference into astigmatism, making the spheric part the same. If astigmatism is brought about by excessive accommodation, it comes first in the eye with the greater error, as it requires more effort to correct this eye by trying to equalize the vision of the two eyes. This fails when the difference is too great. That is why we seldom see the difference less than 1 D. If any further astigmatism develops, it is the same in both eyes, leaving the spheric error still the same.

Among 23 con. squint cases, all those found under the age of six were spheric only. The only astigmatic cases were ages ten and eleven. These cases were straightened by prescribing the ophthalmoscopic measurement, and verified with the test-lenses in only the two astigmatic cases. Only in one was atropin used, and that was in the astigmatic case aged eleven. The only other case above the age of the two astigmatic cases was aged sixteen, which may have been tested with the lenses; but, as it was not an astigmatic case, +4 D. was ordered, as found by the ophthalmoscope. The other 20 ages ranged from nine years down to twenty-two months.

In looking over the anisometropic eyes and same spheric error to see what influence each had on the axis of the astigmatism, the same books were examined, and the cases with no astigmatism were copied to get the percentage of same sphere and different. The result follows:

Spherical, same, 1,433 cases.....97½%
Spherical, different, 38 cases..... 2½%
Spherocylinder. same, 372 cases.....94 %
Spherocylinder, different, 26 cases.... 6 %

In conclusion the writer restates what he has attempted to prove by the several groups of cases in the present findings of 2,974 astigmatic and 1,818 spheric cases—4,792.

First: Astigmatism is not congenital, not acquired by the crystalline lens, and not by the action of the lids; because none of them would start the greater curvature of the cornea in the vertical axis at 100 per cent. under age ten and gradually change the axis of the greater curvature 100 per cent. in the horizontal axis at the age of seventy. This evolution is complete at the end of the ciliary muscle action. After this age, when the ciliary muscle has ceased to accommodate, the external muscle cannot assist in accommodation, but acts only in convergence and in associated movements.

Second: The axis of astigmatism is largely controlled by the sphere; that is, the axis corresponds when the sphere is the same and differs when the sphere is different. In the latter case we may find torsion, but not when the sphere is the same. The exception to this rule is small.

CAUSE OF MYOPIA.

It is an accepted fact that hypermetropic eyes become round or nearly round at full growth, and in some cases myopic. In myopia the increase in the anteroposterior diameter is thought to be due to the thinning of the sclera posteriorly. This has been demonstrated by microscopic examination on sections of the sclera, as well as by our ophthalmoscopic findings. The writer believes that this posterior thinning begins in the advanced stages of myopia, due to a tendency to diverge, with a more rapid increase in actual divergence. In low degrees of myopia the fundus usually looks normal, and we seldom see posterior staphyloma in eyes of less than 8 D. The sclera when normal is thicker posteriorly and gradually becomes thinner as it approaches the cornea, so the thinnest part is anterior to the insertion of the six muscles. It is quite probable that the constant correcting of hypermetropia in children is not entirely by the ciliary muscles, but is aided by the six external ocular muscles attached to the sclera at a corresponding distance from

the cornea. It seems reasonable to suppose that these muscles just back of the thinnest part of the sclera would depress that part of the sclera including the cornea, producing in a measure conical cornea; that is, a deeper anterior chamber. Hypermetropic eyes that develop into emmetropic at maturity may be due to this muscle action, or at least influenced by it. Children who are obliged to hold their book at 8 inches or less to see the print increase the accommodation 5 D. on probably 4 or 5 D. distant error. This great strain to correct 10 D. may start a low grade of sclerochoroiditis which may be the starting-point of myopia. Those of hereditary tendency are more easily influenced. This thinning of the sclera is occasionally indicated by a choroidal ring about equal distance from the insertion of the muscles and the cornea.

HYPERMETROPIC ASTIGMATISM—EVOLUTION IN THE GREATER CURVATURE OF THE CORNEA FROM THE VERTICAL TO THE HORIZONTAL AXIS.

Age	Total	Ax. V-VO	Ax. V	Ax. VO	Ax. 45 135	Ax. H-HO	Ax. H	Ax. HO	Per cent V-VO	Per cent V	Per cent OV	Per cent 45 135	Per cent H-HO	Per cent H	Per cent H
6-10	20	20	10	10	0	0	0	0	100	50	50	0	0	0	0
10-20	82	68	38	30	0	14	14	0	83—	46.34	36.58+	0	17	17	0
20-30	218	156	77	79	11	51	29	22	71.5	35.3+	36.2+	5	23.5	13	10.5
30-40	277	214	120	94	13	50	26	24	77	43.32	33.92	4.6	18	9.3+	8.6+
40-50	229	161	73	88	8	60	47	13	70	32.3	38.4	3.4+	26	20.5+	5.6+
50-60	168	75	43	32	7	86	55	31	44.6	25.5+	19+	4+	57.1	30	18.4+
60-70	67	16	5	11	4	47	31	16	23.8	7.4+	16.4+	5.9+	70	46.2	23.8+
70 up	38	4	0	4	0	34	30	4	10.5	0	10.5	0	89.4	78.9	10.5
	1099			8											

MYOPIC ASTIGMATISM—EVOLUTION IN THE GREATER CURVATURE OF THE CORNEA FROM THE VERTICAL TO THE HORIZONTAL AXIS.

Age	Total	Ax. V	Ax. OV	Ax. V-OV	Ax. 45	Ax. OH	Ax. H	Ax. H-O	Per cent V	Per cent OV	Per cent V-OV	Per cent 45	Per cent OH	Per cent H	Per cent H-OH
6-10	9	6	3	9	0	0	0	0	66⅔	33⅓	100	0	0	0	0
10-20	58	17	30	47	1	8	8	10	29.3	51.7+	81	1.6	13+	3+	16.4
20-30	143	34	46	80	6	27	30	57	23.77	32.17	55.94	4	20—	20+	40—
30-40	185	67	48	115	11	23	36	59	36+	+26+	62+	5.7	12.4+	19.4	31.8
40-50	156	38	46	84	11	24	27	51	24.3	29.5	53.8+	7	15.3+	17.3+	36.2+
50-60	65	19	14	33	4	9	19	28	29.2+	21.5+	50+	6	13.8	29.2+	44
60-70	23	5	3	8	0	4	11	15	21.7	13	34.7	0	17.3	47.8	65.2
70 up	13	2	2	4	0	4	5	9	15.3	15.3	30.6	0	30.6	38.4	69
	652														

This list will help in confirming the first list that astigmatism is caused by the external ocular muscles, by the spherical error influencing the axis of the astigmatism.

COMPOUND HYPEROPIC ASTIGMATISM.

	No.	Per Cent.	Total
Same sphere, corresponding axis	336	90.4	372
Same sphere, different axis	36	9.6	
Different sphere, different axis	18	75.0	24
Different sphere, corresponding axis	6	25.0	

HYPEROPIC ASTIGMATISM.

Hyper. same cylinder. Ast. corresponding axis	203	90.6	244
Hyper. same cylinder. Ast. different axis	21	9.4	
Hyper. different cylinder. Ast. different axis	38	39.2	97
Hyper. different cylinder. Ast. corresponding axis	59	60.8	
Total carried forward			737

COMPOUND MYOPIC ASTIGMATISM.			
Same sphere, corresponding axis	70	73	96
Same sphere, different axis	26	27	
Different sphere, different axis	76	60.8	125
Different sphere, corresponding axis	49	39.2	
MYOPIC ASTIGMATISM.			
Same cylinder, corresponding axis	73	92.4	79
Same cylinder, different axis	6	7.6	
Different cylinder, different axis	14	20.2	69
Different cylinder, same axis	55	79.8	
MIXED ASTIGMATISM.			
Converted to same + sphere, corresponding axis	31	77.5	40
Converted to same + sphere, different axis	9	22.5	
Converted to same — sphere, corresponding axis	21	65.9	32
Converted to same — sphere, different axis	11	34.1	
Converted to + and — spheres, corresponding axis	7	46.7	15
Converted to + and — spheres, different axis	8	53.3	
Sphere not same, corresponding axis	13	46.5	28
Sphere not same, different axis	15	53.5	
			1221

CONSERVATIVE TREATMENT OF ASTHENOPIA IN CHILDREN.*

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During a five years' study of refractive conditions among our school children, the need of conservative treatment seemed to me most important. Unfortunately, it is a subject which has been somewhat neglected and considered decidedly uninteresting. Both public and private school pupils were treated. A more or less successful attempt was made to keep in touch with these pupils by yearly examinations, watching constantly for any new complications. Office methods were copied in the hospital clinic, as closely as conditions allowed.

Considerable extra time and pains were taken to give hospital patients as good advice and treatment as possible. Palliative treatment cannot be carried out quickly; it is not possible to dispose of all cases in one or two visits. It requires, first of all, a careful assembling of data in order that an exact diagnosis can be made. To understand the complaint of the child it is quite essential to consult with the parent or the school nurse. Only in this way can we decide, in doubtful cases, whether glasses are necessary or whether some other better alternative treatment will bring the desired result.

The children were divided into three groups—

Group 1. Pupils usually brought by the school nurse. who had high refractive errors requiring immediate correction with glasses.

Group 2. Scholars having a small—less than one-half diopter—refractive error, with defective vision of one eye; who sometimes complain of indefinite symptoms, and who very often require glasses as well as general medical treatment.

Group 3. Children brought to the clinic or office by the parent very often present more difficult problems. Frequently such children are brought for an eye examination not because their vision was found defective, but on account of some slight eye symptoms which suggested eye-strain.

Group 1. These children need glasses prescribed immediately in order to preserve vision from getting any worse; also to prevent strabismus. Only by this means can they progress steadily with their education.

*Read before the American Ophthalmological Society, July 10th, 1918.

Group 2. About 75% of all the scholars of this kind require glasses to relieve very definite symptoms of asthenopia. A majority should receive a combined treatment to relieve the eyes and other obvious defects; as adenoids, diseased tonsils, decayed teeth, etc. About 20% of this group never received glasses.

Group 3. This includes children generally brought to the clinic by the mother. They may or may not have been notified that the patient had failed to pass the school test. Very often the pupil comes because the parent has observed that headaches start after studying.

Conservative or palliative treatment can be only properly undertaken when careful tests show the following conditions exist:

A. A very small refractive error carefully determined under a mydriatic. A comparative test was always made without drops. In my office two independent estimations of the refraction were made, but in the clinic the retinoscopy was generally not attempted without drops, as it takes too long, and our inexperienced house-officers have rarely had an opportunity to try this procedure.

B. The original test of vision, let us say, disclosed a decrease of one eye only. It was reduced to 20/40 at least, in order to attract the teacher's attention. The school tests usually were found correct. My own tests tended towards a slightly higher average because they were more carefully done under a little better conditions.

C. Examinations by the medical or throat consultants at the hospital showed other physical ailments, such as malnutrition, indigestion with constipation, bad teeth, diseased tonsils, and adenoids. Concerning these complications among private cases, it was necessary to get the data from the family physician.

Conservative treatment is justified if we admit that a temporary lowering of vision may accompany the different milder types of chronic conjunctivitis or even hyperemia of the conjunctiva. If persistent conjunctivitis is cured with drops, the vision improves and the child may then be able to pass the required visual examination.

This axiom has been one of my guides in the treatment of many children. It is so simple, and at the same time so effective, that often the child requires no further treatment. It seems to me that it should be tried in a great many more cases, but I know that few of my colleagues will agree. The reverse principle has guided most ophthalmologists that, having brought corrected vision to normal with proper glasses, all other ocular complaints would cease. A few of our members will agree that special emphasis should be laid on a principle of conservative treatment, which is directly antagonistic to the views of the majority. It is based on the broad, common-sense idea that glasses for many an average child, of the special group we are considering, should not be the one and only treatment. General practitioners outside of certain larger cities have been guided by this principle. The possibility that these doctors might do harm to the pupils' eyes by ignoring dangerous asthenopic symptoms has been eliminated by the ease with which oculists of nearby smaller towns can be consulted.

Special care was taken to separate the backward scholars in order to give them particular advice. If a child is in its proper grade at school and complains of indefinite asthenopic symptoms, conservative treatment is indicated. A much more thoro search for the underlying cause of complaint must be made, however, if the child is two or more grades behind the average. It makes no great difference if the scholar is one grade behind the average. A large proportion of public school children finish their education upon graduating from the grammar school. Several reasons, aside from physical defects, may explain why they are apparently backward, the most important of which are:

A late start, when almost 7 years old.

A change of residence with a consequent change of school and a readjustment into a different class.

Sickness in previous years, but which had left no bad sequelae to affect the scholar's subsequent progress.

On this account, I divided all the children into two groups:

Group A. Pupils in proper grade or one grade behind. (84%.)

Group B. Pupils two or more grades behind. (14%.)

If a scholar is in Group B, it is the duty of the physician to work with the educators to eliminate as rapidly as possible all physical defects. By so doing a determined effort is made to promote the child to a higher class or at least keep it from falling any further behind. The experience of one of our school nurses is that if a scholar once falls behind, an advancement into a higher class is next to impossible. The best that she expected was to report that the child was holding its own without further complaint, if all medical treatment was carried out faithfully.

Our aim is to improve both the vision and the general ability of the scholar to continue its studies by removing any evident physical defect. Palliative treatment means, of course, that a larger proportion do not receive glasses than in either of the other two groups. This method is used working on the assumption that so-called eyestrain can sometimes be treated by a combination of general medical treatment and the cure of conjunctival irritation by suitable collyria.

A moderate degree of chronic conjunctivitis often proves the most important cause of asthenopia. Also a conjunctival irritation, by causing the pupil to think about his eyes, will sometimes disclose a chain of symptoms which have no apparent relation to the eyes. For example, the child complains of the eye aching. This is often described as a headache. This does not always prove to be a characteristic frontal headache, because small children very often cannot describe accurately this symptom without some further questioning by the doctor. Hemicrania or pain in the eyes seems often the same thing to the patient. To differentiate between the two complaints we must wait until a careful refractive examination has been made before we decide if headache is likely to result from a very small refractive or muscular error.

Let us suppose the pupil complains of a frontal headache with intermittent attacks of pain and tenderness of the eye-balls. This starts two or three hours after the noon meal, at about the time school closes. The headache seems to come after studying. A careful refractive examination is made without coming to any definite conclusion. The diet is investigated and we discover that constipation and intestinal toxemia have caused the headaches. The medical consultant treats these conditions and the general health of the patient promptly improves. In the meantime, soothing collyria having been prescribed, we find often a perceptible improvement of vision. If the first visual test proves the child unable to meet the State requirement, the above treatment will remedy the defect. Mental dullness changes to alertness after freeing the intestines of a number of poisons. At the same time, by relieving conjunctivitis, the child's attention is withdrawn from his eyes and it proceeds with all studies in a normal manner without further complaint.

If we have found only insignificant physical or ocular defects present, we can now consider a very interesting mental attitude of some scholars towards apparent asthenopia. We realize how easily suggestion will affect a cure of the childish mind. A resignation to the inevitable will also stop all complaints. This is shown very well by observations made by one of the teachers at a large boarding-school for girls in this state. A certain number of the pupils complained of headache and other asthenopic symptoms and were sent me for examination. For some of the girls glasses were prescribed, and they started again with their studies.

It was a rule that only the senior class could study in their rooms, an arrangement much envied by

their younger schoolmates. The lower classes all gathered together to study, under the supervision of a teacher, in a large hall. The girls claimed the illumination of this hall was insufficient and that it was a frequent cause of the asthenopia. Most of the younger scholars, for whom glasses had been prescribed, soon became resigned to working under the above conditions and ceased fretting. Also it was noticed that they very often discarded their glasses and made no further complaints. We must acknowledge that any child is liable to act in just this manner.

Unless strict supervision by their elders is observed, the child may take off his glasses, especially in cases where hyperopic errors have caused the headache. The vision without glasses being very good, although possibly not perfect, and the headache stopped, the scholar will often experiment to see if he cannot get along without them. The oculist is deluded by thinking that his patient is carrying out his instructions. The ability of the pupil to reestablish his equilibrium, so to speak, has been ignored. In these cases glasses should not have been prescribed except as a last resort in case all so-called temporary asthenopia could not be relieved by using collyria, or, more often, some general medical treatment.

The need of giving a plus glass to a child to correct temporary accommodation weakness seldom arises. A series of experiments made upon both youths and adults convalescing from pneumonia and typhoid — these diseases chosen on account of the great drain on the patient's vitality—showed a wonderfully quick recovery of the accommodation. Tested one or two days after the crisis of the fever had been passed, the accommodation was generally reduced to one-half of normal. This reduction was in direct ratio to the patient's youth. Within two weeks the accommodation was again normal. Debility following such serious diseases, however, makes the child complain of eye-strain even from very small refractive errors.

The need of giving temporary relief with glasses should not be overlooked. This method of treatment is, of course, very generally employed. What is overlooked, however, is a decided tendency of a child to put aside the glasses as soon as symptoms cease, or anyway as quickly as experiment shows that no symptoms recur if the glasses are discarded during study hours. As mentioned before, this childish act is inevitable, and certainly very often it does no harm. During convalescence from some of the children's diseases—especially measles—the skillful prescribing of suitable collyria will suffice. At such times the child's complaints are apt to be more specific, and we must not fail to give every help to tide the scholar over a difficult period. The length of time that help with glasses or other treatment is needed varies in direct proportion to the child's recuperative power. A neurotic temperament is a complication which prolongs the treatment.

A few scholars are brought by the nurse or mother on account of apparent poor vision of one or both eyes. The failure of the pupil to pass the school tests may be due to shyness or nervousness, or to improper illumination of the test letters. Sometimes my tests did not confirm the previous ones. With such scholars it is often extremely important for the parent to report the actions of the child at home. Attention should be directed to any of the following characteristics:

a. Lack of concentration and good application;

b. Missing entire words or mispronouncing words when reading aloud;

c. A tendency to hold the book too close—simulating myopia.

d. Bad sitting posture;

e. Eyes or lids inflamed;

f. Too rapid appearance of fatigue, causing listlessness or inattention.

A temporary decrease of accommodation may follow very vigorous exercises, like football or rowing. Experiments to demonstrate such a condition have been recently begun, and in the future I shall hope to have more information to report.

A small decrease of vision always accompanies the lessened accommodation. This condition is presumably responsible for a good deal of the lack of concentration and inability to do good work during study hours at home in preparing home lessons. Such an artificially produced accommodation fatigue of a child may be compared to the easily demonstrated tiring of adult eyes after a busy day. These tests are especially hard to perform, because the child soon lacks interest and then does not make the maximum effort required. The best method seems to be to take a very small number of children and train them sufficiently to observe slight changes of visual acuity. If a series of tests made in the evening show a decrease, control examinations the following morning are necessary. My own observations have proved that my accuracy of observation was influenced often by mental conditions. If the mind is dulled by loss of sleep, nervous fatigue, etc., the test becomes proportionately more difficult. Brain fatigue more often caused a decrease of accommodation than physical exercise.

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON ASTIGMATISM.

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Remarks on the terminology of astigmatism especially direct and inverse, and on the frequency of the latter, with discussion of practical points in dealing with astigmatism. With three charts. Read before the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, August 6th, 1918.

Astigmatism has generally been divided into direct, or astigmatism with the rule (meridian of greatest curvature vertical or nearly so), inverse, or astigmatism against the rule (meridian of greatest curvature horizontal or nearly so), and oblique astigmatism (meridian of greatest curvature in the vicinity of 45° or 135°). Some writers omit the third subdivision and classify these oblique astigmatisms with the first group. As we[1] have recently pointed out, this classification is purely arbitrary, as these cases might with equal reason be classified with astigmatism against the rule.

It is singular that an exact terminology has not been adopted for this most exact subdivision of ophthalmic science. One has only to peruse the chapters on refraction in our text books to learn that each writer has felt at liberty to make his own definitions, which are generally characterized by a vagueness incompatible with scientific precision. We note that even Jackson[2], whose careful study of changes in astigmatism is so illuminating, speaks of direct and inverse astigmatism with meridians of greatest curvature "approximately" vertical and horizontal.

In order to eliminate any uncertainty in the future as to what are the boundary lines of the three groups, we propose the following definitions:

Astigmatism with the rule, or direct astigmatism, shall include all cases with meridian of greatest curvature at any point on the arc from 46° to 134°.

Astigmatism against the rule, or inverse astigmatism, shall include all cases with meridian of greatest curvature at any point on the arc from 0 to 44° and from 136° to 180°.

Oblique astigmatism shall include all cases of astigmatism with meridian of greatest curvature exactly at 135° and 45°.

It has been argued that there is no necessity for any subdivision, for the reason that practically every eye possessing an astigmatic error should wear a cylindrical correction and that it is immaterial whether the meridian of greatest curvature is in the vicinity of 90° or 180°. Theoretically, this contention has merit. But we are convinced that it is useful, on clinical

grounds alone, to differentiate at least between direct and inverse astigmatism, for the reason that the latter presents certain features of special interest and importance.

Our study indicates that inverse astigmatism is more frequent than is generally surmised (in 1024 eyes with regular astigmatism we found 283, or 27.7%, inverse). Furthermore, as Theobald[3] has pointed out, an eye with this type of error is much more capable of "hiding it away" than is an eye with direct astigmatism. This observation accords with our own experience. We are convinced that prior to our systematic use of Lancaster's astigmatic charts many examples of low inverse astigmatism eluded us.

In our series, too, we determined by neutralization of spectacles prescribed by ophthalmologists who had preceded us that more than half of the men had failed to incorporate a cylinder to correct an inverse astigmatism. Glasses prescribed by refracting opticians only very rarely indicated any appreciation of the existence of this type of error. Low inverse astigmatism gives rise to especially annoying symptoms, such as headaches, blepharitis, congestion of the globe, etc. It is less well borne by the eye than an equal degree of perpendicular astigmatism.

One of the principal reasons for the greater degree of asthenopia in eyes with inverse astigmatism is the greater interference with the legibility of ordinary printed type. In direct astigmatism the vertical components of letters are distinct, whereas the opposite is the case in inverse astigmatism. Letters with vertical components distinct are more easily recognized than those with horizontal components distinct. One has only to render oneself artificially astigmatic with the rule and then artificially astigmatic against the rule (using the same cylinder) to appreciate the difference in distinctness of the same line of letters. This difference can also be beautifully demonstrated by the camera. In the illustration, the upper group of letters was photographed with an ordinary lens, the second group with a lens rendered astigmatic with the rule, and the third group with a lens rendered astigmatic against the rule (using the same cylinder). No one will fail to appreciate the lessened legibility of the third group. See Fig. 1.

It is probably an accurate statement of fact that one finds frequently that for which one is on the lookout. This is exemplified in the search for astigmatism, and particularly for inverse astigmatism. That we all possess some amount of astigmatism is a truism; whether it be corneal or lenticular is beside the point. Having detected a small amount of astigmatism against the rule, it does not follow that it should be corrected in all instances. In the treatment of this condition the exercise of judgment is as necessary as in all refractive work.

In the correction of refractive errors there are two things to be subserved, viz., improvement of vision and the increased comfort of the patient. If clarity of vision be gained without comfort, or comfort obtained with no improvement in vision, the result has fallen short of the ideal. The average patient will greatly prefer a correction which yields fairly good vision with perfect comfort to that which gives the most acute vision with an aggravation of his discomfort. And occasionally this is just the effect of incorporating a cylinder in the correction. We feel, therefore, that for some patients, especially elderly ones, who for years have been completely comfortable with spheres, it is ill advised to prescribe an astigmatic correction which, theoretically, is indicated. The confusion and discomfort incident to the new order of things offset any increase in visual acuity. Many of us are creatures of habits, and even of bad habits.

On the other hand, when it is definitely demonstrated that both vision and comfort are increased by an astigmatic correction, it is incumbent upon us to determine with all possible accuracy the strength and axis of the cylinder. And this may necessitate the use of cycloplegics in certain individuals above the age when such drugs are usually used. We believe this to be

good practice. We do not believe that a drug like homatropin ever produces glaucoma. It may precipitate an attack, but does not cause the disease. It goes without saying that a careful examination of the fundus, tension and field should precede the use of the cycloplegic in these cases. Hence the presbyopic patient need not be deprived of the advantages of a test under cycloplegia when the precycloplegic test has given unsatisfactory or conflicting results. It might appear superfluous to labor this point were it not for the fact that a large number of prominent oculists are unalterably opposed to the use of cycloplegics in adults of whatever age.



Fig. 1. Test letters photographed: The upper set with spherical lens giving images like those of the normal eye. The second set through cylindric lens imitating direct astigmatism. The bottom set thru cylindric lens imitating inverse astigmatism.

The advice of Clarke[4], that the full amount of astigmatism should be cor-

rected, cannot be followed in all cases with comfort to the patient. In numerous instances the postcyclopegic test reveals the fact that the patient is either made uncomfortable with the full cylinder or that the visual acuity is reduced. In either event a glass of less cylindric strength must be given. For instance, a plus 1.5 cyl. of a total of 2.5 may be all a patient will accept at the first test. Some time later plus 2 is accepted, and finally the full cylindrical correction is worn with comfort. It is not to be inferred that the astigmatism in such cases has changed. These facts have recently been emphasized by Col. Elliot[5].

One must be careful not to overcorrect an astigmatic error even in the slightest degree. It is better to err in the opposite direction. Wipper[6] has recently stated that a patient should be left with a quarter diopter of astigmatism with the rule uncorrected, as this is the normal condition and even essential for comfortable, if not perfect, vision.

Always a difficult problem is the management of cases of mixed astigmatism in which there is accommodative cramp. It is very disconcerting to prescribe a glass on the basis of a cycloplegic measurement, only to find that the patient complains bitterly of poor distant vision. Various measures, such as prolonged atropinization, rest of the eyes, change of occupation, sedatives, etc., often do not suffice to overcome the exalted tone of the ciliary muscle. It has seemed wise in some cases of this kind to yield to the demands of the patient for good distance acuity, by increasing the strength of the minus spherical element. We have not had cause to regret this departure from scientific accuracy.

Not rarely do we encounter cases in which one eye shows a low regular astigmatism, whereas the other eye presents a high degree. The cause for this discrepancy is often obscure. Without doubt a number of unilateral cases of high astigmatism are the result of trauma occurring at birth.

The following is an illustrative case:

In 1912 Baby, L. O., was seen by one of us four days after birth. The obstetrician stated that one blade of the forceps had pressed firmly over the child's left eye. The cornea was entirely opaque, but there were no inflammatory signs. Under dionin and hot applications, the cornea cleared.

A few days ago, this little girl, now six years old, was brought to us because the mother noticed that the child in looking at picture books had a tendency to close the left eye. Right vision 6/5. Left vision 6/40. The ophthalmometer showed: R. As. 1 mc, 90; L. As. 6 mc, 90. Both corneas were perfectly regular.

Oblique illumination showed the presence of three vertical striae situated in the deeper layers of the cornea, one coinciding with the inner pupillary margin, the second with the outer pupillary margin, the third midway between the latter and the outer limbus. A skiascopic examination disclosed a regular astigmatism plus 4.5 D with meridian of greatest curvature at 90°. With plus 4, cyl. axis 90°. V. 6/10.

Every one possesses a small amount of irregular astigmatism which is, of course, not perfectly correctable by any cylindrical lens. Whenever there is a deformation of the cornea from injury or inflammation, or when the lamellae of the lens are irregularly disposed or swollen, as in incipient cataract, there is bound to be more or less irregular astigmatism which may or may not be associated with the regular type.

In the presence of irregular astigmatism, whether of corneal or lenticular origin, it is thoroly worth while to determine with the greatest care the cylindrical or sphero-cylindrical combination which yields the highest vision. When the irregular astigmatism is a more or less fixed quantity, as, for example, in an eye with a cornea deformed by a long past keratitis or injury, a painstaking correction with sphero-cylinders will often be highly acceptable to the patient, who is grateful for the heightened acuity thus

secured. But every case is a law unto itself; not rarely a simple sphere, which yields less vision, is preferred to any combination.

An eye with an incipient cataract which has previously rejected all cylinders, may often be made to see very well with a sphero-cylindrical combination. But here again it is often a case of "Love's labor lost"—the combination is soon found uncomfortable or visually unsatisfactory. We presume that the explanation lies in the fact that the irregular lenticular astigmatism is constantly changing with the progress of opacification.

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RECONSTRUCTION AND RE-EDUCATION OF DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS.

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Number of different disabling injuries and what is being done for them in this and other countries. Read before the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, August 5th, 1918.

We all know what happened to the soldier and sailor disabled in our former wars. After a few brief weeks of hero worship, marked, perhaps, by a kindly tolerance of his oft-told tales of adventure in the army and on the battlefield, he was given a pension, and in some old soldiers' home or as a dependent upon the semi-charity of neighbors or relatives, eked out a half-forgotten existence, a bore to himself and useless to his country. It is true that a few of these returned invalids, in spite of their handicaps, resumed their former occupations or adopted some new industrial activity, but their number was so small as to be almost negligible.

As a matter of fact, the obstacles that lie in the way of a resumption of industry after the combatant has passed weary months in the field and in various hospitals, are to the sick or wounded man almost insurmountable. Unless prompt and continuous help is given, he lapses into a state of discouragement from which it is difficult to arouse him.

It has long been recognized that to be most effectual this mental and moral assistance, this "cheer up," this achievement of victory over wounds should begin at the earliest possible moment. It should be prearranged and definitely organized. All the belligerent countries have attacked the problem from this viewpoint and by conducting, chiefly through army nurses and medical officers, a campaign of education, early teaching the disabled man that his condition is not as hopeless as he probably thinks it is; and that the Surgeon General and other governmental agencies will see to it that his disablement will be reduced to the minimum, that he will be refitted for industry and that his family and he will be supported while he is undergoing reconstruction. He will be further assured that his war risk insurance compensation for disability will not be reduced as a result of his increased powers through reconstruction. Finally, a desirable job will be found that will enable him to become an independent, wage-earning

citizen, taking part in and enjoying the daily life of his own community.

This verbal campaign is further strengthened by posters displayed in the hospitals and on board ships returning from overseas, by cards entitled, "What every disabled soldier and sailor should know," by booklets telling how, when and where physical and vocational restoration is accomplished, and last, but not least, by moving pictures such as I expect to exhibit to you this evening.

In these and other ways we spread the good news that there are really no longer any "cripples," but only a readjustment of the soldier's reduced powers to altered conditions; and that the so-called disabled man can, if he wishes, improve and apply these powers, that he may even adopt a trade or profession more congenial or more lucrative—or both—than he followed before his injury or illness.

Who, let us now ask, are the war-disabled requiring rehabilitation?

Naturally one thinks of those who have lost eyesight or hearing or a limb, and these cases are of great importance and require special attention, but they really make up only about one-third of the whole number of the handicapped. We must not forget the tuberculous, constituting a large percentage of the total; the nervous patients, including the so-called "shell-shock" cases; the insane (curable and incurable); those with serious diseases of the heart; those that have been "gassed;" those with rheumatism, and many other internal affections. Any of these may suffer from a handicap even worse than the loss of a leg or an arm.

An approximate idea of the causes of disablement in the service may be obtained from a table based on statistics of the British army and navy during the present war. The figures indicate the number of cases in every thousand of disabled men, excluding officers:

Injury to eyes	32
Amputation of leg	30
Amputation of arm	19
Injury to leg not requiring amputation	121
Injury to arm not requiring amputation	82
Injury to hand not requiring amputation of whole hand	61
Injury to head (including six or seven cases of paralysis)	47
Hernia	7
Miscellaneous wounds and injuries (including about five cases of paralysis)	53
Total wounds and injuries	453
Disease of chest (including, say, 60 cases of tuberculosis)	124
Rheumatism	50
Diseases of heart	110
Epilepsy	11
Nervous cases	47
Insanity	9
Deafness (partial, or in comparatively rare cases, total)	26
Frostbite	10
Miscellaneous diseases (among which may be noted, besides a few cases of paralysis, Bright's disease, ulcer of stomach, debility, and varicose veins	160
Total causes of disease	547
Total wounds and injuries	453
	1,000

It may be added here that the number of men requiring extended treatment and vocational training constitute a relatively small proportion of the total number of those discharged from the army or navy. Although soldiers and sailors suffering from certain chronic diseases, such as tuberculosis, insanity and other mental and nervous disorders, may require treatment for a considerable period under special conditions, yet the time of retention in army hospitals after return to the United States will be relatively short. Some will be so nearly well as to permit of their discharge almost immediately upon landing. A considerably larger number will require treatment for a week or even a month or two in the general hospitals. About 90 per cent of the returned disabled men will be discharged after a comparatively brief period of treatment, and will require no special measures of physical or vocational reconstruction.

Our Government has already provided ample hospital accommodations for all these injuries and diseases, and hundreds of soldiers are now being restored to health through the agency of the Surgeon General and his medical officers, and receiving, meantime, physiotherapeutic, including occupational and other forms of prevocational training.

When the soldier or sailor has been as far as possible restored to health and is incapable of further military service, he is discharged from the army or navy and

transferred to the governmental civilian agencies, especially the Federal Bureau for Vocational Education appointed by Congress for the completion of his education or re-education.

It is estimated that the proportion of the total number of disablements calling for re-education for an occupation different from the one formerly followed by the disabled combatant is about 10 per cent. In other words, under the care of the Surgeon General will fall about 90 per cent of returned invalids requiring reconstruction, including those who will also under him complete their occupational career. When discharged from the army cured, as nearly as may be, of their injuries or disease, most of these are expected to pass directly into industry, following their old or a new occupation.

The task of finding a suitable job for returned invalided soldiers and sailors, and of exercising supervision over them after their return to work, will devolve on the Federal Board of Vocational Education, on the War Risk Bureau, and probably, also, on the American Red Cross.

As has been pointed out by Mr. Lakeman of the American Red Cross and others, "the reconstruction of the disabled soldier is, in the first place, a matter of public duty which is called for by every consideration of national gratitude and justice. This alone is a sufficient reason for the fullest expenditure of needed effort and funds. But also sound national economic policy requires that the state, in order to conserve industrial and labor resources, should make skilled workmen of its disabled soldiers and find them employment. After this war every soldier who returns to a condition of idle dependence on Government support will help to diminish the productive power of the nation. With the terrible wastage of men and materials, every ounce of constructive energy will be needed to repair the damage and to face the renewed intensity of competition in trade and industry. In this country, the channels of immigration are closed during the war, and the draft on the labor market is unprecedented. The supply of skilled labor is no longer inexhaustible. In the field of industry, as in that of natural resources, the era of waste and extravagance is over and every element of productive man power must be conserved as an indispensable national asset."

There is, however, another argument in favor of recalling the disabled man to a useful life. If the handicapped soldier or sailor, for any reason, fails to make use of his industrial calling—fails to take advantage of his opportunities—he becomes a part of the nation's human scrap heap, an unhappy victim of his own and perhaps of his family's indolence and neglect. It is the salvation of a soul as well as a body for which the rehabilitation activities are striving, and for the accomplishment of which we ask your assistance.

The disabled soldier's decision as to his future must be backed up by the unhesitating support of his community. No system of governmental or private vocational education can succeed unless the man's will to succeed is stimulated and his ambition aroused by a well developed public opinion. No Government bureau can exercise authority over the man's personal will to make or neglect his future. For example, it is easy to imagine what a powerful influence the supporting opinion of the family and of the neighbors may be in inducing a man to forego the false glitter of an immediate job in favor of the sound metal of thoro training for an independent future. To convert the man to the wiser view, it will sometimes be necessary to convert his family first. Certainly his friends, relatives and companions must believe in the desirability of this victory over wounds, and this will to conquer difficulties, if the disabled man is to be successful in the contest with the powers of darkness.

It is not possible in one evening to enter into details of the therapeutic care and training now being given to even the most important disabilities of our returned invalids, but I would like to say something more about the war deaf and the blind.

The blinded warrior makes a strong appeal to the emotions, although perhaps for this very reason the extent and importance of this form of disability has

been exaggerated in the public mind. The French experience indicates that less than one-half of 1 per cent of the soldiers wounded in battle are blinded, the reason being, probably, that injuries sufficient to make a man blind in both eyes generally prove fatal.

Some of the foremost educators of the blind have co-operated with our Government in devising, perhaps, the most complete system of re-education and after-care of blinded soldiers which has ever been undertaken in any country. Based upon careful study of the best methods of foreign countries, and supported with generous appropriations and ample private contributions, which make possible the most complete equipment, this plan will follow the soldier through all the phases of re-education, find him employment or a market for his products, and insure sympathetic and intelligent co-operation from his family and from the community.

To carry out this program, a fortunate combination of public and private resources has been effected. Through the generosity of Mrs. T. Harrison Garrett, a suitable estate of ninety-nine acres at Baltimore was offered to the Surgeon General and accepted as the central hospital and school for blinded officers and men. The Red Cross War Council has supplemented the army's plan by creating the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, in order that certain phases of the social and economic supervision of these men may be provided for. The medical officer of the Surgeon General's staff, Lieut. Col. James Bordley, Jr., who is responsible for the official army program for the blind, has also been made director of the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, and will work in close touch with the Federal Board for Vocational Education, thus insuring thorogoing unity of policy and control.

This combination of an official organization with additional private resources will make possible the continuous and perpetual care of blinded soldiers after they are discharged from the army. Not only education and placement are contemplated, but subsequent industrial supervision for the balance of the soldier's life. It must be remembered that many blinded soldiers will, in addition, be suffering from other forms of disability. In blindness caused in the industries, 98 per cent of the eye injuries are without such complications, whereas in war 40 per cent are multiple; that is, these blind men also have amputations of arms or legs, or both, facial burns, destruction of jaws, and so on. To these particularly unfortunate individuals the nation owes a lasting duty. Patriotic zeal will provide adequate care for these men at present, but only invested capital and far-reaching plans will make their future certain.

As soon as the American soldiers, blinded in battle recover from their immediate wounds at the base hospital, the special work for them will be commenced. At first, the chief effort will be to amuse them and inspire them with some degree of hope. Later, as the men improve, they will be concentrated at the port of embarkation in France, under care of a special staff which will expend the measures of elementary instruction, teaching the men to get about and care for their immediate needs; in other words, teaching them "how to be blind."

On the way home they will be grouped according to the degree of injury, and upon arrival in the United States they will be sent to the United States Military General Hospital No. 7 at Baltimore for further medical and surgical treatment and special teaching. The technical training given by the Government will be the very best obtainable and only paid professional instructors will be permitted to give it. The idea of the Government will be to place every blinded man in a condition to take care of himself and those dependent upon him.

Where it is possible for a soldier to return to his old occupation, or one allied to it, the aim will be to have him do so. Otherwise a special suitable occupation will be taught, and in many cases it is hoped that the man will be able to command a larger salary after taking the training than before he lost his sight. Among the trades and professions which will be taught are broom-making, mattress-making, rug and carpet weaving, telephone operation, farm work, mat making, tuning in piano factories, winding of coils for armatures, piano tuning

as an individual trade, salesmanship, massage, typewriting and dictaphone operating. There will also be ample facilities for recreation in the school, including table games, dancing, singing, cross-country walking, roller skating, attendance at theatres, musicals, and other entertainments, medicine ball, push ball, punching bag, relay races, gymnastics, field sports, running, climbing, swimming, diving, and skating.

Some of the most interesting features of the general plan will be made possible by the supplemental Red Cross appropriation. The Red Cross Institute, for example, will undertake to provide a home and transportation to Baltimore for the relative who will be responsible for the care of the blinded man when returned to his home. It is the intention to instruct one such relative in the Government training school side by side with the blinded soldier, as is now done in the British and French armies. The purpose is that the blind man's family may be informed as to his difficulties, ambitions, training, and needs, so as to prevent the mental deterioration which often results from false sympathy. Friendly relations between the family and teachers will be a potent means of stimulating the interest of the blind man.

A reel of the moving picture about to be shown you will further emphasize the vocational side of the care given our blinded men.

The Division of Physical Reconstruction of the Surgeon General's office has as its chief Colonel Frank Billings, and one of the sections of this division has charge of the defects of hearing and speech under the directorship of Lieutenant Colonel Charles W. Richardson.

After many months of planning, on July 23, 1918, at General Hospital No. 11, Cape May, New Jersey, a school was established for the defects of hearing and speech in connection with this hospital. The plan of the school is that all defects of hearing and speech among invalided returning soldiers from the A. E. F., as well as those who have become affected in the cantonments, will be instructed or re-educated in this school before they are discharged from the army. In other words, all soldiers or sailors evidencing deafness or handicapped along the line of this work will, while having their physical disabilities corrected and cured, be re-educated and their handicap raised.

Returned soldiers and sailors having defects of hearing from whatever cause, either from disease or as the result of casualties, are those whose hearing is so reduced that they are handicapped socially and incapacitated industrially. They comprise all the completely deaf and those whose hearing is so reduced that it requires an effort for them to hear, and who experience difficulty in communicating through the spoken voice.

Corrective speech work will be carried out on all neuropathic affections of the voice, all types of paralysis (medical or surgical), and those in that large class of cases due to facial maxillary injuries.

The fundamental principle which has been adopted in connection with this service is to hold the men in the control of the United States Army as pupil patients until their physical handicap has been relieved. It has been found, in studying methods adopted by the various co-belligerents, that the retention of the soldier until his handicap is removed, especially for defects of hearing, is the only safe procedure. In the French and Italian armies, where this method is pursued, all men get their re-education before they are dismissed; therefore, all men with this disqualification or handicap are obliged to accept the type of treatment which is instituted.

In the British army where men presenting these conditions are discharged, it has been found that re-education is not taken up by 74 per cent. Indeed, all efforts have been made by the Aural Commission in Great Britain through propaganda, through entertainments, through the offer of meals, etc., to entice these men back to accept re-education. To the many who wish to work they have even offered evening classes, and yet they do not avail themselves of it, except to the extent of 24 per cent.

We feel, therefore, that centralizing these cases and holding them in the service is by far the safest, sanest, and most certain means to accomplish this purpose of re-education.

It is also well to remember, and we wish it placed strongly before the public, that these men whom we propose to re-educate are not abnormal, but simply have become handicapped through the loss of a special sense in their service to the common cause of liberty. It should also be understood by the laity that, through the methods which we propose to adopt in re-educating these men they will not be handicapped; that they will simply be required to read speech with their eyes instead of hearing speech with their ears. They will be able to take part in all social pleasures, and they will be able to follow almost all the gainful occupations.

In the section of defects of hearing we will use two principal methods in teaching these people. One is the auricular oral method, which, through using the voice and various types of electrical apparatus, bring into activity a sense which has been impaired, either through violence, "compression," or neuropsychic conditions.

The second method, and the one that we depend on to the greatest extent, is lip or speech reading.

In those very rare cases in which the individual is too obtuse, or is unable to concentrate, we shall be obliged to make use of the manual method.

Defects of speech arise from various complex causes, and comprise those cases which will have to be treated by neuropathic methods, those cases which will have to be met by respiratory methods, and those which will have to be taught the principles of phonetics. A large number of cases of face injuries involving the throat will not only have to be treated phonetically, but also surgically.

This work of physical and vocational reconstruction was started at Cape May under the immediate medical control of Major John M. Ingersoll, with Captains Berry and Lampe as assistants. These medical officers, under the Division of Surgery of the Head, will take care of all medical and surgical aspects of pupil-patients.

The educational department has as superintendent Mr. A. C. Manning of Mt. Airy, Miss Enfield Joiner of North Carolina as principal, and four teachers —Miss Mary Louise Wimsatt, Miss Margaret Bodycomb, Miss Clara Louise Rockwell, and Miss Mary Thornton.

The first class began on Wednesday, July 24th, 1918, with seventeen pupils, many of them completely deaf, most of them extremely hard of hearing. They form a bright, intelligent, enthusiastic group of pupils, ardent in their desire to learn, appreciative of the service being rendered them, and enthusiastic in regard to their prospects for complete rehabilitation.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

AN EFFICIENT LAMP FOR EYE OPERATIONS.

F. H. Verhoeff, M. D.

BOSTON.

Several years ago I was appointed chairman of a committee to provide satisfactory artificial illumination for eye operations at the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary. A previous committee had been unable to obtain on the market an entirely satisfactory lamp for the purpose, so I decided that it would be necessary to attempt to construct one. The lamp here described is the result of this attempt and has proved satisfactory in every way. It may be used to give either diffuse or focal illumination, but experience has shown that the former is seldom needed. The lamp consists essentially of a 6-8 volt nitrogen-tungsten automobile electric bulb, enclosed in a case, the light from which is focused by two convex lenses.



Fig. 1.

Fig. 1. Complete instrument showing convex lenses in place. (Verhoeff.)

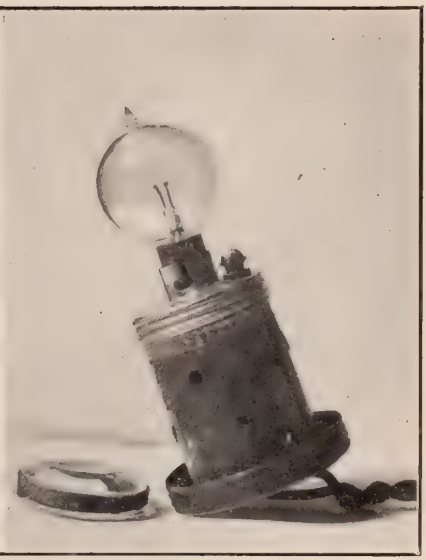


Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Lamp fixed on smaller cylinder ready for insertion in the larger. (Verhoeff.)

The case is an ordinary pasteboard mailing case, 5.8 cm. in diameter and 13.6 cm. in length. At a distance of about 3.8 cm. from the bottom, a hole is cut of proper size and shape to take a smaller mailing case, 4.2 cm. in diameter. A section 2.5 cm. long is cut from the open end of the smaller case, the threads for the screw top being left on. This section is glued into the hole in the larger case. The large case is now wrapped with adhesive plaster which is also carried around the smaller case so as to hold it more securely. See Fig. 1.

To the tin screw top of the large case is attached a third mailing case 4.2 cm. in diameter and cut off so as to be about 8 cm. long, as shown in the illustration. Fig. 2. This is done by first attaching a solid cylinder of wood about 2 cm. long (cut from a curtain rod) to the screw top by means of screws, and then sliding the cut end of the smaller case over it. A large hole to take the electric cord should be bored through the wooden cylinder and screw top. A hole is cut in the screw top of the smaller case, and an automobile lamp socket soldered into it. Seven or eight air holes are bored through the walls of the inner case, and four air holes through the screw top (not

the closed end) of the large case. No other air holes are necessary. The cases should now be given at least two coats of shellac inside and out. This is important, as otherwise moisture will be precipitated upon the lenses when the lamp is in use. To improve its appearance, the large case may be painted black or covered with leather.

The lenses consist of two trial case lenses with edges unground, each 41.5 mm. in diameter, one of 9 and the other of 18 diopters. These are kept from contact by means of a cardboard cylinder ½ cm. long. They are conveniently attached to the lamp by means of a threaded lens holder removed from a bull's eye flash lamp of suitable size. (See Fig. 1.) If this is not obtainable, a holder can be made of cardboard and attached by means of adhesive plaster. The stronger lens should be outside and at a distance of 5.5 cm. from the lamp filament. For diffuse illumination it is simply necessary to remove one of the lenses.

To obtain the proper current of 6-8 volts, we have made use of an electric generator connected with the house current, but a rheostat may be used instead. Sufficient current may also be obtained from a series of five dry cells of 1½ volts each. It is important that the electric cord attached to the lamp should be in good condition as otherwise sufficient current may not reach the lamp. The lamp never becomes too hot to be held in the hand. One of these lamps has been in use almost daily at this institution for over two years and is still in perfect condition.

QUININ AMBLYOPIA FROM RECTAL ADMINISTRATION.

C. S. G. Nagel, M. D.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

Lieut. Col. R. H. Elliot's concise review of Quinin Poisoning (this Journal for August and September last) would seem to invite practical addenda. In the history I wish to submit "the drug was pressed, at a time when it should have been totally withheld," tho not for the reason assigned by Elliot (page 549).

On July 18, last, Mrs. G. H. aet. 60, presented herself with the following history. After an operation of colectomy for "fibroid of transverse colon" (apparently no anatomic examination) on June 17, 1917, another operation for gall-stones was performed a few months later on October 26. After the failure to inject something into the brachial vein during second day after operation, an (hypodermic?) injection was made over breast. The following day the patient received an enema of unknown character for heart failure, after which she fell unconscious for about thirty hours; and thereafter found herself totally blind for a month. She then began gradually to improve for several months, but had apparently made no further progress during the last few months. Both the patient and her husband stated that according to current rumor a mistake in regard to the enema had been made. (The reference to the few days between second operation and onset of blindness has always appealed to me as probably garbled, for natural reasons; and perhaps, also, others—this being a medico-legal case.)

Present Condition—R. Hm. +0.75=0.8. L. Hm. +0.25=0.6 with +3, Snellen 1 with some difficulty. Visual fields contracted concentrically close to point of fixation, except that in the left upper quadrant of each field there is a normal roundish area for white, and all colors to a maximum extent of 25° right. The fundus in both shows retinal arteries as well as veins very narrow, with absolutely white sheathing, more particularly of the arteries (thickening of walls). Both discs are of extreme pallor and sharply defined. Macula normal. The diagnosis of quinin amblyopia was made, with just a possible alternative of embolism of both central arteries (of which—simultaneously bilateral—there are four cases now on record), or rather remotely, ischemia retinae from loss of blood. After five weeks of strychnin treatment, vision had improved to 0.9 and kept the same under same treat-

ment up to the beginning of November. Visual fields had remained about stationary.

During my attendance the people had begun suit against the sanatorium where the operations had been done, and by the end of October a settlement was effected. The operating surgeon could now be prevailed upon to make the following statement. For the prevention of "post operative gas pains" he had ordered 5 grains of quinin hydrochlorid per enema, every four hours. After 30 grains (some always being lost, he figures on an actual intake of 25 grains) patient showed signs of failing heart. This was not attributed especially to the drug. However, the order was changed to every twelve hours. Instead the nurse administered the clysma every two hours. After 60 grains in all, the general condition of the patient becoming alarming (weak pulse, etc.) the drug was stopped. Loss of consciousness and blindness following, as related by the patient. No eye examination was made at any time during seven months; only a short while before I first saw her another oculist had examined her. Regarding the indication for quinin in this case, the doctor said that he had been very enthusiastic about it after an interview with another practitioner who claimed to have had extensive experience with the method. A leading surgeon confirms my suspicion that the method is unknown to surgeons in general.

I have failed so far to get the consent of the patient to try sclero-corneal trephining as proposed by Elliot. The procedure as defended by him appears worth trying. We know that in fresh cases of ischemia retinae a reduction of intraocular pressure thru iridectomy has yielded excellent results. This fact led me to advocate at the A. M. A. meeting of 1905 the early performance of iridectomy in methyl alcohol poisoning where I believe an ischemia retinae precedes the cumulative effect of formic acid on the eye. I now wish to go on record as recommending prompt broad iridectomy for fresh cases of quinin amblyopia, since contraction of retinal vessels here is so uniformly a primary feature, together with low general blood pressure and mostly normal intraocular tension.

OCULAR LESIONS OF INFLUENZA.

EDWARD STIEREN, M. D., F. A. C. S.

PITTSBURGH, PA.

From a paper read before the Allegheny County Medical Society.

The following observations were made during the present epidemic of influenza on patients admitted to the South Side Hospital from the beginning of the epidemic until December 10th, 1918, and from a smaller number seen in private practice.

Influenza, 221 cases; died 27. Mortality 12.2%.

Influenza with pneumonia, 104 cases; died 70. Mortality, 66.3%.

Influenza with pregnancy, 6 cases; died 6. Mortality 100%.

Of the total number of cases the eye department was called in to see 54, or about 16%. These were for the greater part acute congestion of the ocular conjunctiva, not a catarrhal type, but marked by a dilation of the bulbar conjunctival vessels with some edema of the conjunctiva, and not infrequently with small subconjunctival hemorrhages which soon became confluent. Photophobia was present in practically all these cases.

Cold moist compresses gave the greatest relief and usually resulted in an amelioration of the congestion in from 36 to 48 hours. In the few cases with a catarrhal discharge the palpebral conjunctiva was inflamed and rough, a simple collyrium of zinc sulphat and boric acid affording prompt relief.

A young man, convalescent for about a week, developed a violently inflamed eye, the palpebral conjunctiva, especially of the upper lid, taking on a finely granular or mulberry appearance. The cornea developed a uniform haze of the epithelium, so dense that the color of the iris could not be determined, vision being reduced to inabil-

ity to count the fingers at 6 inches. There was no pannus.

The application of various astringent remedies, 1% silver nitrat, alum stick, copper stick, even rubbing with 1-1500 bichlorid were without avail; dionin had no effect on the corneal haze and atropin was impotent in dilating the pupil.

Finally, calomel dusted into the eye proved to be the remedy needed, and the patient is now steadily making progress, the lids are almost normal and the corneal haze is limited to an area covering the center of the pupil, while atropin, instilled three times daily, has dilated the pupil to about one-half of maximum.

Repeated smears were made from the discharge from this eye, but at no time could any organism be detected.

Two cases of double cellulitis of the orbit occurred. Both recovered without the formation of abscess under constant moist Ochsner compresses.

Four of the six cases of pregnancy were examined with the ophthalmoscope shortly before death. The other two cases had died before it was realized how fatal influenza is to a pregnant woman.

All four had abnormally large pupils, which responded feebly to light stimulus. Two had a marked neuro-retinitis, (one of these with small flame-shaped hemorrhages), one had a fundus picture closely simulating an albuminuric retinitis; while the fourth had an extremely cyanotic retina, the latter case being complicated with pneumonia.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE, SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY

November 6, 1918.

President, Mr. W. T. Holmes-Spicer.

The first meeting of the season was opened by the president's address.

Corneal Changes Following Inflammation.

The President first thanked the Section warmly for having elected him to its post of honor, and then proceeded to give an address, aided by numerous sketches shown by the epidiascope, on "Changes in the Cornea Which Follow Attacks of Various Forms of Inflammation." He said this subject had received but small attention in the literature.

After ophthalmia neonatorum, sometimes very little was to be seen but the existence of vascular channels, yet the stagnation of the lymph circulation might bring about slowly advancing changes after all the inflammatory appearances had long since subsided. The presence of clear lines in cases of old corneal ulcers had been described by but few observers, altho they had been long known, and had been seen before the introduction of the loupe. Nettleship described the linear paths of clear corneal tissue in large diffuse lipomata, the latter having probably arisen after small spots in infancy; while Fuchs discussed the various linear formations existing in the cornea, suggesting that the lines were due to changes in the lymph system and nebulous area. The best description extant of these lines was that by Sydney Stephenson. In one of his cases the lines traversed a nebula with opacity, and there had been repeated attacks of corneal inflammation early in life. Story stated he had seen lines of this character in interstitial keratitis, and he thought they were due to a clearing of vessels. The picture presented to the observer varied according to the depth of the vessels concerned. Besides the surface invasion of trunk vessels, the terminal capillary loops of the limbus were seen involved, these vessels not arising from any main trunk. This was common in marginal inflammations, such as trachoma and acute interstitial keratitis, in which vessels invaded the cornea at all depths.

It was quite uncommon for vessels to disappear and leave no trace; even though empty of blood, they could be seen as silky threads on the surface, or as clear lines beneath the surface. The vessels in one layer of the cornea did not interfuse with those in another layer. The first necessity in the production of these conditions was a destruction of tissue. The contraction which followed that either interfered with nutrition, or interrupted the flow of lymph, leading to stagnation and the deposit of salts. Arcus senilis was more likely to occur in eyes which have been the subjects of corneal ulceration.

The author then dealt in detail with the various forms met with.

On the motion of Mr. E. Treacher Collins, seconded by Mr. William Lang, the meeting accorded to the President a cordial vote of thanks for his address.

Dilatation of Retinal Veins and Arteries.

Dr. Harley Goldsmith described and showed a case of excessive dilatation of retinal veins and arteries in one eye. When examined a few weeks ago for admission into the army, the surgeon said the vision of the affected eye was better than that of its fellow. The upper temporal vein was enormously congested, and the corresponding artery much dilated. Mr. Pooley showed before the Section, in 1909, a case of similar appearance which he regarded as angioma.

Nocardiasis of the Lacrimal Gland (Actinomycosis).

A paper by Dr. J. B. Christopherson and Major R. G. Archibald, of Khartoum, was read by Mr. Hepburn on "A Case of Primary Nocardiasis of the Lacrimal Gland, Caused by a Species of Nocardia Hitherto Undescribed."

The authors said the lacrimal gland appeared to be one of the most remarkable glands in the body. Having few disorders of its own, it fulfilled its destiny undisturbed by the disorders of the outside world, content to be left alone to administer its secretion to the great master tissue, the eye. The disease recorded in the paper represented nocardiasis, or actinomycosis, in which the causal agent was a germ or fungus, which grew readily aërobically and produced arthrospores.

The patient, a male aged 22, was admitted to the hospital suffering from a swelling of the right eye and inability to open it. The duration of the case was three and one-half years. There was neither scar nor wound visible. The eyelids could not be everted, but when raised a thick yellow discharge poured out, and the whole conjunctival surface of the upper lid appeared to be rough and granular, with deeper ulceration in parts. The swelling was painless, and was of dough consistence, tho without edema. There was a bulging forwards of the fornix of the conjunctiva. No lymphatic glands were enlarged, and the sight was unaffected. The eyeball itself was not invaded, nor were its movements involved; neither were photophobia or lacrimation present.

Under chloroform, the growth was dissected away. It appeared to have commenced in the lacrimal gland, and to have spread into the upper lid, invading the tarsal cartilage. It extended also somewhat between the eyeball and the bony orbit, along the ducts of the lacrimal gland.

Sections showed the morbid histology commonly associated with a fungal infection. A portion of a grain flattened between a slide and cover-glass showed that it was composed of the typical nocardial bacilliform hyphae, with rounded bodies or spores, the whole being held together in a dense matrix.

The paper then proceeded to describe the reactions in various culture media, and gave an account of the mycology. At the date of sending the paper the animal experimentation had not been concluded, but the condition did not seem to be pathogenic to the grey monkey.

Lieutenant Colonel R. H. Elliot said that tho actinomycosis was extraordinarily common in the endemic center of Madura and in Madras, yet during the many years he had practiced in the latter city he had not seen a case of it in the eye or any part of the orbit.

Mr. Leslie Paton expressed the cordial appreciation felt by the Section of the care taken by the authors to ensure the

safe arrival of the paper and specimens, especially as neither of the gentlemen was a member of the Section.

OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SECTION OF THE BALTIMORE CITY MEDICAL SOCIETY

November 20, 1918.

Dr. Fleming presiding.

Recurring Growth at Limbus.

Dr. Pearce showed a case of a peculiar epithelial growth of the limbus of the right eye, with the history that the patient had been under treatment several years; and that the eye had been operated upon three times for pterygium, with the recurrence of growth after removal. The cornea is now nearly completely covered with a peculiar leathery epithelial proliferation, a small portion of the cornea down and in still being free.

Discussion: Dr. Crouch said that he recognized the patient as being one that he saw in 1911, at which time there was a small area covering the cornea at the temporal side and at that time he advised removal of a portion of the tissue for microscopic study, with the result that the patient disappeared from his observation.

Dr. Downey mentioned the fact that he had seen the patient for about two months recently, and that the epithelial extension had been very slow. It was the universal opinion that a portion should be removed for examination, and if malignant should have X-ray or radium treatment; and, if the process continued, enucleation of the eye.

Destruction of Lid.

Dr. Pearce also showed a case of rather extensive destruction of the lower lid in a woman of thirty, which, in the absence of Wassermann, was held to be a breaking down of a gumma.

Interstitial Keratitis.

Dr. Clapp showed a case of interstitial keratitis, which was brought before the Section to exemplify his opinion that some of the interstitial cases which do not improve under specific treatment are in all probability associated with a tubercular infection. This patient had been under treatment for many months with a very little improvement and specific treatment within the hospital was followed by very little change. The von Pirquet reaction was positive and the eyes have improved much more rapidly since the giving of tuberculin.

He also showed a case of Dr. Fleckenstein's which had been given tuberculin for two years, and the improvement had been very marked.

Carcinoma of Orbit.

He also showed microscopic sections of two carcinomas of the orbit, the first being a squamous cell epithelial growth starting in the bulbar conjunctiva, which did not improve under radium and later required exenteration of the orbit.

The other case was one of basal cell epithelioma which had been under radium treatment for five years, finally resulting in exenteration.

Sarcoma of Iris.

Dr. Friedenwald reported a case of sarcoma of the iris in a woman that he saw nine years ago for refration and later in 1915. In March, 1917, however, there was found a slightly pear-shaped pupil in the left eye, which upon examination with loupe showed a small growth at the nasal side of the pupil jutting out into the anterior chamber. Vision was 20/20; Wassermann reaction negative. The case was sent for consultation to Dr. de Schweintz, who confirmed his diagnosis of sarcoma. A very large iridectomy was done in May, 1917, and the tumor was sent to Dr. McCleary for examination, who reported spindle cell sarcoma. The vision has since remained fair with no recurrence to date.

C. A. Clapp, *Secretary.*

ABSTRACTS

Lister, W. T.—Pathologic Aspects of Certain War Injuries of the Eye.

The Lancet, July 20, 1918. The writer presents a selection of observations made on certain war injuries of the eye which appeared either novel, or elucidated other allied conditions, or exhibited a contrast between civil and military experience. These are presented under five heads: 1. Ruptures of the sclera; 2. Concussion changes; 3. Suppurative changes; 4. Changes in the vitreous, and 5. Effect produced on retina and choroid by penetrating foreign bodies.

Regarding ruptures of the sclera: In civil life the greater number take place either immediately above, or above and internal to the cornea, and about 3 mm. from the limbus. In military practice, tho some are similar, others are quite different, and the cornea is burst forwards, or equatorially, or split into numerous petals. Many theories have been advanced to explain the site of civil ruptures, but none has received universal acceptance. Variations in thickness and strength of the sclera, and the amount of support derived from surrounding structures are important factors in determining the site of the rupture, but not the only ones, since otherwise all ruptures would take place in one zone. Lister points out that unless the sclera is actually perforated by the missile itself, rupture does not start from the point of impact, but occurs at some considerable distance from it. This is because the resistance of the envelope to pressure is one-third greater than its tensile strength; hence the eyeball would tend to burst at some distance from the point of impact, sooner than give way at this point.

Experience shows that ruptures most commonly take place either in the equatorial zone, about the line of impact, or opposite the point of contact (contrecoup), and it would appear that these two sites are associated with two different kinds of blows. I. The ruptures caused by slowly moving objects which strike the eyeball directly, without penetrating globe or orbit, occur in the equator round the line of impact at a point where the globe is least supported. This group will include the bulk of ruptures met with in civil life; they are caused by direct impact of comparatively slowly moving objects, such as stones, fists, sticks, boots, or cows' horns.

The site of impact is at the anterior half of the eye, usually below or down and out, owing to the protection afforded to other parts of the eye by the brow and nose; the line of impact from a blow below the cornea will pass from below upwards and backwards; the least supported portion of the equator to that line of impact will be above the cornea, viz., the site at which civil ruptures usually occur. II. In contrast to these we find that ruptures caused by rapidly moving missiles (to which the bulk of those seen in military practice belong) which pass through the orbit but do not strike the eye directly, occur at the side opposite to the point of impact—i. e., at the point of contrecoup; for example, missiles passing through the back of the orbit cause the cornea to be burst forwards, or if they have passed through the side of the orbit the rupture may be found near the equator on the opposite side. The writer explains in detail why the different forms of blows bring about different forms of rupture.

Next, the ruptures of the eye caused by a missile passing through the globe, are considered: When the foreign body passes through the *back* of the eye, the cornea is shot forward and the contents ejected, more or less of the cornea being torn away. When a sufficiently large fragment enters the eye in *front* there is an explosive effect, and the sclera is split into numerous petal-like lobes by radial ruptures extending backwards from the point of entrance. The elasticity of the sclera will accommodate the entry of small particles without rupture. When, however, the

fragment is of such a size and has such velocity that the united effect of the increase in volume caused by the entry of the body, together with the distending force of the pressure wave set up by its impact, is sufficient to overcome the elasticity of the supporting coat, widespread ruptures occur, splitting the sclera into leaves radiating backward, often close up to the optic nerve. This section of the article concludes with a comparison between ruptures of the sclera and fractures of the skull, tho the dissimilarities of the two structures prevent such a comparison from being very close.

The subject of some of the less common concussion changes is taken up. In discussing those of the retina and choroid it is pointed out that commotio retinae is frequently observed in military practice and does not differ from the civil type; several cases were seen where early pigmentation of the macula followed commotio, either as fine peppering or as somewhat diffuse greyish-brown spottings; a picture noticed, but not seen described, consisted of a peculiar striated appearance, evanescent in character, extending for several disc diameters round the macula, coming on when the white haze had disappeared and suggesting that the retina was still swollen and wrinkled. The more grossly concussed fundus met with in military practice, when unobscured by vitreous hemorrhage, is described as one of the most dramatic ophthalmoscopic pictures: In the early stages there are extensive, rich-red clouds of hemorrhage (retinal, choroidal and subhyaloid) interspersed with gleaming white patches; the latter gradually fade, and in the course of time are replaced by plaques of fibrous scar tissue, frequently festooned and sometimes perforated by round or oval holes; these plaques are probably patches of coagulation necrosis due to rupture of choroidal and retinal vessels in the immediate neighborhood, thus cutting off the blood supply and nutrition of certain areas of the retina.

The writer goes on to a consideration of the sites at which concussion changes occur—1, adjacent to the site of impact; 2, at the macula; and 3, immediately opposite the site of the impact. Missiles passing thru the side of the orbit may cause concussion changes at any of these situations; but blows on the front of the eye give rise to changes, as a rule, only at the posterior pole or around the macula. When missiles pass thru the orbit, the area always concussed is that adjacent to the site of the impact; so constant is this that in certain cases of wound of one side of the head, with no apparent disturbance on the other side with the exception of some blurring of vision, the ophthalmoscope by revealing concussion changes in the eye of this side will enable us to state with certainty, not only that a foreign body has passed across the head and thru the orbit on the opposite side to the wound of entrance, but also to define its course—a piece of information which may be of great value to the general surgeon. The macular concussion changes from blows on the front of the eye are common and to be anticipated as a result of bruising at the site of contrecoup; but such changes due to blows on the side of the eye are difficult to account for excepting that the greater vascularity and delicacy of structure in this region renders it more vulnerable; there may be two distinct patches separated by a band of normal retina. In some cases of a lateral blow on the eye, hemorrhages were seen immediately opposite the site of impact corresponding to contrecoup effects in the brain and sclera.

The effect of concussion on vision is discussed and such experiences summarized. In general, these correspond to those generally known. It is pointed out that in severe cases sight may be completely lost for a few days and may then be regained—a fact which may be of the greatest importance in deciding the fate of a wounded and concussed eye. Comparing the concussion changes of the fundus met with in civil and military life, the following striking difference is pointed out: In civil life, where concussion is due to blows of

direct violence on the anterior half of the eye from comparatively slowly moving objects, detachment of the retina and holes at the macula are comparatively common, while severe concussion changes are rare; in military practice, where the concussion is produced for the most part by rapidly moving missiles passing thru the orbit, detachment of the retina and holes at the macula are infrequent, while severe concussion changes are nearly constantly present.

Regarding suppurative changes in the eye, the writer says that, as would be expected from the large number of penetrating wounds of the eye in warfare, suppuration is common; but panophthalmitis, whether exogenous or endogenous, is usually not of an acutely infectious type; there is seldom much pain, and tenonitis with consequent proptosis and chemosis is not often marked. In endogenous or metastatic forms, Lister found much difference in the clinical picture according to whether the anterior or posterior vessels of the eye received the septic embolus. When the anterior half of the eye is first infected, there is early exudate into the anterior chamber and anterior portion of the vitreous and marked discoloration of the iris. When the choroidal or retinal vessels are the seat of the primary infection, the first sign is a general diffuse edema of the bulbar conjunctiva, loss of fundus reflex and dimness of vision, without discoloration of the iris or exudate in the anterior part of the eye; in the course of 24 hours there is added slight proptosis and practically complete loss of sight.

Next are described the changes which are produced in the vitreous, retina and choroid by penetrating foreign bodies; and finally the correlation of lesions with defects in the field of vision are discussed. Regarding the last, the writer says that the delicate localized lesions of the retina are in reality wonderfully neat physiologic experiments, for which in peace time it would be difficult to obtain either the subjects or the license. Experimenters have, by dividing portions of the retina in animals, been able to trace out the course of degenerated fibers in the optic nerve, but naturally, they were unable to correlate these lesions with defects in the field of vision in the lower animals; but in these war experiments on man we can correlate the visible lesions with defects in the field, tho we are unable to complete the examination by tracing the course of the degenerated fibers. Thus we find that lesions above or below the horizontal plane cause a defect in the field out of all proportion to the local disturbance—i. e., there is a "distribution defect," in addition to the local defect due to the lesion. This is due to the lesion having not only damaged the spot which is struck, but also involved nerve fibers which were passing on to a more peripheral part of the retina. The "distribution defect" is fan shaped from the point corresponding to the lesion and extending toward the periphery; the nearer the lesion is to the disc the greater the blind sector, and vice versa, which agrees with the accepted distribution of the nerve fibers in the retina.

When the lesion occurs in the horizontal plane there is no "distribution defect," but the loss of the field is limited to the area corresponding with the lesion, as would be expected, for the fibers supplying the retina in the horizontal line arch around from the disc to their destination, and therefore these lesions would only involve the nerve fibers at their termination.

Sector defects following bruising of the retina are strikingly similar to the sector defects in the field following solitary patches of choroiditis.

C. H. M.

H. K. de Haas.—Dangers from Arsenic in Daily Surroundings.—Geneeskundige Bladen, v. 20, No. 2.

This writer has found arsenic 32 times in the urine of sufferers with optic nerve inflammation of more or less specific character. Examining among his last 8,000 patients those who had optic nerve disease of a similar character, he had none with lead-intoxication, 4 with albuminuria, 3

with glycosuria and 22 with arsenicuria.

Comparing this with the reports of the ophthalmologic institutions in The Hague and Amsterdam he found the same percentage for albuminuric retinitis, while during that time no case was reported with lead intoxication or diabetic retinitis. Optic nerve affection and arsenicuria must be generally found in the Netherlands, and will appear more frequent when the facts are known. Ten of his cases had previously been seen by other ophthalmologists and he has the case histories of 5 more given him by colleagues.

The history of the first patient needs a rather full report. Mrs. —— came on July 3, 1907, with R. 3/60 and L. 6/6, hyperopia 4, 5 D. The amblyopia was connected with a right strabismus convergens. On March 2, 1912, she returned with complaints of difficult vision. This had gradually developed during the last months. The fundus was ophthalmoscopically normal, only below the left disc a spot in the retina seemed somewhat edematous. A few days later she complained of seeing spots and colors, suffered with a pronounced photophobia, and could not read or sew. The vision had not changed materially. The suspected spot in the retina was larger; showing in the direct image very fine, light, glistering points; also beaded capillaries. Here, therefore, was a retinitis, difficult to distinguish, situated in the superficial layers. The papilla had a normal color and border, only the veins were a little thick.

During the following days the process progressed along the course of the nerve fibers, and reached in some 2 weeks the macular region. Metamorphopsia was complained of, which showed that the process had gone deeper, reaching the layer of the rods and cones. "Everything seems to dance," relative and absolute, mostly negative scotomas and photopsies vexed the patient. During the following 3 weeks the retina regained its normal aspect, beginning at the disc, following the course of the nerve fibers in the direction of the macula, but not so regularly as the disease had done. No abnormality, objective or subjective, remained behind.

A scotoma corresponded with the diseased part of the retina, larger in the direction of the macula than the retinal lesion indicated. During some attacks the patient indicated scotomas, for which diseased retinal spots could not always be found, only a slight retinal hyperemia being seen. The patient's sturdy child remained always well and nursed. The urine was free from albumin and sugar. A tenia was present. The Wassermann was negative. The child was weaned, and the tenia destroyed. Looking for a cause of the intoxication much naphthalin was found in the linen in the bedroom; but its removal had no influence. The preceding summer the family had moved, the house had been painted and papered and floors broken open. Instead of "mouse-wheat," "rats-bane" was dusted about. On detection this was removed as well as possible. Was here a case of arsenic poisoning?

There were no symptoms of the conjunctiva, of the skin, respiratory tract or intestines, only some attacks of retinitis. Even before receiving K. I. she had a slight gingivitis, sometimes superficial pains in her face, sometimes intense dizzy spells, and rarely brief obscurations, during which all light perception would be absent. The urine for a week after the patient had been in the hospital contained arsenic, but so little, only a few thousandth parts of a milligram per liter, that de Haas did not consider that this could have any pathologic importance, especially as the examining chemist stated that he and his assistant did not have arsenic-free urine.

After a few weeks in the hospital the patient returned home free from complaints; but had a recurrence at the end of April; went away visiting, returned home cured at the end of May, and had another recurrence in June. The relapses were, like the first attack, superficial retinitis leaving the deeper layers intact. The cause must be in the house. These appearing and disappearing attacks were later somewhat explained.

During the next few years two events made arsenic still to be considered as cause of the retinitis, notwithstanding the examination of the urine wrongly considered negative. During a quiet intermittent spell the patient went to her dentist, who filled a tooth temporarily with arsenious acid. The same evening the patient had intense photophobia and only next morning had edematous spots, and very fine white foci in the eye. The same evening the dental canal was emptied, and the attack disappeared in a few days. The other attacks had ended more gradually, especially those where the patient remained at home.

Investigation showed that not more than 3 mg. of arsenious acid could have been put in the tooth. Looking for the cause the attention was attracted by the metal teapot. The patient stopped drinking all tea and coffee; and, as she had been advised to drink much, she consumed 1.25 liter of Vichy water daily. A sharp recurrence followed, on account of the two milligrams of arsenic which Vichy water contains per liter. The urine contained quite an amount of As. The air drawn from the locality where the paperhanger had strewn the ratsbane before the moving was found negative as to arsenic. But this was while the weather was good, and there was no moisture, so it was probably quite dry between that floor and the second story. At the end attention was drawn to the green painted wainscot in the kitchen, which was downstairs; this paint contained much arsenic.

Arsenic was also demonstrated biologically with a Penicillium culture. These fungi showed the possibility of evaporation of arsenic during moist weather; and also of their own presence at such times.

If it is true that chronic arsenical poisoning can be the result of combinations in gaseous form, formed by fungi from solid arsenical combination, thus may be explained the capriciousness of their appearance, and especially the stoppage of the attacks without the patient leaving the house. During moist weather, becoming warmer, when condensation appeared on the rather cold walls, the fungus throve and complaints came. During the dry weather and while it became colder, even if it rained, the fungus pined away, and the patient recuperated.

After removal of the paint, only one slight attack happened in the very rainy and mild month of January, 1916. No fire had been lit in the parlor so that we can safely surmise that it was moist there, and also in the ceiling above. After the fire was lit the attack disappeared. Vision is now as it was 10 years ago.

All cases had the following picture in common:

It was an affection of the peripheric optical conducting apparatus, limiting itself (as far as this is possible to determine clinically) to the most central neurons of the retina. The neurons were affected in the retina, or in the optic nerve, or in both. The lamina cribrosa did not form a barrier. Often the retina suffered first. Sometimes the retina did not show any distinguishable deviation. Then the changes of the disc alone were insufficient for differentiation from the classical intoxication amblyopias.

As far as objectively visible the inflammation was focal. This agreed with the functional disturbance, never being total blindness, remaining as local defects in the visual field. If the attack lasted long, fine pigment changes appeared in the pigment layer showing that the deeper retinal layers were affected. The light sense was little disturbed. Only a few patients, and they lightly, showed photophobia, which was so intense in the first case. The very fine superficial changes in the retina were only visible in the erect image. The retinal hemorrhages, when present were small, less than the diameter of an ordinary bloodvessel.

In at least eight cases, after removal from the arsenic source, an existing, previously stationary papillitis increased. In a retinitis four weeks, and even later after the ingestion of arsenic had stopped, appeared still papillitis. Under the same circumstances retinal hemorrhages (mostly only few,

situated near the papilla) would show.

The arsenical neuro-retinitis has mostly a continuous protracted course, lasting longer if the patients had been exposed longer. Many cases lasted 6 months or longer, after the ingestion of arsenic had stopped before recovery, or a permanent condition of atrophy. The central vision became damaged not only with retinitis, because this resided in and around the macula (sometimes exactly and only here); but also because the maculopapillar tracts of the nerve were first and mostly affected, even with the absence of any retinal changes. If atrophy was present the temporal quadrant was affected by preference. In serious cases the disc in its entirety became atrophic. In cases which had been long influenced by the intoxication, the vessels kept their normal caliber, unlike quinin intoxication. The visual field did not become contracted, but the para- and central scotomas, the permanent central blindness, made many needy persons. If vision became 1/10 it was only eccentric. *With few exceptions, the patients were otherwise healthy persons.*

Most of the cases could point to the wallpaper as the source of the intoxication. One soldered much, mostly tin. One, as a cooper, handled for many hours daily galvanized iron hoops, in the tin of which was much arsenic. Many became affected in an institution where the lids on the pans in which the meals were prepared, were made of galvanized steel; that is sheetiron which was not tinned over but covered with zinc. This contains regularly arsenic. Here and there the zinc was absent. Could it have been dissolved in the food? Investigation showed that the institute inhabitants absorbed less than 200 mgrm. of As_2O_3 daily; that is such a quantity of arsenic that it becomes after oxidation 200 mgrm. As_2O_3. This quantity of arsenic at the utmost, combined in unknown form, in which it reaches daily the intestinal wall with the food, made two persons lose their central vision.

Of the 13 people examined in the institution, 2 had an arsenic-free urine, altho undoubtedly arsenic was absorbed. Not every one's kidneys have the same permeability for arsenic. The seriousness of the ocular manifestations did not depend on the quantity of arsenic found in the urine. Only a few of the many hundreds, living in the same conditions, showed ocular disease. None of the other institution physicians had found the slightest indication of arsenic poisoning during the last year. The only two who received permanent damage, were two sisters. Zinc kitchen utensils are dangerous, unless the zinc proves on examination to be free from arsenic.

One of the 35 patients, a boy of 18 years, when last seen had still 10 mgrm. of arsenic in his urine. He could count fingers at 4 meters with R. He could not see more until of 5/20 he saw well one letter, of 5/15 two letters and of 5/10 he read them all correctly (E T L F N). He had with the same eye less than 5/60 and more than 5/10 vision. Somebody who tumbles over a pail, which he does not see, while he is able to pick up a pin, becomes almost suspected of simulation. This is the result of central sharply limited defects in the visual field.

De Haas could find in the literature 8 cases of arsenic optic nerve poisoning; 6 thru administration of arsenic as medicin, or as a poisoning dose by the mouth, and two thru wall coverings. Arsenic poisoning of the optic nerve has been described rarely up to date, except thru atoxyl, arsacetin, etc.

The normal urine does not contain arsenic. The urine can contain arsenic in clinically healthy persons; when they live in surroundings containing large amounts of it.

Of the 35 cases there were 32 where De Haas made the clinical diagnosis of neuroretinitis arsenicalis, and arsenic was found in the urine in which the quantity did not amount to more than 60 mgrm. per liter urine. The three exceptions could be readily accounted for.

The consequences of the loss of vision thru avoidable arsenic in the practice of de Haas alone represent a value of a million guilders. E. E. B.

MacNaughton-Jones, M.—The Sterilization of Local Anesthetics.—The Lancet, June 29, 1918.)

The writer suggests a simple but effective method of preparing a sterile solution of cocain or other local anesthetic which may also contain adrenalin. It consists in preparing a solution of sodium chlorid together with the anesthetic or anesthetics and adrenalin, each constituent being present in such quantity that a dilution with many (e. g., 40) times the volume of water, will give a solution containing the requisite percentage of each. The preparation is placed in a sealed phial or ampoule and kept until required. Sterile water is added immediately before injection. Experiments demonstrated that even if the preparation be inoculated with the ordinary forms of bacterial contamination the presence of concentrated salt renders it sterile in a few days.

A simple method of preparing the concentrated solution is to take the quantities of anesthetic, salt, etc., required per 1,000 and dissolve in water; but make up to 25 instead of to 1,000. The concentrated solution suggested contains:

Kerocain or procain (novocain)	3.25	(13%)
NaCl	3.25	(13%)
Adrenalin chlorid solution (1 in 1,000)	8.00	(32%)
Water by weight (or metric)	ad 25.0	(100)

This solution, prepared without antiseptic precautions, and after contamination with bacillus coli and other organisms, was sterile a week after preparation. When diluted with 40 times its bulk of water it contains 3.25 parts per 1,000 of both procain and sodium chlorid, gives perfect anesthesia, and has an osmotic pressure approximately equal to that of a 4 per 1,000 (0.4 per cent), solution of the latter salt. The adrenalin is not in sufficient strength to arrest hemorrhage, but secures prolonged anesthesia. A certain amount of hemorrhage during the majority of operations is easily controlled; and, in his opinion, is preferable to the risk of a subsequent hematoma, which he has seen develop on more than one occasion.

If a 2 in 1,000 (0.2 per cent) solution of cocain be desired the formula would be modified as follows, and the concentrated solution would be:

Cocain hyd.	2.	(8%)
Sodium chlorid (approx.)	3.75	(15%)
Adrenalin chlorid (1 in 1,000)	6.	(24%)
Water by weight to	25.	(100)

It is suggested that a solution be prepared 40 times the strength of that required for injection, because increments in the dilute solution of ¼, ½, ¾ or 1 per 1,000 correspond to an increase of 1, 2, 3, or 4 per cent. in the concentrated solution, and these are the increments usually desired.

C. H. M.

Magitot.—Traumatic Variations of Ocular Tension.—(Ann. d'Oculist. v. 155, p. 1). This author refers to a previous work in which he proved that ocular tension was dependent on the amount of blood in the uveal vessels. (See A. J. O., v. 1, p. 587.) The aqueous is a practically stagnant fluid permeating the fibrillar neurogleic sponge called the vitreous. Being incompressible, it gives way when the erectile choroid tissue becomes distended, and becomes richer in albuminous contents as the result of serum passing thru the vessel walls.

Therefore the permeability of the iris angle and the canal of Schlemm has no influence on ocular tension. If the aqueous were concerned in tension, an increase in the contents of the eyeball caused by a hemorrhage into the anterior chamber should be followed by a rise of tension instead of the fall which actually occurs. The regulation of the blood in the uvea is under the control of the intraparietal nerve cells of the eyeball, at least they are without doubt the point of origin of the reflex caused by the stimulus of the trauma, which results in an excitation or inhibition, with consequent hyperemia or anemia of the choroid.

Traumatic lesions of the eyes can be divided into two groups: (a) where the lesion of the orbit predominates,

and (b) where the ocular lesion is the more important. The first group consists chiefly of hemorrhage into the tissues, which interferes more or less with the venous flow. However, it does not completely check it, and moreover there is an immediate beginning of absorption which causes a progressive decrease in the interference. In three cases which he quotes there was a decided rise in tension following interference with the venous outflow, altho the eyeball was uninjured. In a case of unilateral anthracoid furuncle of the lid with orbital phlebitis the tension on the affected side was 45 mm. and on the healthy side 15. The vision was normal, however, there were no fundal changes, the pupils were equal, the tension fell in the same ratio as the inflammation subsided and the stasis was relieved.

In group (b), characterized by the predominance of ocular symptoms as opposed to orbital, there may be either a rise or a fall of tension. In some cases there is an inhibition of the intraparietal nerve cell, resulting in a passive dilatation of the arterioles, an overfilling of the veins of the uvea with a turgescence of the latter and a rise of tension. In other cases there is an excitation of these cells, a contraction of the arterioles, less blood in the veins, shrinking of the uvea and fall of tension. It is impossible to say why the trauma has one effect one time and another the other, for it is impossible to point out the exact spot where the trauma may be acting. Then, too, a moderate effect may stimulate and a more severe one may inhibit the physiologic action of the same cells. In a case of ophthalmomalacia very striking oscillations of tension were noticed.

In considering the disease glaucoma, the error is frequently made of confusing the symptom hypertension with the disease itself. As a matter of fact, there are many ocular affections, some inflammatory, some angiosclerotic, some purely traumatic, which, according to the point of attack of their etiologic agent on the vascular element of the uvea, or its innervation, may cause a high or low, transient or permanent tension.

His conclusions may be summed up as follows:

Traumatic variations of ocular tension have two causes—one passive and the other active.

1. Mechanical interference with the orbital venous circulation. These hypertensions last as long as the circulatory obstruction is present.

2. Troubles caused by the action of the trauma upon the intraocular vasomotor nervous system. C. L.

Sakai.—Sensitiveness of the Cornea and the Conjunctiva.—Nippon Gank. Zasshi. Dec., 1917.

The results of his experiments follow:

1. The conjunctiva has the sense of touch as shown by Nagel, but less, relatively than the edges of the lids, skin of the face, etc.

2. The bulbar conjunctiva on the part exposed by the aperture of the lids has a little less sensitiveness than the other parts.

3. The cornea has the sensation of touch.

4. The cornea and conjunctiva fail to have the sensation of warmth, and this is likewise so of the caruncle and semilunar fold.

5. The bearable heat is 42-43° (Cent.).

6. Pain is especially experienced in the cornea.

7. It is in spots in the conjunctiva especially in the lids, more than that of the bulb. This condition may be observed also in the cornea (some portions being more sensitive than others).

8. The difference between the sensitive points is the least on the free border of the lid (8.7 mm.), while that of the conjunctiva is 15 mm.

9. Sensation to chemical substances is less than that to cold.

KOMOTO and H. V. W.

Wallis, Hoare, W.—Operative Technic and After Treatment of Cataract Extraction.—(The Medical Journal of Australia, 1918, p. 297.)

The writer says he ignores the ques-

tion of ripeness, and operates on the riper eye if the patient cannot carry on. After making a conjunctival flap he does a large ring-shaped capsulotomy and a peripheral iridectomy. Twenty-five per cent argyrol solution is instilled for two days before and the conjunctival sac irrigated with normal saline, just before operation. He contents himself with this provided a culture shows no danger from the conjunctiva. He lays great stress on the importance of retraction of the lids, uper and lower, by an assistant using Lang's or Harman's retractors and pulling forward and away from the globe (Smith). The loss of vitreous he looks upon as comparable to shock, hemorrhage or sepsis in general surgery. Intraocular irrigation with saline after extraction and eserin are used. A sterile vaselin swab is applied and held in place by plaster and a wire mask. Aged patients are out of bed in two days. A large number, irrespective of the type of operation, have to undergo discission.

F. P. M.

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GERMAN OPHTHALMOLOGY.

A myth is sometimes worthy of careful consideration and scientific study. There has been an attitude of exaggerated appreciation on the part of Americans toward Germany, and its supposed achievements in ophthalmology, so out of proportion to the real share Germany has taken in the development of ophthalmology, that it is worth examination. The power to inspire confidence and unmerited respect is an attribute of the successful quack the world over. The disposition to use propaganda to advance the interests of "kultur" is a German characteristic. At this time of careful sifting it is well to inquire how far the respect shown for the ophthalmology promulgated in Germany is justified by real scientific leadership; and how far it is based on unthinking acceptance of an assumption of superiority that does not exist.

The expansion of knowledge, interest, and achievement which characterizes modern ophthalmology, began in the middle of the last century with the use of the ophthalmoscope, the exact measurement and correction of anomalies of refraction, and specialization in practice. The use of the ophthalmoscope was given to the ophthalmologist largely by German workers. When Helmholz had solved the problems of physics involved in seeing the background of the living eye, Graefe, Jaeger, and their colleagues took the instrument and began making studies of the eye-ground. Babbage had invented such an instrument ten years earlier, but the English surgeon to whom he showed it failed to perceive its importance; and it was put aside unused, until the credit of its introduction had been secured for Helmholtz and Germany.

But the important practical improvements that have been made in the ophthalmoscope have nearly all been suggested and applied outside of Germany. Reute of Holland gave the perforated mirror, which Wadsworth of Boston and Loring of New York perfected in the tilted form. The socalled Rekoss disc was of little importance until the New York optician, Hunter, working for Loring, Knapp, and John Green, had perfected their forms of refraction ophthalmoscope. Morton of London suggested the other widely used mech-

anism for a practical lens series. The electric ophthalmoscope was suggested and perfected in America by Dennett, Marple, and their successors. The latest advance, in the large fixed ophthalmoscope, has been made by Gullstrand of Sweden.

The most important offshoot from ophthalmoscopy, the shadow test, skiascopy, has been wholly developed and principally used outside of Germany. It began with incidental observations by Bowman, was developed into a method by Cuignet, Mengin, and Chibret; and has been perfected by French, English, and American workers. Transillumination, first described in Germany, remained as little noticed and as unused as the Babbage ophthalmoscope for 30 years, until taken up by Swanzy of Dublin, and Würdemann and others in America.

The ophthalmometer, a ponderous laboratory instrument of Germany, that has measured the eyes of probably less than 100 persons in any generation, was first introduced as an instrument for clinical work, when Javal and Schiötz had based it on new principles and remodeled it. Since then it has been used on hundreds of thousands of eyes, in the practical measurement of refraction.

The scientific understanding, exact diagnosis, and practical correction of errors of refraction began and developed outside of Germany. From the time of Young, Airy, and Stokes of England; of Donders, whose work in Holland, translated from the Dutch in Dublin, first received adequate publication in the new Sydenham Series in London; thru Landolt, Weir Mitchell, Thomson, Green, Dyer, Norris, Hay, Risley, Brudenell Carter, Hartridge, and Gould, the correction of ametropia developed to more than half of the work of the ophthalmologist, without ever being well taught or its importance fully understood in myopic Germany.

Operative ophthalmology comes down to us from an older time, and each generation modifies and readapts the older procedures. Cataract extraction had, of course, been introduced by Daviel before any German school of ophthalmology existed. The generation that followed him devised and used knives of all possible shapes, that of Beer remaining most generally popular. Graefe, choosing a narrower knife, such as had been used by Sharp, described what he called a modified linear extraction; which no one now practices, and which he soon modified himself. This, with a few such suggestions as Waldau's spoon, modified by Graefe, but properly supplanted by the Levis wire loop, constitute the chief original contributions of Germany to cataract extraction.

After Chevalier Taylor had claimed to do an operation for squint, and Bell had suggested a rational basis for it; Stromeyer worked out an operative procedure, and Dieffenbach of Berlin did this operation and exploited it to the world. Dieffenbach probably did it after Guerin of Paris; but he got into the newspapers with it first; and then every general surgeon from Moscow to Peru began to use and modify it. Dieffenbach's record of 3,000 cases in three years has probably never been broken. But so recklessly was the operation resorted to, and so bad were the ultimate results, that it quickly fell into complete disrepute. So when Graefe began to publish accounts of practically the same operation 15 years later, it was mentioned as Graefe's operation. Revivals of the squint operation brought about by Critchett and Snellen were better procedures; and much more in the line of modern progress than the Graefe operation. The muscle operations for advancement, tucking, and resection have all been developed outside of Germany. From German operators we have had only inferior elaborations or imitations, not even a new method of placing or tying the sutures.

The great advances of modern general surgery began with Lister's application of the discoveries of Pasteur. Sir Berkeley Moynihan has brilliantly shown how little Germany has contributed to this movement. In plastic surgery about the eyes, Germany has contributed less than England, France, Italy or even India; and now Amer-

ica's practical inventive ingenuity, turned to the solving of its problems, is achieving unprecedentedly good results in blepharoplasty and restoration of the socket. In the surgery of adjoining parts, of the brain, the sinuses, the hypophysis, America has taken the lead. West, of Baltimore, taught his window resection of the lacrimal passages in Berlin, apparently understanding that German surgeons and their students and imitators would never recognize its merits if taught anywhere else.

In view of the limited proportion of the advances in ophthalmology that can be traced to German sources, what are the factors that have entered into the making of the myth of German ophthalmology? A study of them can be of special practical value to American ophthalmologists today. The myth has been founded chiefly upon the statements and claims of Americans who went to Germany to study ophthalmology; and came home to impress the medical profession and the public with the mastery of it they had attained there.

When modern ophthalmology began to develop as a medical specialty, every medical school in America was a private business enterprise, dominated by general practitioners and surgeons who were strongly opposed to specialization in medicine. There was no reputable, well-educated physician in America formally attempting to teach ophthalmology. All that it was generally considered necessary to know about the eye and its diseases, was taught by the professor of general surgery in two lectures.

Under these conditions young men like Williams, Dyer, Green, Holmes, Noyes, and Agnew, who became interested in the subject, went to Europe to study it, under Bowman, Desmarres, Donders, Graefe, and Jaeger. Graefe himself had studied in Paris and London, then world centers for ophthalmology. Naturally the younger men who caught their interest in ophthalmology from its first teachers in America, as Wadsworth, the Derbys, Loring, Norris, Thompson, and others, turned to the springs of knowledge that had been so much to their teachers. A still younger generation found in Germany the laboratory opportunities that were still scarce everywhere, and a few utilized them.

The idea of finishing an education for ophthalmic practice by a year, more or less, in Europe became firmly implanted in the mind of the American medical profession. Germany offered certain conditions that were especially attractive to the student who had been biased with the notion that all he needed was clinical contact with cases of eye disease to make him an ophthalmologist. People raised for "cannon-fodder" can easily be utilized as "clinical material." From masses, compelled to live under conditions of poverty and social degradation could be built up public clinics of such size and subserviency as were impossible anywhere else in the world.

To the claims of these big ophthalmic clinics the American medical student was peculiarly susceptible. To see six cases of retinitis pigmentosa in one day, seemed a vast clinical opportunity. In his ignorance of real clinical study he did not realize that he could have learned a great deal more from one case studied for six days. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century, Vienna and Berlin had come to be regarded in America as clinical Meccas; and the priests of this religion lived by the fees of American students.

To have gone abroad to "study" served the purpose of impressing prospective patients; and few were capable of judging the character of that study or the value of its results. German ophthalmology including a superficial clinical acquaintance with the common diseases of the eye, a contempt for the careful measurement of ametropia, and an exaggerated desire to discover rare cases, became the popular standard of attainment for the eye specialist in America. More practical French and British clinical work, and the American passion for results, were needed to save ophthalmology from becoming a mixture of clinical superficiality and laboratory pottering.

When it became understood in German clinics that ophthalmology was unknown as a medical specialty in America, a very natural emigration of German ophthalmologists occurred. Julius Homberger was one of the first. But later came men like Knapp, Hotz and Alt, of scientific attainments worthy of the respect they received from their American confreres; and it happened that the first three ophthalmic journals published in this country were started by men who had been born and educated in Germany. Moreover, the first American institution for graduate teaching in ophthalmology was Knapp's Ophthalmic and Aural Institute in New York.

The student commonly has an exaggerated estimate of the knowledge and wisdom of his instructor. He ranks high the man who taught him, and regards him as an authority. Whether this feeling was exploited in the clinics, or in the literature of Germany, it produced a respect for German achievements in the field of ophthalmology out of all proportion to their scientific importance, a readiness to accept anything that came thru German channels, while important communications from other sources were unnoticed.

It seems to be natural for the German scientist to spend his time in the recording of minute routine observations, and in collecting bibliographies. There grew in Germany a mass of literature, some of which was valuable, and some merely cumbersome. Mackenzie had done much for ophthalmology in this direction; but in "Nagel's Jahrsbericht" and in elaborate bibliographies the Germans brought together all the papers related to each single topic. Their ophthalmic literature was often ponderous, sterile, and marked by sordid, bitter controversies on questions of priority. But its mass made an impression on those who did not read it; and students were able to search out in it, that which had not been gathered or preserved anywhere else. It helped to give plausibility to the myth of German ophthalmology; and substance to the commercial returns that myth was capable of yielding.

With ophthalmology universally recognized as an important branch of medical knowledge, and practice; with schools and literature developing in all parts of the world, the unreasonable reverence for German ophthalmology was doomed. But it is useful to know that its influence rested on two things: the establishment of institutions where ophthalmology was taught, and the development of a literature in which published facts were carefully preserved and collated. The comparative value of such institutions and this kind of literature need to be better recognized in America. When they are so recognized, we will develop better teaching and a more valuable literature than those which helped furnish prestige to Germany. E. J.

SILVER PREPARATIONS IN LACRIMAL SAC DISEASE.

Even yet, despite certain unpleasant medico-legal experiences of some American oculists, do we find many men using the silver solutions as the nitrat, argyrol, and protargol for injection into the lacrimal sac for dacryocystitis.

Now, the best of us abrade the lacrimal passage mucous membrane, and even occasionally make a false passage in sounding. Then too, in quite a proportion of such cases erosions have already occurred in the course of the disease; and the forcible injection of any fluid by the syringe may carry the solution into the tissues of the lid or orbit.

If this fluid be aseptic and colorless no great discomfort may ensue; but if such a substance as silver is used, which makes an indelible stain after exposure to light, permanent discoloration of the lower lid—a chronic black eye—may occur.

This, in the case of a young person, especially in a good looking woman, is a great disfigurement, which can not be removed by any known treatment. Certainly the courts have upheld the charge of malpractice in such cases

Reiterated warnings are necessary regarding these solutions, for their use is common in this connection.

H. V. W.

POST-WAR AVIATION

Whatever else may happen as a result of the war, one thing is certain, namely, that the knowledge acquired concerning the mechanics of aircrafts, and the training of thousands of aviators will bring it to pass that air transportation will soon aid, possibly rival, land and sea transportation. This will happen either as government controlled enterprises, or as large corporations similar to the present railroad and steamship companies or as individual action similar to the present use of automobiles. It requires no great exercise of the imagination to see the air filled with crafts devoted to sport or profit. Also, it is evident that if this occurs, in the course of time regulations concerning their conduct will become necessary. Will the world wait until the problem becomes complex, or will some far seeing statesman initiate these regulations now, before vested rights and customs have arisen to demand consideration? Will they be municipal, state, national or international?

It is not the province of this journal to discuss the question as to what level shall be occupied by each form of aircraft, and what the "rules of the road" shall be, nor any of the other regulations of similar character, but it is our privilege to call attention to one phase of the question, and that is the *medical* qualifications of the aviator. Two extremes are possible; one is to follow the custom that obtains in the case of automobiles, and permit any one or any age, physical condition and habits to become an aviator. The other is to follow the rigid requirements of the army aviation service. Of the two, the latter is by far to be preferred, but is there not the possibility of adopting less stringent regulations without sacrificing safety. For example, is 20/20 vision without glasses essential for peace time aviation? How far should correct color vision enter into the requirements? Is correct response to the equilibrium tests equally necessary for those who fly at low altitudes as those who fly at high? Should alcoholics and people of unstable mental states be allowed to fly at all? These and many other problems should be settled now, when flying is in its infancy. It will be easier to exclude unfit flyers before they start flying than afterwards. On the other hand, the enforcement of unjust regulations might keep many men from flying who really ought to be allowed that privilege.

It seems to the writer that the best way of settling the medical problems connected with the future of aviation is for the large, representative medical organizations—the American Medical Association, etc.—and the special ones in whose province these questions lie—the Ophthalmologic and the Otologic Societies—should appoint committees to study them, either separately or conjointly, and make recommendations to Congress, so that the regulations when made shall apply equally to all men and all parts of the country. Let us hope that the first of these to meet in 1919 will initiate the movement, and that the others will join in, so that we may have scientific and not haphazard regulation of what promises to be one of the greatest fields of human activity.

C. L.

BOOK NOTICES.

PHYSIOLOGIC OPTICS, by **Charles Sheard,** A. B., A. M., Ph. D., Professor and Director of Applied Optics in the Ohio State University. Reprinted from the American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology. 8vo. 517 pages. 250 illustrations. Cloth. Price $5.00. Chicago, Cleveland Press, 1918.

Deficiencies in their training in physiologic optics are felt by many American ophthalmologists. Improved methods and opportunities for study of this branch are among the most urgent needs of our courses of preparation for ophthalmic practice. The most com-

plete book on the subject hitherto available in English, has been the book by Tscherning as translated by Weiland 19 years ago. Of Helmholtz work there was no English translation. As a student, the writer regretted this, for the German text was difficult and forbidding. He has sometimes wondered whether the absence of a good textbook has had something to do with the neglect of the subject by many ophthalmologists in America.

However that may be, from the time of Thomas Young, many of the most important original contributions on the subject have appeared in English. Now, in the work of Sheard, we have a treatise that beside doing justice to the facts and formulas gathered and developed by Helmholtz, brings together the large number of practical observations and propositions recorded by more recent writers, especially in English.

It is fortunate that, as it originally appeared in the American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology, it is already at the command of the large number of subscribers for that work. It is also well to have it available to those who have not the Encyclopedia, by publication of this separate volume.

In any treatise on physiologic optics, the algebraic formulas that are so noticeable are likely to deter some ophthalmologists from reading it; and prove a real obstacle to those who do undertake its perusal. It is but fair to call attention to the fact that in this work many of the laws that are commonly expressed by such formulas, are also stated in clear, direct English. or are made clear by simple, well chosen diagrams.

It should be realized also that physiologic optics is a much broader subject than mathematic optics; and that many things here set forth need no mathematics to explain them. This becomes evident when we examine the table of contents.

Part I. Ocular Optics, including refraction at curved surfaces and catoptics, gives full scope to the methods of mathematics; but the other parts have much less use for them.

Part II. Monocular Vision, and the methods of objectively and subjectively investigating it, is less formidable and of greater practical interest. The same is true of the subsequent parts.

Part III. Qualitative and Quantitative Determinations of the Retinal Functions.

Part IV. Binocular Vision and Ocular Movements; and Part V, Binocular Vision and Disorders of the Motility. In these latter parts there is much of interest to every one engaged in ophthalmic practice; and little that will make an excessive demand on his preliminary training in mathematics.

It is not possible in this notice to indicate the many subjects discussed in this book, that must interest any one who wishes to understand the eye and its functions. It must suffice to state that it covers physiologic optics as that branch of science has developed up to date. Of the four brief appendices, not included in the original article as published in the Encyclopedia, one is devoted to "The Theory of Color Vision," as reviewed by Mrs. Ladd-Franklin; another to "Refractive Differences in Foveal and Parafoveal Vision;" and a third on "Stereoscopic Colors or Retiring and Advancing Colors;" all based on articles published within the year.

While ample justice has been done to the workers of other countries, those of America have not been slighted, while Maddox is referred to 14 times. Howe is mentioned 12, Stevens 14, and Savage 19; and Cobb, Ferree, Ives, Lippincott, Luckiesh, Nutting, Prentice, Weymouth, and others have their work adequately noticed. Among the American writings regarding physiologic optics may be found ideas that will not be permanently held; but even these compare favorably with the errors of the past, and all that are included in this work are worthy of study and consideration.

On the whole, this book is excellently written in clear, direct language. It contains a better and more complete account of its subject than any other treatise yet published in any language.

It is well illustrated, neatly printed, and has good indices both of subjects and names, beside the full table of contents. The appendices and indices, the principal additions made to the work as it appeared in the Encyclopedia, add much to the value and convenience of the book as a work of reference. E. J.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA, Third Series, Volume 39. 582 pages. Illustrated. Printed for the College.

This volume covers the transactions of the College for the year 1917. The 18 months that have elapsed since the publication of its immediate predecessor, illustrates the difficulty of getting high grade printing done under the conditions existing during the last year. Its principal interest to the ophthalmologist lies in the 59 pages devoted to the proceedings of the section on ophthalmology. These proceedings have already been published more than a year ago in the Journals which were combined to form the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY. The volume is a very creditable one and contains a number of important papers and discussions of general interest to all members of the medical profession.

Among these are communications on "The Significance of Spinal Fluid Findings," by Fordyce; and upon "Syphilis of the Central Nervous System," by Swift and Stewart.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE THIRD COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL CONGRESS, held in Denver, 1917. 59 pages. Illustrated.

The papers included in these transactions have already been published in the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY, and are reprinted from this Journal chiefly for circulation among the members of the Congress. E. J.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Paul Chavernac, of Marseilles, was killed recently in active service.

A. H. P. Dawney of London, died November 8th, of pneumonia; aged forty-eight years.

Isaac H. Lent, Middleton, New York, aged seventy-two, a member of the Medical Society of the State of New York; consulting ophthalmologist to the Thrall Hospital, Middleton; died at his home, about October 20th.

Dr. Albert B. Mason, Atlanta, Ga., aged thirty-one, died at his home, December 4th, from pneumonia following influenza.

Dr. Wm. H. Moore, Martinsdale, Mont., aged forty, died at his home, December 1st, from pneumonia.

Dr. Thomas T. Perkins, Cliftondale, Mass., aged forty-five, died at his home December 6th, from heart disease.

Dr. Eugene V. Riker, Flint, Mich., aged fifty-seven, died at his home, November 25th, from pneumonia.

Dr. Glenn C. Spurgeon, Seattle, aged forty-four, a member of the staff of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Infirmary, died at his home, October 29th, from pneumonia following influenza.

Capt. Halstead Robert Wright, M. C., U. S. A., Columbus, Ohio, aged forty-three, formerly instructor in physiology and pathology of the eye in the Ohio State University, died while on duty at the Base Hospital No. 14, Fort Oglethorpe, October 17th, from pneumonia following influenza.

PERSONAL.

Dr. G. A. Whitledge of Anderson, Indiana, has been elected a member of the American College of Surgeons.

Dr. E. DeWitt Connell, of Portland, Ore., is spending a portion of the winter in the East and South.

At the last meeting of the Ophthalmic Section of the New York Academy of Medicine, Dr. Arnold Knapp was chosen chairman

and Dr. Ellice M. Alger, secretary, for the year 1919.

Dr. Adolph O. Pfingst, of Louisville, Ky., has determined to discontinue treatment of ear, nose and throat diseases on January 1, 1919, and confine his practice to ophthalmology.

Dr. McCluney Radcliffe, of Philadelphia, recently read a paper on "Diseases of the Eyes in General Practice" before the Dauphin County Medical Society, Harrisburg, Pa.

MILITARY NOTES.

A son of Dr. Alexander Duane of New York City was recently killed in action in France.

Lt. Col. Casey A. Wood, for over a year on the staff of the Surgeon General, Washington, D. C., has received an honorable discharge from the Army. He will spend the winter in California engaged in literary work, especially in editing the final volumes of the *American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology*.

Capt. W. E. Joiner, M. C., U. S. A., has been ordered to Base Hospital, Camp Fremont, Palo Alto, California.

Capt. Frank R. Spencer, M. C., U. S. A., is assigned to Hospital Unit 162, at present at Camp Lewis, Washington.

Dr. Thomas H. Curtin of New York sailed for army service abroad just before the signing of the armistice.

First Lt. John W. McCollon, M. C., U. S. A., assigned to Hospital Unit 162, at present at Camp Lewis, Washington.

Capt. Harry Vanderbilt Würdemann, M. C., U. S. A., appointed chief surgeon, eye department Base Hospital, Camp Lewis, Washington.

Lieut. Harry Boyd-Snee of South Bend has been promoted to the rank of Captain, and is located with the Base Hospital, Little Rock, Arkansas.

Dr. J. R. Sickler of Frankfort, Indiana, has been commissioned a captain in the Medical Corps and ordered to report at Camp Sevier, South Carolina.

Of the seven ophthalmologists of Jacksonville, Florida, three are still in the service. Major Norman N. Hegie was home for Christmas on a leave of absence.

Capt. W. R. Fringer of Rockford, Illinois, who has been stationed at Camp Joseph E. Johnston, Jacksonville, Florida, since August, received an honorable discharge December 10th and has resumed his home practice.

Lieut. Cowan of Philadelphia, formerly associated with the service of Dr. McCluney Radcliffe at Wills Eye Hospital, has been recently advanced to a captaincy, and is assisting Maj. Wiener at the School of Ophthalmology at Camp Oglethorpe.

Major Wm. T. Shoemaker, of Philadelphia, who went abroad as ophthalmic surgeon with the Pennsylvania Hospital unit, has recently been honored with the appointment of Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to all of the American Base Hospitals of England. It is expected that the promotion will advance Dr. Shoemaker to the grade of Lieut. Colonel.

The war fund for blinded soldiers and sailors founded by Mr. and Mrs. George A. Kassler of New York will supply the money needed to open an institute at Lille, for the blinded soldiers of northern France who wish to return near their homes in the territory recently evacuated by the enemy. This decision was taken on request of the French government.

Colonel Walter R. Parker has recently visited Philadelphia as the guest of the Ophthalmic Section of the College of Physicians, and gave its members a most interesting resumé of the work accomplished by the Division of Head Surgery of the U. S. Army. Col. Parker, as is well known, has been in charge of this division, and was permitted to visit Philadelphia by reason of a special dispensation of the Adjutant General of the Army. Following the presentation of Colonel Parker's paper, an informal supper was tendered him at the Union League by the acting president of the Section, Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler. Lieut. Col. George E. de Schweinitz was also present at the meeting of the Ophthalmic Section, and supplemented Col. Parker's paper by an interesting discussion of the important position the science of ophthalmology had been permitted to assume in the present war, as the outcome of the united efforts of a large staff of ophthalmologists now patriotically serving the country here and abroad.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Our San Francisco reporter says the flu is still raging but is beginning to ease up a little. He has seen some cases of acute glaucoma immediately following the influenza.

The Annales d'Oculistique announces that from January 1st, 1919, its subscription price will be raised from 25 to 30 francs per annum.

We are reminded by Dr. H. W. Hill of St. Paul that the masking of nose and mouth is not sufficient protection against the spraying of the influenza germ. He says germs that are coughed or fall into the eyes are carried directly into the nose by the lacrimal passages. Therefore it is highly necessary to protect the eyes against invasion.

Dr. W. S. Dodd, A. R. C., working at the Mejdel hospital unit, writes from Jerusalem at the American Red Cross: "The clinics numbered sixty to a hundred a day. Of course we had all classes of cases in medicine and general surgery, but by far the larger proportion of our patients were eye-cases.

"Of the 252 operations that I did in less than seven weeks, 222 were for the eyes. This is the number of persons operated on, most of them having more than one operation, perhaps on all four lids. so that I really operated on 408 eyes.

"There were some cataracts, not more than would be seen in the same number of cases elsewhere, but trachoma and its consequences account for almost all of the eye troubles in this land. I set out to treat these cases radically and secured fine results when I could keep the patients long enough for a reasonable after-treatment. But even so, the number of eyes that can be saved from partial and total blindness is large and the economic value of each eye thus saved is enough to make the prosecution of this line of work of the greatest importance for the redemption of the land."

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

DIAGNOSIS.

Alger, E. M. Ocular Malingering. New York State Jour. Med., v. 18, pp. 487-492.

Dufour, M., and **Gaudibert, J.** Ophthalmology and the Use of the Ophthalmoscope in Northern Africa. (2 ill.) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, pp. 473-477.

Franke. Roentgen Ray Diagnosis. Heidelberg Ophthalmological Congress, August 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, 1918, p. 352.

Grimm, K. Diagnosis and Logical Treatment of Eye Disturbances. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 144.

Koeppe, L. The Nernst Lamp and the Corneal Microscope. Graefe's Arch. f. Ophth., v. 97, pp. 198-270.

Examination of Eyes by Polarized Light of Nernst Lamp. Heidelberg Ophth. Congress, August 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 349-350.

Romunde. Ophthalmoscopy with Red-free Light. Nederl. Ophth. Soc., June, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 139.

Snellen, H. Visual Acuity as Measure of Function of Retina. Nederl. Ophth. Soc., June, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 141.

Vogt. Fundus in Red-free Light; Living Lens by the Slit Lamp (Spalt Lamp.) Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 350-351.

Wätzold. Difficult Questions for the Military Examiner. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918.

THERAPEUTICS.

Axenfeld. Intraocular Ray Therapy. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 353-354.

Berneaud, G. Milk Injections in Ocular Disease. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 303-323.

Nakamura, B. Study of Improved Collyria and Eye Washes. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Jan., 1918.

Nakamura and **Mukai.** Iodin Therapy in Ocular Diseases. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, April, May, June, 1918.

OPERATIONS.

Harman, N. B. New Eye Spud. (1 ill.) Lancet, Nov. 9, 1918, p. 632.

Taylor, S. J. Local Anesthesia in Ophthalmic Surgery. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 607-611.

REFRACTION.

Greeff. Indication of Cylindrical Axis. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Klin. M. F. Augenh., v. 61, p. 352.

Henker. Indication of Cylindrical Axis. Heidelberg Ophth., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 352.

Oblique Rays in Astigmatism. Zeit. f. Ophth. Optik., v. 6, pp. 75-88. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 366.

Landolt, E. Refraction of Eye. Arch. de Oft. Hisp.-Amer., v. 18, pp. 487-490.

Landwehr, J. H. Recognition of Anisometropia. (2 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 231-252.

Lindner. Skiascopy of Astigmatism. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5th, 1918.

Mitchell, L. J. C. Eyes and Ears of Soldiers in Egypt. Med. Jour., Australia, Nov. 2, 1918, p. 365.

Olsho, S. L. Properly Fitted Spectacles and Eye-glasses. Pa. Med. Jour., v. 22, pp. 140-145.

Pyle, W. L. New Instruments and Apparatus. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 1, p. 852.

Rosenhauch. Changes in Refraction After Eye Wounds. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 337.

Roy, J. N. Vision of Negroes in Africa. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, pp. 513-527.

Salzmann, M. Dioptrics and Anomalies of Refraction and Accommodation. (Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 39, pp. 322-336.

Watts, H. A. Necessity of a Cycloplegic in Refracting Myopes. Jour. Amer. Inst. Homeop., v. 11, p. 655-656.

Wätzold. War Experience with Myopia. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 336.

Weiss, E. Discs for Mounting Trial Lenses. Zeit. f. Ophth. Optik., v. 6, pp. 49-52. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 368.

Williams, E. R. Conservative Treatment of Asthenopia in Children. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 1, p. 860.

Wolff, H. Optics. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 39, pp. 336-351.

Zade. Aerial Spectacles. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918.

OCULAR MOVEMENTS.

Argañaraz, R. Nystagmography and Morphology of Nystagmus. Arch. de Oft. Hisp.-Amer., v. 18, pp. 469-486.

Bielschowsky. Bilateral Paralysis of Rotation; Treatment. Heidelberg Ophth.

Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 348.

Dernehl, P. H. Strabismus Convergens. Early Recognition and Treatment. Wisconsin Med. Jour., v. 17, pp. 271-279.

Duane, A. Diagnosis of Motor Anomalies of Eyes. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 1, pp. 861-862.

Le Pendu. Significance of Inclination of Head in Ocular Muscle Paralysis. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, pp. 508-512.

Marx, E. Fixation Under Different Conditions. Zeit. f. Psychol. u. Physiol. d. Sinnesorg., v. 47, pp. 79-96. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 362.

Marx, E., and Trendelenburg, W. Precision of Position in Fixation of Eye. Zeit. f. Psychol. u. Physiol. d. Sinnesorg., v. 45, pp. 87-102. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 363.

Repeated Titles. **Descomps, Enzière and Merle.** (v. 1, p. 620.) Jour. A. M. A., v. 71, p. 2027.

CONJUNCTIVA.

Bartels. Eye Diseases in Constantinople. (Dis.) Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 347-348.

Claussen. Trachoma as an Army Disease. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 347.

Herrenschwand v. Parinaud's Conjunctivitis. Heidelberg Ophth. Cong., Aug. 5, 1918. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, p. 355.

Israel, J. P. Emphysema of Conjunctiva and Sclera. U. S. Naval Med. Bull., July, 1918, p. 473.

Kono and Ohashi. Bacteria in Normal Conjunctiva of Japanese. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, April, 1918.

Nakamura, T. Cause of White Color of Trachoma Granules with Use of Various Salts. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, April, 1918.

Terson, A. Examination of Upper Conjunctiva. Paris Méd., v. 8, p. 186.

Watanabe. Plasma Cells, Russell's Bodies in Ocular Disease. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Jan.-Feb., 1918.

CORNEA AND SCLERA.

Dutheil. Pseudomembranous Pneumococcic Kerato-conjunctivitis with Purulent Keratitis. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, p. 528.

Epperstein, A. Traumatic Etiology of Herpes Cornea. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 323-324.

Fuchs, E. Zonular Corneal Opacity. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 10-14.

Fusiwara. Anatomy and Pathology of Keratomalacia. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Jan., 1918.

Giri, D. V. Ring Infiltration of Cornea in Purpura. (Bibl.) Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 611-624.

Holmes-Spicer, W. T. Changes in Cornea Following Inflammation. Roy. Soc. Med. Sec. on Ophth., Nov. 6, 1918. Abst. Lancet, Nov. 16, p. 670. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 56.

Imai. Etiology of Parenchymatous Keratitis. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Feb., March, 1918.

Katayama. Disciform Keratitis. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Feb., 1918.

Nakano. Snow Blindness. (3 ill.) Nippon Gank. Zasshi, April, 1918.

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FIG 1.
NORMAL FUNDUS.
(AFFOLTER.)

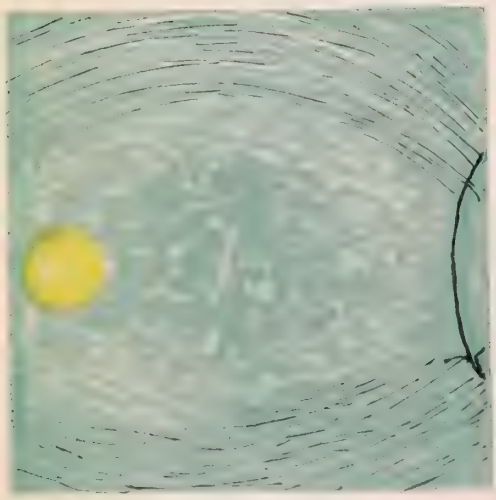


FIG. 2.—ATROPHY OF RETINA FROM RETRO BULBAR NEURITIS. (VOGT.)

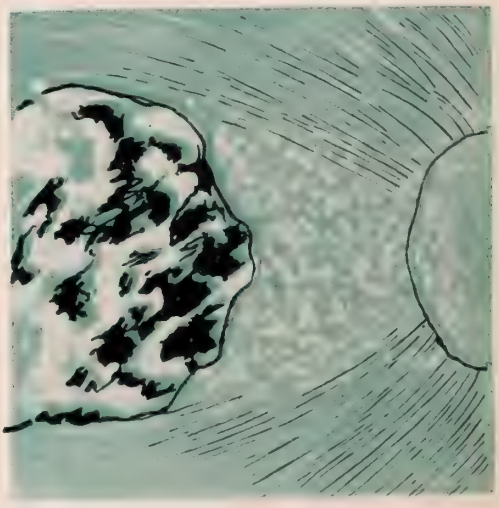


FIG. 3.—ATROPHY OF RETINA WITH MACULAR LESIONS. BLACK PIGMENTATION. (VOGT.)

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SCAR-TISSUE CONJUNCTIVITIS IN ANIMALS—ITS RELATION TO INSECTS AND TRACHOMA.

F. B. Eaton, M. D.

SAN FRANCISCO.

This is an account of a disease, hitherto little studied, affecting the conjunctiva in horses, dogs, and other animals probably transmitted by insects and from its resemblance to trachoma offering suggestive analogies with regard to etiology of the latter disease.

Probably few ophthalmologists in this country know that animals, especially horses, cattle and dogs, are subject to a follicular conjunctivitis which, clinically, presents all the essential features of trachoma; i. e., scar-tissue, entropion, trichiasis, pannus, and corneal ulceration and opacity.

On July 1st, 1918, the writer was appointed Acting Assistant Surgeon U. S. Public Health Service and ordered to verify, if possible, trustworthy information to the effect that following the importation of horses, in 1875, from Illinois into the Sierra Valley, California, and from Kentucky into the neighboring Washoe Valley, a severe epidemic of "granular" conjunctivitis with entropion, etc., affected the horses and cattle in those valleys, and that coincidently a species of biting fly appeared, which bit the caruncle of horses, cattle and old dogs. The information included the statement that up to 1845 the native "broncho" was the only horse on the Pacific Coast, and that no equine eye disease was known in the horse country of the Sierra valleys until the horses were brought in from Illinois and Kentucky.

Pursuant to instructions I went to Loyalton in Sierra Valley, the elevation of which is 5,000 feet, and interviewed horse-dealers and a well-educated and experienced veterinary surgeon. The statement that horses were brought into the valley from Illinois about 1875 was amply verified; also the species of fly, the appearance of which is peculiar. So far it has not been identified by entomologists; also, its habit of biting men and animals at the inner canthus, but not on the caruncle.

Later I visited the headquarters of the California State Board of Health for information as to where in the State trachoma is prevalent; especially trachoma possibly finding its source within the State. It was found that the only large groups of cases known are those among Indians, Mexicans and Armenians; also, that occasionally a single case is reported from some remote part of the State.

Next, I inspected the remount depot at Camp Fremont near Palo Alto. The ranking veterinary officer in charge informed me that none of the horses came from farther East than Montana; and that in making the eye test for glanders, no conjunctivitis except a transient one had been found among the 3,000 horses. He also stated that he was born and raised in central Illinois, where an equine "granular" (follicular) conjunctivitis is common, especially in August.

When severe, this conjunctivitis is followed, in some cases, by entropion. The people of that region attribute this conjunctivitis to a fly, the life period of which is about six weeks, and which attacks more especially the inner corners (canthi) of the horses' eyes. The

farmers protect the horses' eyes from the flies by leather fringes, etc. In Illinois he had seen cases of scar-tissue of the conjunctiva in horses, always with "granulations," and had seen the same in dogs.

The search for trachoma in localities where there is also granular scar-tissue in animals, in California, was not further pursued, since it is evident that there is comparatively very little of either disease at the present time in the State; and hence there is no opportunity to test the possible connection between the human and animal disease by interinoculation, examination of insects, etc.

My conclusions were:

1. There existed, years ago, in Sierra Valley and Nevada, a local epidemic of equine and bovine follicular conjunctivitis, with resulting entropion, and corneal opacity.

2. No facts were found satisfactorily establishing connection between that epidemic and the importation of horses from Illinois and Kentucky (tho it is possible), or that the fly described caused the conjunctivitis, either by biting or the transference of the secretion.

3. There are flies, probably species of Tabanidae (horseflies), in California and Illinois, which bite by preference, the eyelids of horses and human beings at the inner canthus. That any fly bites the eyeballs of either men or animals, is unproven.

4. Equine follicular conjunctivitis with scar-tissue and entropion exists in California, but is uncommon. It is more frequently seen in dogs.

5. Equine follicular conjunctivitis with scar-tissue is similar in appearance to that in trachoma, especially in central Illinois in Summer, and there are facts pointing to its origin there from biting flies which bite the eyelids of horses at the inner canthus.

6. Equine conjunctival scar-tissue is similar in appearance to that in trachoma, especially in the last stage, and it is the cause of animal entropion.

7. Single, isolated cases of trachoma, apparently sporadic, occur in California in individuals living in remote places, the origin of which it has not been possible to trace.

8. The prevalence of an equine follicular conjunctivitis with scar-tissue and entropion in Illinois, in view of the well-known prevalence of trachoma in that State, indicates a possible connection between the two diseases.

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS AND LITERATURE.

The existence of a source or sources of the trachoma virus in nature, other than contagion from person to person, is, by analogy of other diseases, reasonable; and seems a necessary postulate as regards its ultimate origin. Moreover, the endeavor to discover such a source would naturally precede and lead up to attempts to discover its microscopic character and biology. Scarcely any research has been attempted in this direction, except by the writer as recorded in two papers published in 1910.[1]

The difficulties are great; and the greatest of these are, of course, the insidiousness of the disease, and its contagiousness from person to person. Not only is the victim, and those about him, often unaware that he is afflicted until long after the disease is acquired, but he may have removed far from the environment where it was acquired. Again, if he resides in a locality where the disease is endemic, it is invariably assumed that his is a case of contagion from another victim. Even when a community free from the disease lives in contiguity to one afflicted, the immunity of the former has been ascribed either to non-intercourse of the two, or to a supposed racial immunity. Thus, in 1895, Dr. Foucher[2] of Montreal reported to the French Ophthalmological Society that he and six oculists:

"Have not observed a single case of trachoma among the Indians of Canada, . . . and meanwhile the savages live under conditions favorable otherwise to receptivity; insufficient nourishment, lazy and slovenly, syphilis, tuberculosis and eruptive affections decimate them. It is not the possibility of contagion that is wanting: In Manitoba the Crees and Santeux live side by

side with the Russian Mennonites in the same scorn of hygiene. The Mennonites are ravaged with trachoma and a great many of them are blind from this affection, while the Crees and Santeux remain secure."

For years this immunity was regarded as racial, but the evidence is now overwhelming that there is no racial immunity.

In 1913 Dr. W. H. Harrison, of the U. S. Indian Service, in an article on "The Existence and Prevalence of Trachoma Among the Indians of the Northern United States and Canada," stated:[3]

"I have found but one small band of Indians, numbering 346, wholly free from this malady, and these are a fragment of the great Chippewa tribe scattered along the north shore of Lake Superior. I am unable to account for the absolute immunity enjoyed, . . . when the members of the same tribe, living further inland, are so badly afflicted. The proximity of these people to Lake Superior with its opportunities for cleanliness, will not explain this difference, as all the bands of this tribe live on large lakes, and can, and do, enjoy the same opportunities for keeping clean, as those living along the shore of Lake Superior."

Later, in reply to a query of the writer, Dr. Harrison replied: "I am sure that these Chippewas (on Lake Superior), do not have the number of horses and cattle usually possessed by most Indians, because of the fact that for the past twenty or thirty years they have been engaged largely in the cutting of timber in the surroundings, as laborers for various lumber companies, and in carrying on their previous occupation as fishermen along the lake shore region."

Sulzer,[4] in his report to the French Ophthalmological Society, stated "The more we study the absence of trachoma in Switzerland, the less we comprehend it. Trachoma is not endemic in Switzerland. The Swiss inhabiting countries where trachoma is endemic are subject to acquire the malady. Returning to their native land they recover rapidly. We know of no epidemic of trachoma provoked by repatriated trachomatous persons. . . The principal factor in the immunity of Switzerland seems to be the elevation of the country above the level of the sea."

In those regions of the United States where trachoma has been endemic for many years among the native whites, such as southern Illinois, and portions of Kentucky, and West Virginia, we find in southern Illinois and eastern Kentucky, geographic features which, being favorable to certain insect life, seem to have a bearing on the prevalence of the disease in those regions.

A most valuable paper: "On the Prevalence of Trachoma in the State of Illinois," published by Dr. W. H. Wilder[5] in 1901, is suggestive, and was quoted by the writer in 1910. According to Wilder: "In the Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, as will be shown, most of the cases come from the rural population, and are of American birth. . . . For years it has been observed at the Infirmary that a great many of these cases come from the southern part of the State, and I have made tables showing the total number of cases from each county for a period of ten years, from 1891 to 1900 inclusive, and from these *have estimated the percentage of trachoma to population* on the basis of the census of 1900. The results are shown on the map, on which the lines (or bars) drawn to scale, represent the relative percentage in the different counties. . . . *It is clearly shown that the disease is much more prevalent in the lower part of the State between the Kaskaskia and Wabash rivers, and is not prevalent around the centers of population.*" (Italics mine.—E.)

In 1910, upon a map of the U. S. Geological Survey of Illinois, the writer added the lines or bars of Wilder's map representing the relative county percentages of trachoma.[6] Referring to this map, it is obvious that trachoma prevails *par excellence* in Clark, Jasper, Cumberland, Crawford, Lawrence, Wabash and White counties, all bordering the west bank of the Wabash river from north to south, and that in all this region there is a multitude of streams. Furthermore, on

reference to the legend of the map, it is seen that in these counties above all others, are many low, sandy, river and creek bottoms; while the central and northern parts of the State, on the contrary, are overlaid with drift, and the elevation is comparatively high.

In the highlands of Eastern Kentucky, where trachoma is believed to be more destructive and malignant than elsewhere in the world, the connection between the disease and the topography is as suggestive as in Southern Illinois; for the mountain inhabitants of Kentucky practically *live only along the beds of the many creeks* which, for instance, feed the middle and north forks of the Kentucky River. The map of the "Buckhorn Quadrangle" (U. S. Geological Survey), comprising parts of Breathitt and Perry counties, Kentucky, shows that in an area of about 186 square miles, except at a few central points, *there is not a single road that is not itself a creek-bed, and that all the homes are on these creek-beds.*

It is approximately the same in Lawrence and Johnson counties, but the feature becomes less in proportion as one goes northwest from the mountains. "These people," according to a brochure of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness ("Trachoma a Menace to America,," 1915), "live by themselves in little homes, rarely grouped so as to form even a small settlement, and almost completely cut off from the world at large. In the mountains, the creek-beds, which have known no shaping by the hands of men, are almost the only roads."

Now, these topographical features of "Little Egypt" and Eastern Kentucky furnish the typical breeding grounds of various species of the Tabinidae or horse-flies, which, entomologists tell us, breed in the water and wet soil, along and in precisely such sandy creeks and river bottoms. According to entomologists also, the adult Taband is a great water drinker, and can not live far from water, as it requires it for breeding and drinking.

VETERINARY LITERATURE.

In veterinary literature, follicular conjunctivitis in animals (horses, cattle and dogs), is a well-recognized disease, as well as its sequelae, scar-tissue, entropion, trichiasis, and corneal opacity and ulceration. By far the most complete descriptions are given by James Law,[7] who states that according to Fröhner 40 per cent of the race of dogs are attacked; and as occurring in horses, cattle and dogs: "It may extend over the sclerotic and palpebrae. Microscopically these swellings are found to be enlarged lymph follicles, with an excess of lymphoid cells. The disease tends to assume a chronic course and may cause entropion and other troublesome lesions. . . . In case they (follicles) prove obstinate, the conjunctiva may be cocainized and the follicles crushed with ciliary forceps. . . . In extreme cases Fröhner counsels the excision of the membrana nictitans."

Of entropion: "In the older animals it is largely determined . . . by old-standing disease of the conjunctiva and tarsus, with cicatricial contraction or adhesion. Trichiasis is usually, tho not always, present. In any case, the tarsus is turned inward so as to press upon the front of the bulb, or even to disappear entirely." The treatment, as in human entropion, includes strips of plaster, Gaillard's sutures, and plastic operations. Clinically, the above are pictures of what in human beings is called trachoma and its consequences. Veterinarians do not suspect trachoma, and give the disease other names.

In its last stages in horses, as described by veterinarians to the writer personally, the scar-tissue occupies the characteristic position seen in the human eyelids; i. e., near the edge of the lid and parallel thereto, the line of scar, as it were, forming the hinge of the entropion.

The pathologic identity of this animal scar-tissue conjunctivitis with trachoma can, of course, only be established by comparison of the diseased conjunctiva of men and animals in microscopic sections and stainings; more



THIS MAP OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS SHOWS THE GEOLOGICAL FORMATION AND VALLEYS OF STREAMS. THE HEAVY BLACK HORIZONTAL LINES INDICATE THE RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF TRACHOMA IN THE DIFFERENT COUNTIES OF THE STATE. SEE PAGE 83.

especially with plasma stains, by which the infection of follicles by trachoma virus is made certain. (Mayou.)[8]

RESUMÉ OF THE SUBJECT.

While it is certain that there exists a scar-tissue conjunctivitis in animals, which, clinically is analogous to trachoma, there are, as yet, no facts establishing a contagion thru the conjunctival discharge from animal to man, or *vice versa.* If it is transmitted, experience with other diseases argues the probability that the transference is thru the medium of a biting fly. The fact that the attempted inoculation of animals (including anthrapoid apes), with trachoma virus has been uniformly negative, does not invalidate the possibility of such inoculation, or *vice versa,* thru a *biting* fly, since the fly in biting, pierces to the capillaries, and hence this form of inoculation is an infection of the tissues, and not a contagion to a mucous surface.

If it could be accepted, the hypothesis that animals and certain species of horseflies (Tabanidae), *when both are present in a region where trachoma and animal scar-tissue conjunctivitis are endemic,* stand in etiologic relation to the human diseases, would harmonize a considerable number of observed facts; facts which, in the writer's opinion, render it at present, the most promising theory on which to base a systematic search for the *source* in nature, of the disease. The hypothesis, however, at this time rests upon fragments of evidence, which, significant in themselves, are not yet coördinated.

There are yet undetermined facts needed to fully correlate those which are already known. Some are conflicting. For instance, in Switzerland, where trachoma is not endemic and exists only as an imported, contagious disease, there is an abundant fauna of horseflies. On the other hand, according to Abadie, the Bedouin Arabs are free of trachoma in spite of their constant association with horses. Nevertheless, these facts, according to Dr. E. C. Van Dyke, professor of entomology, University of California, an authority on horseflies and a medical man of experience, do not militate against the agency of biting horseflies and horses, *when both are present,* in producing trachoma. For, as he points out, horseflies cannot exist in the waterless Arabian deserts, while in Switzerland there are comparatively few horses; (144,128 in 1911).

There are many species of horseflies; they are widely distributed, and species occur in all parts of the world, and especially in Southern Illinois and the mountains of Kentucky. Naturally, the species which bite by preference the eyelids of men and animals, are to be suspected; those mentioned in this paper as having this habit, are yet to be identified as to species. To do this requires the cordial coöperation of entomologists.

In stables and barnyards the housefly (*Musca domestica*), outnumbers immensely the biting stable-fly (*Stomoxys*). The ordinary observer does not distinguish between them. Around stables, the houseflies, when they swarm, often dung upon the back of the hands; and this feces may be carelessly carried to the face and eyes. That this might be a source of trachoma seems plausible, especially in view of the now known agency of insect feces in causing typhus, trench fever, etc. But, trachoma is distinctly a rural disease; whereas houseflies also swarm in city stables where horseflies are rare, and in cities trachoma exists only as a contagion from person to person.

In justice to himself, the writer should state that this theory of the agency of animals and biting flies in causing trachoma, was not, primarily, a theory to which he endeavored to find and fit facts. On the contrary, during an extensive ophthalmic practice of nearly thirty years in the Pacific Northwest, he consistently and faithfully recorded the occupation and residence and history of all patients, which he drew from all parts of Oregon, Washington and Idaho. On tabulating the cases of trachoma, the vast majority were found to be farmers, stock men and stablemen; the last predominating. He was unaware that in Hungary stables are popularly held to be a source of trachoma. Later followed the evidence that horseflies attack the eyelids of human beings, especially the eyelids of the trachomatous.

Infections become attenuated in passing for a long period thru many bodies, and it is claimed that especially in Philadelphia, trachoma there "is a most attenuated form of the disease";[9] while on the other hand, in Kentucky, where the disease, if anywhere, originates in some extrahuman source, Dr. J. A. Stucky has testified to its destructive malignancy.

In conclusion, the writer's main purpose in publishing this paper, is to appeal earnestly to his colleagues, especially those resident in regions where trachoma is endemic and prevalent, for coöperation in securing needed facts proving or disproving the theory. It needs besides, a cordial and intelligent coöperation between veterinarians, entomologists, bacteriologists, parasitologists, and the medical profession. As to coöperation, ophthalmologists, collectively, are most ignorant of animal ophthalmology. There has been no cooperation between them and veterinarians.

In seeking to solve the problem of the etiology of trachoma, to restrict investigation to a laboratory search for the microorganism, which, in the weighty opinion of E. Treacher Collins,[10] "is of utramicroscopic dimensions," while neglecting an equally diligent search for the *source,* is not only illogical, but also contrary to the spirit and experience of preventive medicine.

I have found veterinarians, entomologists, parasitologists, etc., always interested in the investigation, and glad to render assistance by information and suggestion. In this respect the writer gratefully acknowledges the help given by Prof. R. W. Doane, entomologist, and Prof. W. H. Manwaring, bacteriologist, of Stanford University; and also by Profs. E. R. De Ong and E. C. Van Dyke, entomologists, and Profs. Traub and Hayes, veterinary surgeons, of the University of California.

CONCLUSIONS.

1. The most promising regions for investigation of the source of trachoma are eastern Kentucky and southern Illinois.

2. In these regions, the relative proportion of animal scar-tissue conjunctivitis to trachoma should be compared with the proportion in regions where trachoma is neither endemic or prevalent.

3. Cordial coöperation between entomologists, veterinarians and physicians is absolutely necessary, in order to determine the agency or non-agency of biting and non-biting flies, their species and habits, in producing animal scar-tissue conjunctivitis and trachoma, and as carriers of these diseases.

4. The pathologic identity or non-identity of the animal conjunctivitis with trachoma should be determined by microscopic sections and plasma staining of the diseased animal conjunctica, and inoculation of the human conjunctiva with discharge from the diseased conjunctiva of animals. These should, if possible, be made.

6. The normal eyes of individuals bitten by flies (especially Tabanidae), in trachomatous localities, should be guarded from contagion and kept under observation to determine whether or not they develop trachoma.

7. Due consideration should be given to the statements of the people living in trachomatous regions as to the origin of trachoma (animals, insects, etc.), and they should be guardedly questioned.

8. The most essential factors in solving the problem are: publicity, energetic field research, and cordial cooperation between medical and scientific experts.

9. Caution is requisite in questioning laymen; their opinions and observations should first be elicited, and leading questions avoided as much as possible.

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THERMOTHERAPY OF CORNEAL ULCERS.

L. Weekers, M. D.

LIEGE, BELGIUM.

This paper, written by Professor Weekers while serving with the Belgian Army and unable to consult the literature of the subject, presents his method of producing sterilization of corneal ulcers and his experimental demonstrations of the possibility of effecting such sterilization without extending the destruction of corneal tissue.

During the war a large number of publications have been added to the literature of ophthalmology in America on the subject of thermotherapy of corneal ulcer. The most notable of these are by Prince,[1] Shahan,[2] John Greene, Jr.,[3] and Young.[4] I have, unfortunately, not had abstracts of any of these papers.

Before the war in different publications[5] I recorded clinical observations and experimental researches on the subject of thermotherapy of corneal ulcers and its prognosis. I simply propose here to review the work done before the war for the readers of the American Journal of Ophthalmology. In 1910 I published my first observations on the use of the galvanocautery for progressive corneal ulcer when local treatment proved insufficient. Since then thermotherapy has rapidly taken the place of cauterization, especially in Germany,[6] and tends more and more to replace it.

In my former publications I insisted on the principle of this new method of using heat in the treatment of serpent ulcer of the cornea in the following terms:

The cultures of the pneumococci are sterilized in 24 hours at a temperature of 42° C. (108 F.); in ten minutes at 56° C. (138 F.); and instantly at from 65 to 70° C. (149 to 158 F.). In the same way the cultures of the Morax-Axenfeld bacillus are killed in five minutes at a temperature of 56 C. (131 F.). Without reaching a temperature which kills the microbes immediately can we not with heat destroy their virulence and sterilize the ulcer without, by this method, destroying the corneal tissue? This is the principle of functional sterilization and Pasteurization, and it is used in bacteriology to prepare a culture media with a serum base. A medium rich in albumin cannot stand a temperature of boiling without being notably altered and losing its characteristics. In this method of "chauffage" we replace the rapid action of a high temperature by the prolonged or repeated action of a temperature less elevated.

Heat has been used in the sterilization of wounds[7] and in the treatment of simple chancre for a long time, Aubert being the first to note the excellent effect of prolonged heat on soft chancre; submitting the lesions to a prolonged elevation of temperature maintained during 12 to 18 hours reaching a maximum of 40° C. (104 F.), resulting in prompt cure. This elevation of temperature seemed manifestly to diminish the virulence and to cause the disappearance of the streptobacilli of Ducrey. Unfortunately this method, difficult of application, is not without danger. In spite of the application of cold compresses to the head the temperature of the patient reached

an elevation of 39.5° C. (103 F.). Therefore there was soon substituted for the above method the simple elevation of local temperature, the heating of the chancroid by local baths of steam and hot air.

One can resort to various processes in making applications of heat to a lesion as superficial and accessible as ulcer of the cornea. In my first attempt ten years ago I had recourse to the galvanocautery, and when the war began I was seeking to find the best application for the electrocautery and bring to perfection this method of "chauffage." The war has completely interrupted my experiments. My plan of procedure was as follows: By means of a rheostat the platinum filament of the cautery was carried to different degrees of incandescence from a dark red to a clear white. I have used an even, moderate heat of incandescence, which is easy to exactly determine, by holding the loop of the cautery during one minute close to the bulb of the thermometer without touching it. The thermometer under this condition registers more than 50° C. (122 F.). This temperature is less than the local temperature of the point heated, because of the extent of the cooling surface as compared with the extent of the surface heated. With a little practice one knows by the color of the platinum wire the degree of incandescence needed to obtain a sufficient heating.

The eye having been previously anesthetized the lids are held open, the cautery is moved slowly over the entire surface of the ulcer, as near it as possible, taking care not to touch the cornea, and paying particular attention to the progressive margin of the ulcer. In general the chauffage of the ulcer is continued for one minute. Under the influence of the heat the moist surface of the ulcer is subject to rapid evaporation, and drying is produced, so that it is convenient to interrupt the process and moisten the cornea with a physiologic salt solution before resuming the application of heat.

At one sitting such an application of heat is repeated two or three times, according to the gravity of the condition. In my earlier experiences I prolonged the application more than one minute. Further experience has shown that more prolonged and repeated applications are unnecessary. The single application is usually sufficient. It is very exceptional to have to repeat such intervention; and there is little reason to fear further progress of the ulcer.

The clinical results of such thermotherapy are quite favorable. In 1908 in the Eye Clinic at the University of Liége we secured the healing of all cases of progressive ulcer of the cornea by chauffage without cauterization. The efficacy of such heat is remarkable. When the microbes have attained virulence the chauffage cuts short the progress of the serpent ulcer, which cleans itself; and at the same time the hypopyon disappears. The influence of the treatment on the subjective symptoms is very evident. Immediately after chauffage the patient's pain is relieved and the amelioration continues. After cauterization, however, it is not rare to observe violent pain during several hours. For relief of this Vasek[8] administers a narcotic (sulfonal and morphin). After chauffage cure is more rapid than after cauterization. The reason for this is that by the former method the damage to the cornea is reduced to a minimum; whereas with cauterization the condition is aggravated. With the anesthesia and heat of the latter the cornea is rendered more opaque, and interferes more with vision. On the other hand chauffage saves the corneal tissue adjacent to the ulcer, making it possible to obtain a better result with the cicatricial cornea from a subsequent iridectomy.

We cannot attach great importance to statistics regarding the effects of thermotherapeutics in this condition, because the functional result in each case varies, not only with the treatment, but also with the site of the ulcer, the stage at which it was seen, etc. Different cases cannot be compared with regard to the efficacy of this treatment. But in spite of these reserves the statistics of the 47 cases of pneumococcus and diplobacillus ulcers that I have published before the

war are very favorable to the continuance of this method. The following are my results with regard to visual acuity:

	Cases
Loss of eye	0
Good projection	1
Hand movements	1
Counting fingers	15
5/60	13
5/36	10
5/18	4
5/12	2
5/9	1
	—
	47

Vasek published the following table of 66 cases of corneal ulcer treated with cauterization:

	Cases
Loss of eye	1
Projection uncertain	2
Good projection	6
Movements of hand	16
Movements of fingers	30
5/50	3
5/30	5
5/20	1
5/10	1
5/6	1
	—
	66

The chauffage of corneal ulcers is an intervention less violent than cauterization.[9] From this point of view the experiments I have made on animals

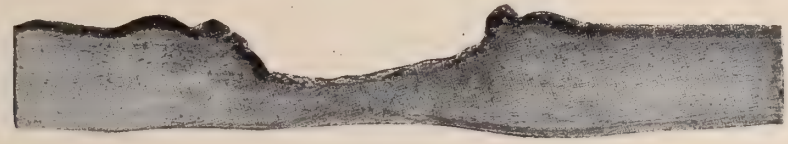


Fig. 1. Effect of cauterizing the cornea for superficial ulcer. Eye immediately enucleated. (Weekers.)

are very instructive. Fig. 1 shows the eye of a rabbit enucleated immediately after cauterization of a superficial ulcer. At the point of cauterization is observed complete destruction of the tissue of the cornea, which is considerably thinned at that portion. All parts of the cornea which have been touched by the cautery are destroyed. The cauterization also extends to a certain distance beyond the loss of substance. To this limit the superficial epithelium is altered and necrosed, and the corneal layers become edematous.

This destructive action of the cauterization explains that such intervention in corneal ulcer, which has already reduced the solidity and resistance of the cornea, may produce perforation, or favor it during cicatrization.

Fig. 2 shows a rabbit's cornea cauterized as in Fig. 1, and enucleated ten

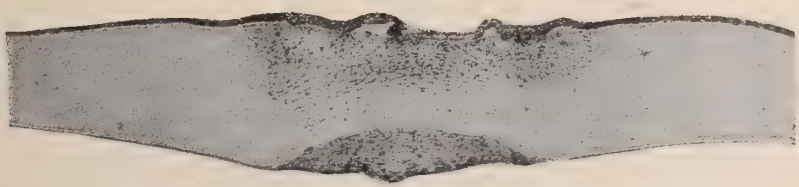


Fig. 2. Effect of cautery applied to superficial ulcer ten days after application.

days later. The cornea shows dense opacity at the point of cauterization. In experiments of this kind, as Ranvier has shown, the loss of substance is rapidly replaced, largely by the abundant proliferation of the anterior epi-

thelium of the cornea. Proliferation of the true corneal cells occurs also, causing the subepithelial infiltration reproduced in Fig. 2. Also there is seen immediately under the membrane of Descemet a mass of dense cicatricial tissue, due to proliferation of the endothelium of the posterior surface of the cornea, provoked by cauterization. This thickening of the deep cellular layer of the cornea is observed very constantly, tho not always so marked, and plays an important part in the opacification of the cornea following cauterization.

The thinning and proliferation of the cornea from cauterization as found at the end of three months, are illustrated in Fig. 3. The epithelium of the anterior surface is thickened, and also the endothelium of the posterior surface, but the thickness of these layers contributes little to the solidity of the cornea; while the thinning of the corneal parenchyma predisposes to subsequent perforation or staphyloma, and the thinned corneal parenchyma remains infiltrated and permanently opaque.

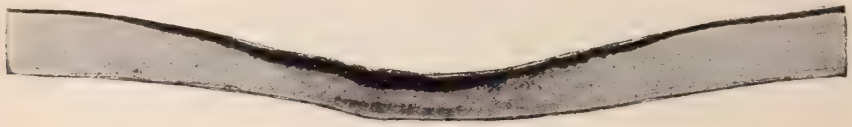


Fig. 3. Effect of cauterizing the cornea as seen at the end of three months.

The lesions produced in the cornea by chauffage, using a temperature sufficient to sterilize the ulcer and check its progress, are much more superficial than those provoked by cauterization. Fig. 4 shows the cornea of a rabbit subjected to chauffage by means of the galvanocautery for three periods of one minute each at short intervals; the eye having been enucleated immediately afterward. The lesions are simply an epithelial swelling, and a slight edema of the layers of the corneal parenchyma immediately beneath. In most of the preparations the corneal parenchyma at the point of heating is exposed by loss of the epithelium.

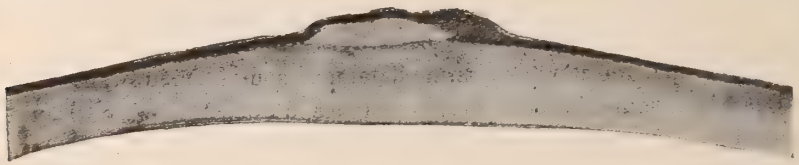


Fig. 4. Immediate effect of applying "chauffage" without cauterization.

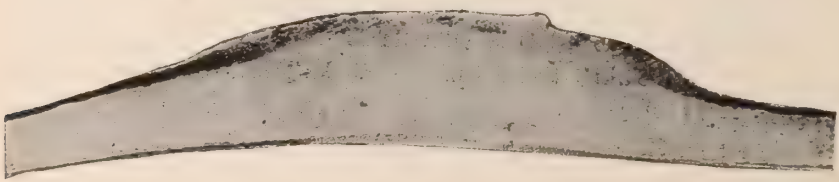


Fig. 5. Effect of "chauffage" three hours after its application.

The difference between these slight lesions and the destruction caused by cauterization (see Fig. 1), is remarkable. Here no true corneal tissue is destroyed, the parenchyma preserves

completely its thickness and strength. But for this a certain temperature must not be exceeded. When the heating is too intense or too often repeated, as I have noted in numerous experiments, it causes a very profound destruction of the cornea.

Figure 5 shows in a cornea three hours after chauffage the same conditions as in Fig. 4. The epithelium by proliferation tends to replace the portion lost. The corneal parenchyma is not the seat of any lesion except an edema, sufficiently marked to increase considerably the thickness of the cornea at this point.

When one heats the cornea of the rabbit, with the technic that I have described for the treatment of corneal ulcers, one observes at the point heated the production of a slight opacity, which thins out slowly and perhaps disappears completely. More often it persists under the form of a faint nebula, which is shown by section to be due to slight thickening of the anterior epithelium and a moderate infiltration of the subjacent layers.

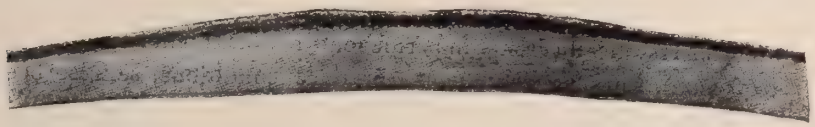


Fig. 6. Ultimate restoration of cornea almost complete after "chauffage." ((Weekers.)

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BITEMPORAL HEMIANOPSIA DUE TO ACUTE SUPPURATION OF THE POSTERIOR NASAL SINUSES.

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This is the report of a case of this rare form of hemianopsia confirmed by a partial recovery after operation; and a review of current errors regarding the relation of the optic chiasm to the sinuses.

Bitemporal hemianopsia due to sinuitis is, considering the vast amount of literature published in recent years on ocular complications in nasal accessory sinus disease, an extremely rare occurrence.

There are but four such reports in all ophthalmic literature. Hirschman[1] mentions in a discussion that he has seen sinuitis cause bitemporal hemianopsia, while Wallis[2] and Evans[3] have both studied cases which were proven by operative results to be due to disease of the postnasal sinuses.

Levitzky[17] at a meeting in Odessa in 1908 demonstrated a case due to tuberculosis of the sphenoid.

Unilateral temporal hemianopsia due to the same cause has been observed by Gröholm,[4] Evans, Krauss,[5] and Fuchs.[6]

In a collection of 315 cases of bitemporal hemianopsia made by Bogatsch[16] in 1912, but one was considered due to postnasal sinus disease.

CASE.

2-16-17.—Mr. McG., 26 years old, married, three children, denies venereal infection. Has had what he called the grippe for two weeks; rather severe general headaches for three days; pain worse in morning and increased on moving head or turning eyes to left or to right. Patient says any exertion makes it worse. Some sensitiveness to light for the last 24 hours.

Ocular Examination.—Suggestion of swelling in both upper lids. Very slight injection of bulbar conjunctiva and considerable tenderness to pressure on left eyeball. V.—R. 20/30, L. 20/60. Muscular balance normal at a distance and near point. Right fundus normal, left disc slightly hyperemic. Veins somewhat enlarged. Questionable enlargement of blind spots. No central scotoma.

2-17-17.—Headaches still quite severe, especially on getting up in the morning. V. = R. 20/30, —.75 sph. = 20/20. L. 20/120 with—1.00 sph. 20/20. Right eye, fundus normal and fields normal. Left eye, disc blurred and swollen with retinal veins much increased in size. With a Peter's compimeter there is a slight enlargement of the blind spot to the temporal side and above. Peripheral field normal for white. Slight contraction of color field. No central scotoma. Pupil slightly dilated and reacts sluggishly to light.

Rhinologic Examination.—Septum markedly deviated to the left and touching middle turbinate. Posterior ends of both lower turbinates considerably enlarged, no pus or increased secretion noted on either side. Suction apparatus applied to both nostrils. No pus seen after treatment.

Patient examined by Dr. George Derby, Boston, on February 19th, who reported the following: V. = R. —1.0 sp. = 6/6. L. —1.0 sp. = 2/60. Right eye, field normal. Left, has an absolute central scotoma for white and colors, more marked and larger for green and red than for blue. Affects green over at least 10°. Red 10° below and 5° above fixation. Blue at least 5° below and 3° to 4° above.

One-fourth mm. object on Haitz chart.

Right nerve looks slightly fuzzy and vessels somewhat engorged. Looks like beginning slight swelling. Left 2 D. swelling with blurred outlines and large tortuous vessels. An unmistakable optic neuritis. No exophthalmos; but eyes, especially the left, very tender on movement, especially so on pressure. Dr. Derby advised X-ray and thought that nasal operation might be necessary.

Feb. 20th.—X-Ray plates made by Dr. Charles Burgess. No involvement of sinuses shown on plates. V. = R. 15/200.

V. L. Fingers at 6 feet. Right eye, disc swollen and very much blurred. Vessels injected and tortuous and impossible to take field. No color perception in either eye.

Feb. 22, 1917.—V R. = 6/200. L. = fingers at 3 feet. During the following week there was practically no difference in the appearance or vision in either eye, the patient being able to count fingers at only two feet. Operation had been advised but patient preferred treatment for the time being.

Suction, applied to each nostril, was used daily; and a slight amount of pus was seen in the left middle meatus and

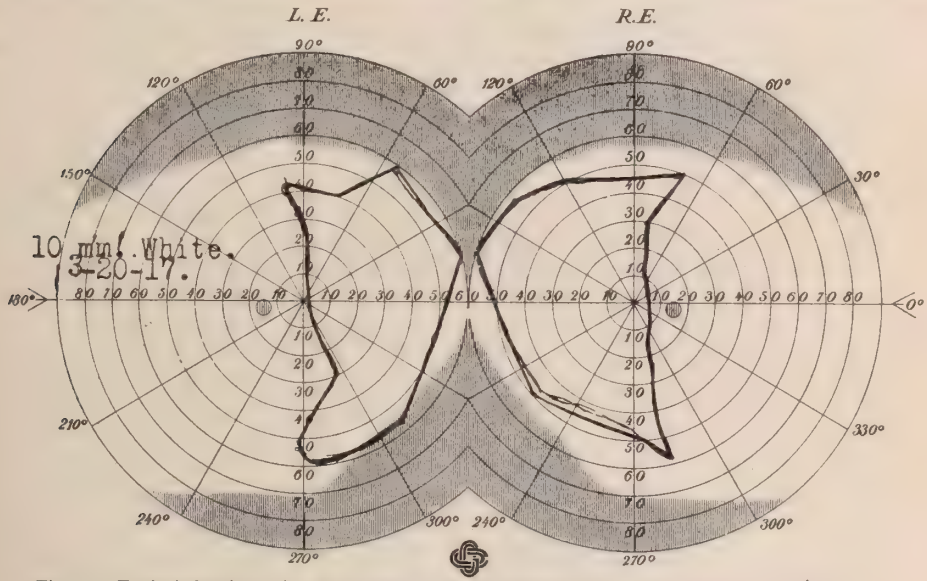


Fig. 1. Typical hemianopsia twenty days after operation upon the sinuses. (Conlon's case.)

could be seen postnasally after a treatment. The pain had now disappeared. Pupils were fully dilated and reacted feebly to intense illumination.

No limitations of ocular movements were at any time noted.

The patient was operated on by Dr. E. P. Emerson of Boston, on the first day of March, who did a submucous resection of the septum and an exenteration of both posterior ethmoids and sphenoids. An acute inflammation was found in both cells on each side.

The day following the operation the patient said he could see a white mist instead of the black one and could just make out the front of his bed, which appeared broken off in the middle. He now improved rapidly, so that on March 13th vision was 20/100 in each eye.

On March 20th, 1917, the fields were taken and the patient had a typical bitemporal hemianopsia with the dividing lines running nearly vertical, as will be seen on the chart. Fig. 1.

March 24th, 1917, Dr. Emerson removed a polyp from the region of the right ethmoid.

The fields remained unchanged until March 29th, when there was a noticeable improvement. Field increasing above and below. See figures 2 and 3.

The next few days the improvement was very rapid, so that on April 2nd the field for white was normal except for a large scotoma in each eye in the region of the blind spot. See figures 4 and 5. Color perception was lost absolutely for the following six or seven months, when there began a slow improvement. Recently the primary colors have been quite readily recognized but there is still a difficulty in matching shades, which has been the source of considerable embarrassment to the patient, who is engaged in the dry goods business.

11-19-18.—V., R. = 20/30 —.75 sph. = 20/15. L. 20/60 —1.00 sph. =20/20.

Both discs are greyish white. The pallor, however, is much more marked on the temporal halves. Fields tested with 5 mm. object show a concentric contraction of the form fields to roughly 40° in all meridians, the color fields showing corresponding narrowing with green within 5° of the fixation point.

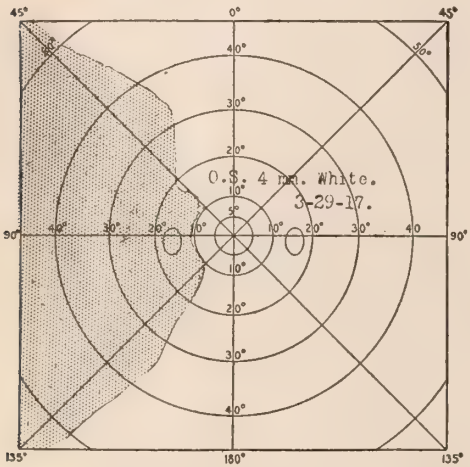


Fig. 2. Field of left eye nine days after Fig. 1.

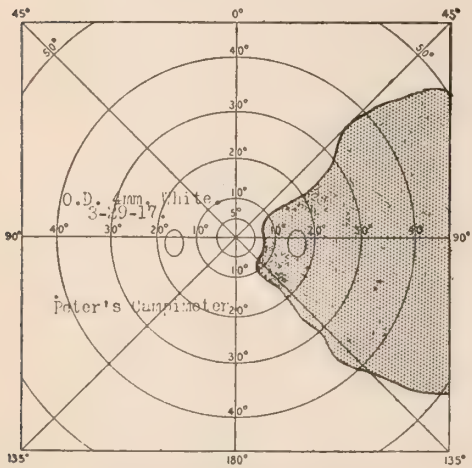


Fig. 3. Field of right eye nine days after Fig. 1.

There is still a slight enlargement of the blind spot, each one measuring about 10° in the horizontal diameter.

ANATOMY OF PARTS.

When we consider the extreme thinness of the bony wall separating the sphenoid from the optic canal, 38 per cent of which are extremely thin, measuring at times only ¼ mm., as has been shown by Francis and Gibson[7] in their careful examination of one hundred specimens; the unilateral or bilateral contraction of the temporal fields is quite easily understood as the fibers going to the nasal side of

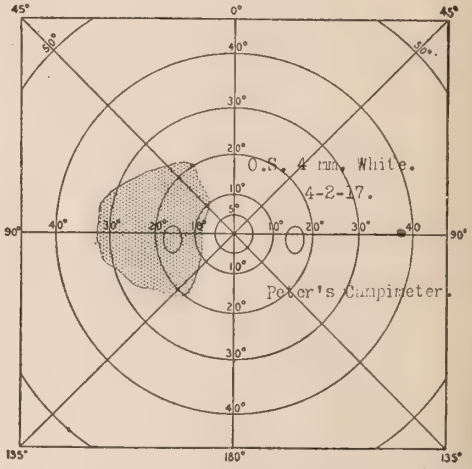


Fig. 4. Field of left eye four days after Fig. 2.

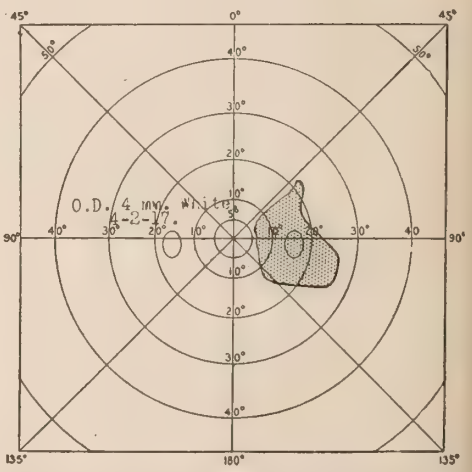


Fig. 5. Field of right eye four days after Fig. 3.

the retina are in contact with the lateral wall of the sphenoidal sinus while in the optic canal.

Onodi's[8] publications show that it is perfectly possible for a single sphenoid cavity to contain both optic nerves. So may it not be possible, and probable,

that a large number of the cases of neuritis and retrobulbar neuritis said to be due to influenza, measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and exposure to cold are due to sinuitis caused by the above mentioned diseases?

A well defined bitemporal hemianopsia, with the dividing lines running vertically thru or near the fixation point, is only to be explained by a lesion of the chiasm. The development of this condition is not so easily explained as it may appear at the first glance.

"The commissure or chiasm rests upon the optic groove of the sphenoid bone, being bounded, above, by the lamina cinerea; behind by the tuber cinereum and on either side by the anterior perforated space."

This expresses the general conception of its position, which is so stated in all the text books I have consulted, and brings to mind a remark frequently made by the late Prof. Dwight, who lectured on anatomy in Harvard Medical School. After the class had very industriously taken notes for twenty or thirty minutes he would suddenly bellow "That's what the books say, but it's not so at all; it's not so at all."

To begin with, the optic groove is not wide enough to hold the optic chiasm. Zander[10] found the groove to measure on an average 6 mm. anteroposteriorly while Lawrence[11] found a well developed one to measure 5 mm., and the chiasm was given by Zander as measuring 8.08 mm. and by Lawrence never less than 7 mm.

In fact the former investigator found no optic groove at all in 66 of the 100 skulls he examined, and never saw the chiasm as far forward as the optic groove, but found it lying from 4.75 mm. to 17 mm. posterior to it. The average distance was 16.34 mm. while the posterior edge projected on an average of 1.58 mm. behind the dorsum sellae.

Traquair[12-13-14] has repeatedly drawn attention to the true position of the chiasm and says that the usual description is completely imaginary, and not based in actual observation; and that if the chiasm with the apex of the third ventricle be left in situ after removal of the rest of the brain and viewed from above, a wedge-shaped portion of the diaphragma sellae, extending backwards to the extent of a third or a half, or even more of its antero-posterior diameter, will usually be seen in the angle between the optic nerves and frequently also a portion of the foramen diaphragmatis.

Bogoiavlensky[15] operating by the frontal route says that after lifting up the frontal lobe he saw in front of the optic chiasm a tumor occupying the entire space between the optic nerves. This would be manifestly impossible if the usual statement of its position were correct.

Here then is another case where the exception proves the rule, and I have been able to find among the numerous publications of Onodi one plate showing the relationship as it must exist in my case. Loeb[9] has given us another. In both the left sphenoid sinus is seen in close contact with the chiasm and occupying the entire space between the optic nerves.

As we have shown this close relationship of the sphenoid sinus to the optic chiasm to be the rare exception, rather than the usual arrangement, we can now explain the possibility of its occurrence and at the same time understand the comparative immunity of the chiasm to retrobulbar neuritis so commonly associated with postnasal suppuration.

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MONOCULAR RETROBULBAR OPTIC NEURITIS FROM HYPERPLASIA OF THE ETHMOID BONE. REPORT OF THREE CASES WITH OPERATION.

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This paper by review of the pathology of the parts and the report of three cases emphasizes the connection of monocular optic neuritis and ethmoidal disease, and makes a plea for immediate operation in such cases. Read before the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-laryngology, August 6th, 1918.

Hyperplasia is defined as an increase of the fibrous connective tissue elements of living anatomic structures, due to a low grade of localized inflammation. Delafield and Prudden[1] state "it is associated with long continued hyperemia or chronic congestion of the organ involved." Hyperplasia is a nonsuppurative process. Skillern[2] has demonstrated by means of many beautiful slides the microscopic difference between hyperplastic and suppurative ethmoiditis, before the American Laryngological, Rhinological and Otological Society. Beck[3] has also shown slides prepared from hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone.

Welsh[4] noticed "that the connective tissue stroma of an ethmoid specimen was thickened by fibrous tissue production and acute inflammatory products, and that there was thrombosis of many small veins." Shambaugh[5] recognizes the chronic ethmoiditis which is "primarily a nonsuppurative disease, but with impaired drainage of the cells due to hypertrophy of the mucous membrane of the cell walls." He calls the process hypertrophy, but hyperplasia seems to be the better term. Hypertrophy is defined by Delafield and Prudden[6] as "a simple increase of the *size* of the elementary structures of a part, usually associated with increased function of that part, while hyperplasia is an increase of the *number* of the elementary parts."

Hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone is a rarefying osteitis associated with inflammatory swelling and fibrous thickening of the mucous membrane lining its cavities, causing edematous tissue to fill them without the formation of pus. Its limiting wall (called the capsule), is also thickened and the entire organ is enlarged so that the orbital wall is involved as well as the nasal.

Owing to the fact that the middle turbinated bone is attached to the body of the ethmoid by a very narrow strip, this hyperplasia may be and usually is confined largely or entirely to the structure of the ethmoid proper; and rarely extends across the isthmus of bone to involve the middle turbinate itself. Because of this fact it is usually impossible to diagnose hyperplasia of the ethmoid by simple inspection.

Hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone is of itself a comparatively trivial disease. The nasal symptoms are not particularly distressing, for in spite of the sneezing followed by the watery discharge, transitory impairment of nasal

respiration and the paroxysmal reflex cough, the patient is not greatly annoyed. He may complain of being sensitive to drafts and subject to head colds, and also of being kept awake some at nights by having one side of his nose stopped up, requiring him to turn over on the other side. There is no pain, no purulent discharge and no impairment of the sense of smell.

Owing to the location and structure of the ethmoid bone and the truly remarkable variation in the size and arrangement of its pneumatic spaces, and also the fact that the optic foramen lies in many instances in juxtaposition to its large posterior cell (indeed may traverse it), hyperplastic inflammation may here assume an important role and produce blindness by causing retrobulbar optic neuritis.

The object of this paper is to establish clearly the relation between hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone and acute retrobulbar optic neuritis and to point out the importance of early diagnosis and early operation.

The ocular symptoms of inflammation of that part of the optic nerve which traverses the optic foramen (or what is better termed "the optic canal," for it averages 15 mm. in length), are definite and easily recognized. The patient complains of foggy vision affecting one eye, which rather rapidly becomes worse, so that in a few days he may be entirely blind in the eye. There is usually slight pain on directing his eye to the limit of motion; and a slight pain or uneasiness referred to the temple on that side and back of the eyeball. The one symptom which impels him to seek the ophthalmologist is the very positive and annoying loss of vision affecting one eye and the fear of blindness. There are no nasal symptoms and hence the rhinologist will not be sought.

In the fulminating type of the disease there will appear sudden severe pain, involving all the branches of the fifth nerve, particularly the filaments of the first division; and with it will occur blurred vision which *in a few hours progresses to total blindness of the affected eye.*

The objective findings which establish the diagnosis are of two kinds, positive and negative.

The positive findings are:

(a) Monocular blindness.

(b) Sluggish response of pupil to direct test.

(c) Dull pain on deep pressure.

(a) Monocular blindness: When there is vision present it is always eccentric. The periphery may still be normal with a very large total scotoma occupying the central area, as shown by the accompanying field charts of my cases. The scotoma is probably relative before it becomes positive; so that if the case appears early enough we would find a partial scotoma for colors in the center, with enlargement of the blind spot. When the patient comes later, as is usually the case, the blind spot is included in the scotoma.

(b) Sluggishly reacting pupil in the affected eye: This slow reaction of the pupil is present to the direct test and not to the indirect or associated tests. The pupils are usually of equal size, because the pathway of the third nerve down from the sphincter nucleus of the brain to the iris is not involved, and the light impulse in the unaffected eye causes an equal efferent response in both pupils. The pupillomotor fibers of the optic nerve in the affected eye are inhibited in function by the disease present in the optic nerve at the apex of the orbit; and hence tardily convey the light impulse upward to the brain, or not at all, as the case may be.

(c) Slight tenderness referred to the apex of the orbit when making pressure against the eyeball thru the closed eyelids: This symptom is not always present.

The negative findings are quite important for they assist greatly in establishing a diagnosis. They must be studied in relation to the positive. They are:

(a) Normal disc and fundus.

(b) Normal middle turbinate.

(a) Normal appearing optic disc and fundus in the eye affected with central scotoma or blindness is very characteristic of this disease. Later on, usually

after a month following the onset of the trouble, there will appear beginning atrophy of the optic disk. This atrophy progresses in proportion to the severity of the retrobulbar neuritis that preceded it and may be complete. Usually it is partial. A careful study of its extent will reveal that it involves the temporal side of the disc representing a wedge or a sector of from one-fourth to two-thirds of that side of the disc; and is a white atrophy with clearly cut disc margin; in other words, a typical primary descending atrophy. A small sector of the disc on the nasal side may still retain a degree of pinkness.

(b) Normal appearing middle turbinate body with no discharge present in the nose: The turbinate is usually not visibly enlarged nor is it discolored. It is not usually impacted against the septum, and there appears ample breathing space and normal nasal function. If, however, the body of the middle turbinate be shrunken, with cocain and adrenalin, one may find the evidence of hyperplasia of the ethmoid proper by observing small polypi hidden under it.

The differential diagnosis includes toxic amblyopia, congenital amblyopia, malingering, hysterical blindness of one eye, monocular optic neuritis from systemic infections and monocular blindness from fracture at the base.

In toxic amblyopia the history of inordinate use of alcohol and tobacco is usually easily determined or the taking of wood alcohol, large doses of quinin, etc., is admitted. Toxic amblyopia is much slower in its course than amblyopia due to ethmoid disease; moreover it is almost invariably expressed in both eyes, altho with different degrees of severity.

In congenital amblyopia affecting one eye the differential diagnosis is easily made, if the patient has been aware of affected vision in one eye for a long period of time. Occasionally such patients discover the amblyopia by accident only a short time before consulting the ophthalmologist, or the latter may discover it for the first time during the process of examination of the patient's sight. The cases of congenital amblyopia will show no central scotoma even by use of the 3 mm. disc. His fields of vision for white and colors will be normal in periphery and center. Congenital amblyopia is stationary and presents no sign of atrophy at any time, while the disease under discussion is never stationary and the disc eventually shows distinct atrophy.

Malingering blindness of one eye will be discovered by an astute ophthalmologist who knows how to conduct the proper tests and uses them.

Hysterical blindness in one eye is either partial or complete; if partial the field of vision is usually typically contracted with no evidence of central scotoma. If total the tests applied for detection of malingering blindness will suffice.

Monocular optic neuritis from system infection or disease, is diagnosed by the absence of central scotoma and the history of such infection, e. g., measles, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, etc. In some cases the optic neuritis and neuroretinitis are discovered to be due to albuminuria or diabetes, which may produce the same picture as infections. The optic neuritis due to local infections from showers of germs thrown into the circulation from a suppurative focus in the body as from diseased tonsils, diseased bone as at the apices of the teeth, etc., is differentiated also by the absence of central scotoma or rapidly progressing blindness and by the presence of a frank neuroretinitis.

It is sometimes difficult to locate the origin of these infections. One of the cases reported in this paper had an acute empyema of the ethmoid cells which produced no nasal symptoms worthy of note and which was discovered at the time of the operation. An able X-rayist must be engaged to make careful plates and submit them along with his interpretation. Other types of optic neuritis such as occur in brain tumor with increased cerebral pressure or from pituitary disease or meningitis, etc., need not be dwelt on here.

The type of optic nerve lesion which most nearly simulates that due to hyperplasia of the ethmoid is the trau-

matic, where there was a fracture of the base involving the bony structure at or near the apex of the orbit. I have seen recently a case where the X-ray showed a line of fracture involving the roof of the orbit running back to the bony apex, due to a fall into an excavated pit, the patient striking the right temple on a block of cement. There was total blindness of the right eye. Normal optic disc and retina were observed ten days after the accident. Signs of atrophy appeared on the twenty-first day and total atrophy on the twenty-eighth day, the eye remaining blind. In this case there was not the slightest sign of optic neuritis as seen with the ophthalmoscope. The atrophy was descending and primary, evidently due to compression from hemorrhage or swelling at the optic foramen, and was, practically speaking, the same kind of atrophy as seen in two of my cases due to hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone, which are reported in this paper later on.

Since hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone is a very common affection why is it that retrobulbar optic neuritis and consequent monocular blindness are so infrequent? The answer must be found in the aberrant anatomic arrangement of the posterior ethmoid cells, in relation to the optic nerve in the affected cases and not in others. Loeb and others have shown by wet specimens that the optic canal occasionally lies so close to the posterior ethmoid cells as to have a common wall between them; and that, too, of the thinness of paper. Indeed the optic nerve may traverse the posterior ethmoid cell and lie free in it for the distance of 12 to 15 mm.

The posterior ethmoid cavity of one side may be so large as to extend across to the opposite side and lie in relation to both optic nerves, which is also true of one of the sphenoid cells in other cases. The posterior cavity of the ethmoid is found more frequently in relation to the optic canal than is the sphenoid, altho it is true that the sphenoid and not the posterior ethmoid may lie next to the optic canal. Nature has not only created widely differing cell arrangements in the nasal architecture of different individuals but has jumbled the arrangement in the two sides of the same individual.

In case of periostitis, traumatism, hemorrhage or swelling of the walls of the optic canal, there is no provision of nature to guard the optic nerve against compression and strangulation. The optic nerve extends beyond the optic foramen within the skull cavity for a distance of 15 mm. before it reaches the chiasm, so that the compression of the nerve in its foramen does not affect the chiasm and the clinical manifestations are monocular.

The fibers which supply the macula lutea of the retina lie in the center of the optic nerve at the foramen; but as the eyeball is approached from behind they are seen to shift gradually toward the temple side, so that where the disc is seen with the ophthalmoscope they occupy the wedgeshaped temple fourth or third, and the artery and vein are at the center.

Why is it that the ophthalmoscopic examination is negative in the active stage of this disease? The answer is that the central artery of the retina and its vein only exist in the nerve for a distance of 15 mm. behind the eyeball. Beyond that they lie outside the sheath of the nerve. The transverse optic neuritis and compression exists nearly an inch further back and the retinal circulation is not impeded by it. Within thirty days after the disease announces itself atrophy of the disc is seen and it appears as a primary atrophy.

Why is central scotoma an early sign of the disease?

The papillo-macular fibers of the optic nerve are the finest, most highly specialized and most vulnerable. Swelling of the bony wall of the optic foramen causes as much pressure in the center of the nerve contained therein as at the periphery; this according to the well-known law of physics and the first to suffer are these delicate fibers supplying the macular region of the retina. It is not inconsistent with the theory of compression to have interstitial neuritis as described by Collins and Mayou, intraneural exudation, perineuritis, varicosity of the axis cyl-

inders, fatty degeneration of the nerve cells, capillary thrombosis, etc.; but I take it that these phenomena are secondary to the strangulation and are natural in pathologic sequence. They follow after the compression and in turn are followed by the atrophy. The point I wish to emphasize is that infection of the nerve is not necessary to produce optic neuritis within the optic canal. Mechanical pressure is sufficient. It is undeniable, however, that in certain cases the optic nerve may share in the localized inflammation because of mere identity of its bony collar with the ethmoid wall.

Arnold Knapp[7] recognizes the types of cases reported in this paper, stating there is retrobulbar optic neuritis in which central scotoma is the characteristic functional defect. He further states,[8] "Optic neuritis of nasal origin occurs in two forms: One during the course of suppurative sinuitis, the other where there is a typical retrobulbar neuritis and the rhinoscopic examination is negative. In the latter cases exploratory operation reveals a latent infection. The more acute the case the more rapid the loss of vision and the better the prognosis. The effect of the nasal operation is remarkable. The nasal diagnosis in these acute cases is often difficult; even with negative rhinoscopic findings an exploratory operation must frequently be undertaken."

Since my paper on "Optic Ne of is ial from Intranasal Disease," read b cen ue this society in 1901, I have 3 nt or many cases illustrating the relatio aite een tween ethmoiditis and acute ery how bulbar neuritis but I shall report t s of typical cases that came under my servation within three weeks of each other. All three were operated on at once in spite of the fact that in each of them the ethmoid appeared normal as viewed rhinoscopically.

CASES.

Case I.—L. W. E., male, age 35, occupation telegraph operator.

March 14, 1917.—*History*—Twelve days ago, while working in his office, he noticed foggy vision in his right eye. No pain was felt at any time. No history of trauma. Patient noticed deterioration of vision from day to day. Is a total abstainer from alcohol, tobacco and coffee. Denies syphilis. No nasal symtoms.

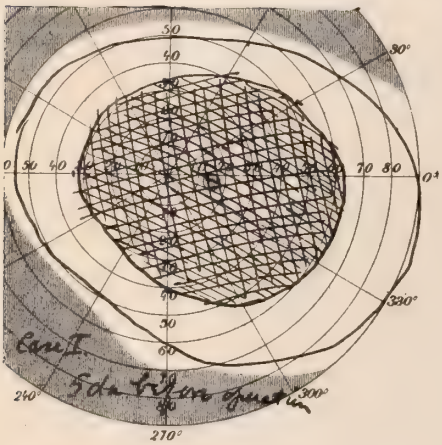


Fig. 1. Central scotoma in Case I. (Vail.)

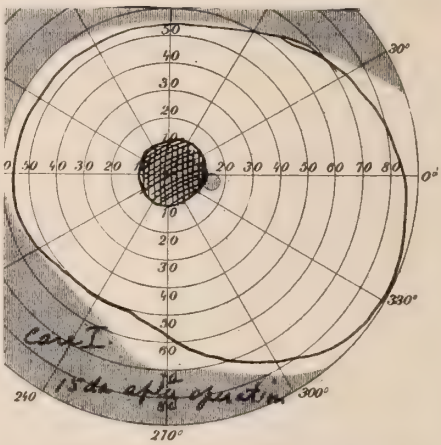


Fig. 2. Field in Case I two weeks after operation on the ethmoid.

Examination—Eyes: External inspection and tension normal right and left. Pupils 3 mm. right and left. Right pupil responds feebly to direct test and readily to indirect. The left pupil reacts quickly to direct tests and not at all to indirect. Ocular motility unaffected. Vision: Right eye cannot count fingers. Left eye vision 20/20 corrected and reads Ja. 1. Field of vision R. E.: periphery nearly normal; there is a large central scotoma extending approximately 40° in

all directions from the center. (See Fig. 1.)

Examination of eyes under homatropin: Pupils dilate equally and *ad maximum*, dioptric media clear. Fundus in each eye *appears entirely normal in every regard* and no difference noted by comparing the optic discs.

Nose: Inspection negative. Turbinated bodies appear unaffected, breathing space normal, no discharge

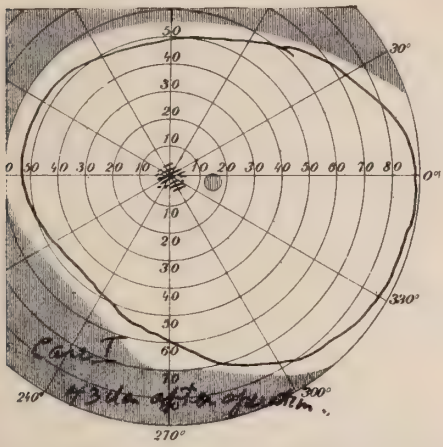


Fig. 3. Field of vision in Case I one month after Fig. 2.

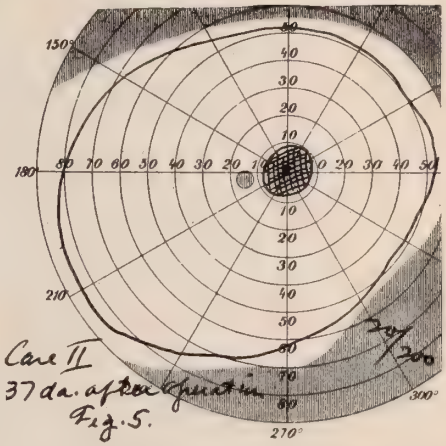


Fig. 5. Field of vision in Case II thirty-seven days after operation.

present and no difference noted between the two nasal chambers.

Report of Radiographer (Dr. Lange): "Frontals and antra clear. Oblique exposure of the ethmoid shows distinct clouding of posterior ethmoid cells on the right side. Sella turcica normal."

Diagnosis: Monocular blindness from nonsuppurative ethmoidal disease on the right side.

Operation: March 19, 1917. The right ethmoidal labyrinth was exenterated by Mosher's technic. Twenty-four hours after operation patient stated his vision was improved.

April 3; vision was 20/50 and central scotoma does not extend over 10°, from fixation point. (See Fig. 2.)

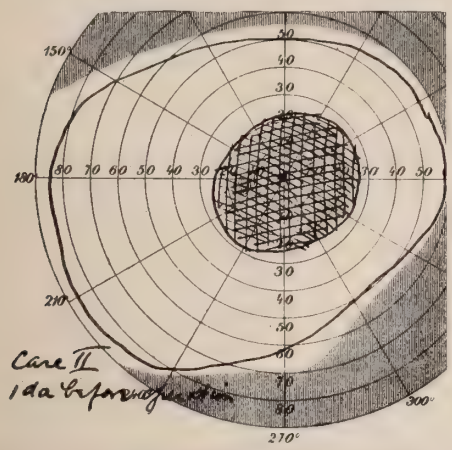


Fig. 4. Field showing central scotoma in Case II, one day before operation.

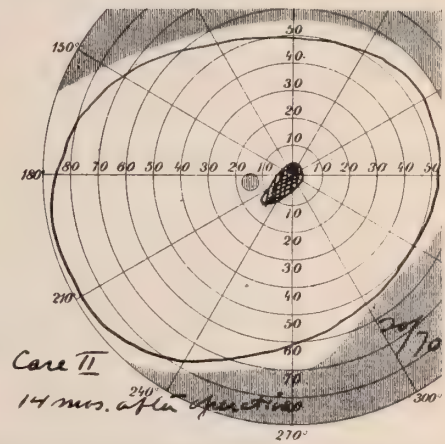


Fig. 6. Field of vision in Case II fourteen months after operation.

April 17; vision 20/30.

May 1; vision 20/30. Central scotoma is relative now and there are signs of slight atrophy on the temple side of the disc. (See Fig. 3.)

May 29, 1918 (one year later); vision 20/20 and reads Ja. No. 1. Oph-

thalmoscope reveals distinct pallor of the disc especially involving the temple side. Right disc is nearly white, left is quite rosy. In spite of the atrophy the vision is 20/20 and Ja. No. 1, and the fields of vision are entirely normal for white and colors. There was never any discharge from the nose after the operation and the operated field is clean and normal appearing.

Case II.—Miss V. M. Age 18—Occupation school teacher.

March 20, 1917.—*History*—Two weeks ago had a mild attack of "pink-eye" and "cold in the head." There was some pain in the left eyeball whenever she directed the eyes to extreme field of fixation. This pain still persists. Five

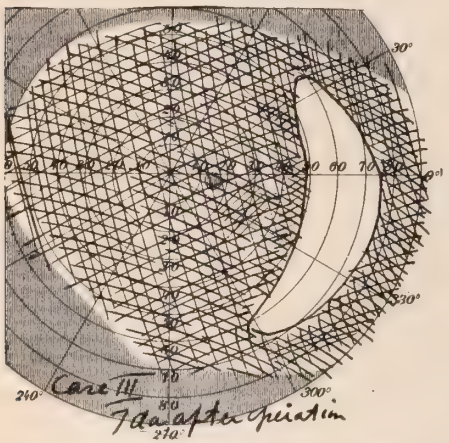


Fig. 7. Field of vision in Case III one week after operation.

days ago the vision of the left eye became dim.

Examination—Eyes: Right eye appears normal, pupil 2½ mm. and responds to direct test. Vision in this eye is 20/20 and Ja. No. 1. Field of vision for white and color normal right eye. The ophthalmoscopic examination reveals normal disk and fundus.

Left eye: Orbital tenderness on deep pressure against the eyeball. Pupil 2½ mm. and sluggish in reaction. Tension normal, ophthalmoscopic examination reveals a distinctly swollen optic disc. Veins are swollen and tortuous. Details of fundus quite hazy, due to presence of neuro-retinitis. Vision barely 20/200. Field of vision at periphery normal, but there is a large absolute central scotoma present. (See Fig. 4.)

Nose: Ample breathing space. Turbinated bodies appear normal and alike on the two sides. No secretion present.

Report of Radiographer (Dr. Lange): "Frontals and antra clear. The left ethmoid taken by oblique exposure shows distinct cloudiness. The right appears normal."

Diagnosis: Left optic neuritis from ethmoid disease.

Operation: March 21 a complete exenteration of the left ethmoid and sphenoid was done under cocain anesthesia. Cells contained pus.

March 24; the left optic disc appears less swollen.

April 7; can barely see 20/200. There are signs of beginning atrophy of the disc.

April 27; the left optic neuritis has subsided and atrophy is becoming established. Still has absolute central scotoma, tho not so large as at first noted. (See Fig. 5.) Vision now 20/200.

June 22; partial atrophy of the optic nerve especially noted on the temple side of the disc. Vision 20/100. Nose appears free from discharge now. The day following nasal operation there was quite a flow of creamy pus from the sphenoid and ethmoid region.

May 18, 1918 (14 months after); the right optic disc is normal and vision is 20/20 and Ja. 1. The left disc is uniformly pale. Small central scotoma (see Fig. 6). Vision 20/70. Nose free from discharge and appears healthy.

Comment.—This was undoubtedly a case of optic neuritis from ethmoid disease, as there was a suppurative process at work in the post. ethmoidal and sphenoidal cells. The rhinoscopic examination before operation could not detect the suppuration. It was revealed by the operation.

Case III.—Miss M. S. Age 60. No occupation.

May 4, 1917.—*History*—Without previous warning and from unknown cause the right eye suddenly became blind three weeks ago. The only other sensation was

that of a dull pain in the right temple and brow. The blindness of the R. E. is complete as there is no l. p.

Examination.—Eyes: External inspection negative. Pupils nearly equal in size. (R. 4 mm., L. 3.5 mm.) The right does not respond to light but it does respond consensually and associately. Eyes appear straight and motility is normal.

Ophthalmoscopic examination is entirely negative right and left. Vision, right, *nil*, left 20/20 corrected, tension normal in each eye, field of vision left eye normal for white and colors.

Nose: Nasal chambers appear entirely normal. No history of chronic nasal disease.

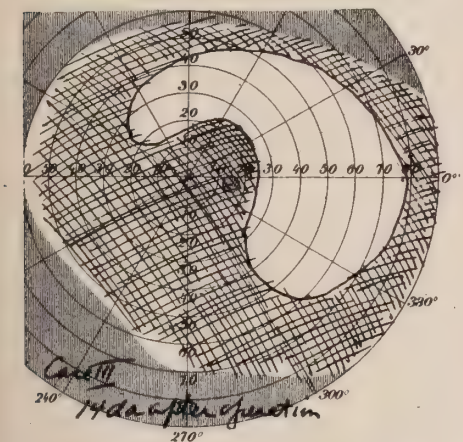


Fig. 8. Field of vision in Case III two weeks after operation.

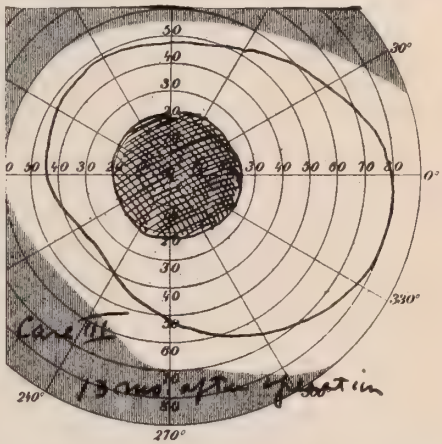


Fig. 9. Field of vision in Case III thirteen months after operation.

Diagnosis: Monocular blindness from concealed ethmoid disease.

Operation: May 4, 1917. Exenteration of ethmoidal labyrinth and opening of sphenoidal cell on the right side.

May 11; there is a slight response of pupil to light, and detects hand movements in extreme temple field. (See Fig. 7.)

May 18; can count fingers eccentrically. Still has central scotoma. (See Fig. 8.)

June 15, 1918 (thirteen months after); optic disc atrophied on the temple side. There is still an absolute central scotoma present as shown on accompanying chart (see Fig. 9), but the peripheral field is restored. Pupils are normal in size and the right now responds readily to light. The nose appears normal, no purulent discharge was present at any time before or since operation.

Vision: Can count fingers at 10 feet by eccentric fixation.

CONCLUSIONS.

The cases reported illustrate two types of monocular optic neuritis from ethmoidal disease. In the one type illustrated in Case No. II there was a frank exudative neuroretinitis, associated with functional blindness in the center of the visual field due to a suppurative process at work in the posterior accessory sinuses of the nose that lie in proximity to the optic nerve. The exudation was doubtlessly due to bacterial influences and the central scotoma to the swelling of the nerve (interstitial neuritis), within the bony optic canal.

In the other type illustrated in Cases No. I and III there was no bacterial invasion of the nerve present, but there was swelling of the orbital wall of the posterior ethmoidal or sphenoidal cell which pressed the optic nerve in its passage through the optic foramen and caused a strangulation of the nerve at this point. This compression no doubt produces a transverse optic neuritis which, while not due to bacterial invasion is nevertheless destructive to vision, and is followed by more or less permanent atrophy of the optic nerve. The nasal disease that produces this phenom-

enon is a nonsuppurative one, hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone.

The disease should be recognized and operation on the ethmoid performed at once in spite of its being normal in appearance. The diagnosis is made solely from ocular findings.

The plea I would finally make is *operate at once.* The prognosis is good as to restoration of vision if the operation is performed during the acute stage, but if delayed until atrophy sets in the prognosis is bad.

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Since writing this paper Greenfield Sluder's book on *Headaches and Eye Disorders of Nasal Origin* (June, 1918, C. V. Mosby Co., St. Louis), has been published and we note many strikingly similar arguments to sustain the proposition that hyperplasia of the sphenoid and ethmoid bones causes visual and other disturbances from compression of the trunks of the anterior group of cranial nerves at the foramina of exit.

My paper was written without knowledge of Sluder's work in the same field, which accounts for lack of reference to his masterful production. His book covers a much wider range and, written by a rhinologist of renown, will receive and merit the highest commendation.

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DISEASES OF THE UVEAL TRACT.

SAMUEL D. RISLEY, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA.

This paper gives a general review of certain important pathologic conditions affecting the uveal tract, especially tuberculosis and eyestrain; and of vascular changes that result from uveal lesions, notably myopia, glaucoma and cataract. Presented at the meeting of the special section of the Pennsylvania State Medical Society, Sept. 5th, 1918.

I have chosen among many possible topics for presentation in our special field of research, the diseases of the uveal tract and will discuss these disorders from the standpoint of etiology and their sequelae. No subject in ophthalmology could have been chosen which presents more features of dramatic interest or practical importance to every medical man. First of all, to epitomize my thesis, I need not remind you that the uveal tract of the eye is developed embryonically from the ectoderm and mesodern, and therefore is liable to participation in all of the systemic maladies which affect these tissues elsewhere in the organism; and, because of the anatomic conditions peculiar to the eye and their relation to the physiology of vision lead to a wide group of sequelae which seriously threaten to impair function. In the time I can reasonably take in presenting the subject, it will be impossible to trace the extended literature and I will, therefore, make only such reference as may be needed to emphasize my own conclusions based upon personal study.

My first appreciation of the signal importance of the uveal tract to comfortable physiologic vision was gained very early in my professional experience thru the careful clinical study of a large series of cases of recurrent iritis, the results being set forth in a paper entitled, "Iritis—A Clinical Study,"[1] presented to the Pennsylvania State Medical Society in 1877, and with greater elaboration in 1884 in a second paper entitled, "Recurrent Iritis."[2] About the same time the observations

were being made which led up to the examination of the school children's eyes in Philadelphia,[3] which was primarily an investigation to discover the genesis of the myopic eye. It soon became obvious that in iritis the inflammation did not involve the iris only, but the entire uveal tract; and that the distension or enlargement of the globe in myopia was not, as had been claimed a physiologic growth; or an adaptation of the eye to the requirements of civilized life, as had also been claimed; but was always associated with quite characteristic pathologic processes involving the uvea, especially the choroidal and ciliary regions of that membrane. In a word, myopia was a sequel to the uveal disease.

Incidentally, it was demonstrated by that investigation that the children having emmetropic eyes passed thru their school life with a minimum of pain and disease while the eye strain consequent upon congenital abnormalities of refraction and ocular imbalance resulted in pathologic states involving the uveal tract; were invariably associated with pain, and lowered sharpness of vision. This was especially true where hyperopic astigmatism was present; and that the percentage of these eyes steadily diminished as the age of the pupils advanced while the percentage of myopic eyes increased in a corresponding ratio. Briefly stated, the myopic eyes were recruited from the hyperopic eyes thru the turnstile of astigmatism and always thru the agency of the pathologic states of the uvea produced by eye strain. This conclusion was fortified by the publication of a series of private patients in which this change of refraction was observed during its progress under the most careful scrutiny.[4]

Then, too, I have had the opportunity to observe a hyperopia of 2 D. converted into a myopic refraction after a prolonged attack of severe iridochoroiditis where adhesions of the iris to the lens capsule had been prevented by treatment, and the lens remained clear. The myopia was therefore due to axial increase. The patient was a man aged forty-five with a marked tendency to rheumatoid arthritis. The iridochoroiditis was a distressingly painful experience and a tendency to increased tension of the globe had constantly to be combatted, the violent attacks of pain being relieved only by instillations of eserin. It is my frequent practice to use weak solutions of eserin salicylat at intervals between the instillation of atropin in the treatment of all uveal affections.

At first thought, the progressive myopia of youth and the glaucomatous eye of after middle life, are as far apart as the poles. But careful consideration will show that the relatively tender sclerotic of youth distends under the undue intraocular tension produced by the congested and inflamed vascular choroid and ciliary body in the presence of eye strain or disease and the diameters of the eyeball increase. In a word, it becomes myopic. On the other hand, the tough unyielding sclerotic of middle life in the presence of uveal disease, presents the painful and destructive syndrome of increased tension of the globe. In such a view we at once grasp the dramatic significance of disease of this vascular membrane in the life history of the eye. Composed as it is of a meshwork of connective tissue, pigment epithelium and blood vessels with their accompanying lymph spaces, it is the nourishing coat of the eye.

The well being, therefore, of all the other tissues is either wholly or in a large measure dependent upon the normal or healthful performance of its important function. Not only is this true of the different parts of the uveal tract itself, but it is peculiarly true of the avascular structures of the eye; the vitreous body; the crystalline lens; and the cornea. I know of no more important or inspiring study to the thoughtful ophthalmic surgeon than the careful perusal of one or more of the later books devoted to the investigation by modern laboratory methods, of the anatomy and histology of the human eye. The studies of the histologic anatomy of the ciliary body and ciliary processes and their relation to the zone of Zinn, the suspensory ligament, the

anterior limiting membrane of the vitreous body, the scleral ring and root of the iris are especially important if one is to have a correct concept of the processes of disease of the uveal tract, or for the adoption of scientific procedures in their treatment.

The zone of Zinn, and the suspensory ligament of the lens are not to be regarded as impervious, glass like membranes, but as finely fibrillated structures and therefore pervious to the nutritive fluids from the choroid and ciliary region of the uvea designed as they pass forward not only for the nourishment of the vitreous, lens and cornea, but into the anterior chamber for exit into the canal of Schlemm and the lymph spaces of the conjunctiva. From this anatomic and histologic arrangement it is obvious that any disturbance of these delicate and highly organized structures by disease of the uvea must be of signal importance as a disturbing factor in the nutrition of the eye. Then, too, it is highly probable that the nutritive fluids secreted by the uvea are changed in character when that membrane is subject to toxic inflammation.

There is probably no organ in the body more prone, than the uvea, because of its highly vascular character, to participate in a large group of systemic disorders of the nutritional type; the toxemias and infections. In a word, all the affections of the cardiovascular system in which the kidneys are so uniformly involved, are, I think, quite as liable to have associated disease of the choroid. Not necessarily because of the nephritis, but for the reason that the choroid and retina, and the kidneys have in common become involved in the general disorder. In chronic rheumatism, gout, arthritis deformans, glycosuria, etc., with the phenomena of increasesd blood pressure, and arterial sclerosis, it is comparatively rare not to find associated disease of the retina and uveal tract.

The high arterial tension, the hypertrophied left ventricle, the chronic nephritis, apoplexies, angina, present a picture of serious systemic disease which the ophthalmologist unfortunately is all too frequently called upon to witness, because of the associated ocular conditions. It is not reasonable to suppose that the blood vessel system of the eye would escape from participation in the disaster which has fallen with such serious consequences upon the general vascular tree.

Indeed, the ophthalmic surgeon is, not infrequently, the first to detect the insidious approach of the general disorder, since the dioptric system of the eye enables him to study the intraocular tissues under an enlargement of approximately fourteen diameters, and so affords a unique and favorable opportunity to study the pathologic change going on in living structures.

It is under these conditions that he observes the veiling of the fundus details by edema of the retina and choroid in autotoxemia; the innumerable small apoplexies in hemorrhagic retinitis accompanying the later stages of nephritis; in perivasculitis and endarteritis; conditions which so frequently culminate in increased tension of the globe or even in the violent and fatal syndrome of hemorrhagic glaucoma. Indeed, it not infrequently happens that these eye conditions are only the culmination of blood vessel change which has been insidiously progressing, *pari passu,* with that in the general blood vessel system.

This is not the time or place; indeed before this Section it is not necessary to enter upon the etiologic factors in the general or systemic disorders of the nutritional and toxic type. It is my wish only to urge the recognition of the important fact that the uveal tract of the eye may and usually does participate in the general misfortune. In a word, they must be considered as etiologic factors in choroidal disease. The ophthalmologist must first be a physician.

In addition to this important group must be considered the infections: rheumatism, syphilis and tuberculosis as etiologic factors which are always in evidence. Rheumatism and syphilis as the most frequent causes of iritis, iridocyclitis and iridochoroiditis we have long recognized; but I believe the sig-

nal importance of tuberculosis as a frequent cause of these inflammations of the uveal tract has not been adequately appreciated, certainly not until within comparatively recent years. Did time permit, a large amount of clinical material could be brought forward to emphasize its importance. Of late years in rebellious cases of uveal diseases at the Wills Hospital Clinic, and in my private work, the von Pirquet test has been made as a routine procedure, in many instances causing not only local reaction but a rise of temperature. In a large percentage of these patients, recovery was so rapid under the subsequent injections of steadily ascending doses of old tuberculin as to excite one's enthusiasm.

UVEAL TUBERCULOSIS

For example, I relate the following case: A large rosy cheeked Italian fruit dealer, came to the clinic with violent pain from an acute increase of tension in the left eye. He was admitted to the wards and placed under treatment until the subsidence of the acute attack. A peripheral iridectomy was then performed, which promptly relieved the tension and pain, but the convalescence was prolonged. The tension was normal but the eye remained red and uncomfortable, and vision did not improve. After two weeks, a gray, discreet deposit was discovered on the cornea in the anterior chamber near the temporal angle of the coloboma left by the iridectomy. It suggested a tubercular deposit. The von Pirquet test was made and was followed by a marked reaction at the site of the test on his arm, and by marked focal reaction in the eye, and a rise in temperature. When this subsided the eye began a rapid recovery. The usual injections of old tuberculin were administered under which the eye became white, the nest of deposit in the cornea disappeared and ophthalmoscopic study of the fundus became possible. There was a deeply cupped nerve and numerous splotches in his choroid, far forward in the ophthalmoscopic field, presumably the site of tubercular infections or deposits. After the iridectomy the infection had passed through the coloboma into the anterior chamber and formed a nest of deposit on the cornea.

It is probable that in many instances the choroidal patches which are so characteristic of *choroiditis disseminata* are of this nature. A lady, a private patient, who had suffered for a long time from ill health which baffled her physician, and who had received from me glasses correcting a refraction error, but at that time with entirely healthy eye grounds and normal acuity of vision in each eye, came to the office a few months later in great alarm over the loss of vision in her right eye which came on, she said, during the preceding night. In the left eye V=6/v, but in the right it had fallen to 1/v.

The ophthalmoscope revealed in the nasal fundus a large gray area of edema, the retina being pressed forward, and opaque, but at the center of the gray area at its most prominent point the electric ophthalmoscope showed a dense white spot. The tension of the ball was not increased. The von Pirquet test was made and proved positive causing very slight, if any, ocular reaction. The rising doses of old tuberculin led to a rapid subsidence of the infiltration and a marked improvement in her general health. Vision rose once more to 6/v, but at the site of the tubercular deposit in the eye ground there remained a patch of choroidal atrophy such as are so frequently seen in disseminated choroiditis. No other nodules or yellowish spots were discovered; it was not therefore, of the miliary type which is more common especially in young children.

I have, in many cases of disseminated choroidal patches, with progressive loss of vision and pain in the eyes and head, seen the process arrested by the administration of old tuberculin. Tuberculosis, must therefore, be regarded as one of the more common causes of disease of the uveal tract. Coming under the same category are many cases of keratitis, which show grayish discreet nests of tubercular deposit on the membrane of Descemet, often near the angle of the anterior chamber, or nodules on the anterior surface of the iris. In this connection it should be borne in mind that the mem-

brane of Descemet is embryonically the extension forward of the uveal tract.

To the ophthalmic surgeon these affections of the uvea, whatever may be their etiologic factors, are important, not only as local manifestations of disease, which it is our duty to treat; but because of their dire sequelae. Among these are first of all, the handicap which comes with impaired acuity of vision as in the myopic eye, from pathologic changes in the retina and choroid at the posterior pole, i. e., in the macular region. Second, degeneration of the vitreous body and opacity in the posterior capsule of the lens, and of the lens cortex and nucleus. Third, iritis and iridocyclitis with adhesion to the anterior capsule of the lens and between the root of the iris, the anterior prism of the ciliary body and scleral roll. Fourth, increased tension of the globe as sequel to impaired drainage caused by these plastic adhesions.

In a word, we find in the pathologic affections of the uvea the *fons et origo* of the most serious forms of ocular disease with which we must contend.

UVEITIS AND CATARACT

When a young student of ophthalmology, I followed the teaching and example of my instructors in regarding opacity of the crystalline lens, particularly hard cataract, as one of the concomitants of old age, in common with other senile changes. Patients with immature cataract were, therefore, advised of their misfortune but encouraged to wait with such courage and patience as they could command until the cataracts were "ripe" when their vision would be restored by removing the opaque lens. After the importance of errors of refraction as an etiologic factor in asthenopia and pathologic changes in the *fundus oculi* had been demonstrated in the school examination, and the subsequent experience based upon the inductions from that investigation, I began to treat all patients with uveal disease with cycloplegics. And where it was possible to do so, that is to say, if the opacity of the lens permitted, made careful records of fundus conditions, associated asthenopia, etc., and carefully corrected any existing error of refraction; and made a painstaking examination of systemic conditions. They were kept under observation by occasional return visits. Their comfort was often secured and vision improved. Finally, it became obvious that in many of these patients the opacity of the lens had not progressed; indeed, it was a rare exception for one of the cases so treated to return for extraction.

The case books were then appealed to for corroboration. Sixty cases were found in which the records were sufficiently full for analysis, and were made the basis of a paper on "Incipient Cataract—Its Etiology, Treatment and Prognosis."[5] The results were of signal importance and value. The analysis demonstrated the invariable association of these incipient opacities of the lens with uveal disease and that when this was successfully treated the opacity did not advance and the acuity of vision often improved, but in no instance were the spicules of opacity already present observed to disappear, although the opalescence and swelling of the lens habitually grew less. Since the publication of that paper in 1869, the sixty cases have been increased many times over but the added experience has served only to emphasize the truth of the induction then made and stated in the following conclusions:

"In the stage of incipiency, cataract is amenable to treatment by such measures as are calculated to remove the choroidal disease upon which it depends.

"These deductions being true, we are justified in giving a more hopeful prognosis to many persons who apply for treatment with incipient cataract.

"If treatment fails to arrest the progressive degeneration of the lens, the eye will be in a better condition to submit to the trials of operative interference."

If these conclusions are accepted as true, then the designation, *"senile cataract"* is a misnomer and therefore, misleading. Furthermore, experience shows that aged people, who have cataract, are after all is said, the rare exception. It is only a fair deduction that in these exceptional cases there must be some peculiar condition present to cause their cataract. It is the contention of this paper that the impaired health of the eye consequent upon uveal disease had resulted in the

opacity of the avascular lens through disturbance of its nutrition.

THE MYOPIC EYE

In the preceding remarks, allusion has been made to increased tension produced by the congested or inflammed choroid leading to distention of the globe in early life, resulting in the myopic eye. This distention in young eyes is not always by any means confined to the posterior pole as in cases of progressive myopia with posterior staphylomata at the temporal side of the optic nerve entrance. There is usually an increase in all the diameters of the ball as well as in the antero-posterior axis. The objective syndrome is interesting and important.

In the presence of the uveal disease the long anterior ciliary vessels, as they course over the sclera in the anterior ciliary region, will be found engorged always suggesting uveal disease; and the sclera often obviously thin and distending. When the pupils are dilated the plane retinoscopic mirror will frequently reveal a granular ring concentric with the margin of the pupil; or a granular cloud in the illuminated pupillary area, which I regard as indicating the participation of the membrane of Descemet in the general uveal disease of the fundus, and indicates the beginning impairment of nutrition of the cornea. The ophthalmoscope shows a fluffy fundus throughout the ophthalmoscopic field, veiling all details.

It is in these cases we observe changes in the corneal astigmatism, either an increase of the astigmatism or a change in the direction of the meridians. These conditions are not confined to the eyes which have passed into myopic refraction, and are comparatively rarely seen in mature adults but are frequently present in young people suffering with asthenopia and portend increasing refraction. After prolonged use of a mydriatic and rest from near work, the fluffy fundus, the clouds in the cornea and the engorgement of the ciliary vessels disappear, while the asthenopia subsides.

UVEITIS AND GLAUCOMA.

In adults during middle life, the uveal disease associated, as it quite invariably is, with systemic affections, presents for consideration a very different group of phenomena. The dilated or engorged ciliary vessels are present, there is failing central vision and contracting fields; the tension of the ball is increased. In the early stage of the disease there may or may not be acute or subacute inflammatory attacks attended by increased pain and dim vision with diminished sensibility, with slight steaminess of the cornea and well marked increase of the tension.

With or without treatment the attack usually subsides and both the objective and subjective symptoms disappear, but there usually remains some increased impairment of function in both the central vision and the fields. After an interval, the attack is sure to return if suitable treatment is neglected. The marked similarity of this history of recurring attacks, to the history of recurrent iritis is obvious, barring the marked increased tension and contracting fields of vision which characterize the glaucomatous eye.

As in recurrent iritis, the succeeding attacks leave additional posterior synechiae at the pupillary margins, so in subacute glaucoma the attacks leave adhesions between the root or periphery of the iris and the anterior prism of the ciliary body and the scleral ring. I have had many opportunities to demonstrate these adhesions in eyes which have come to the laboratory for study after enucleation. Indeed, they are quite constantly present in all the eyes where increased tension had been an important feature in the recorded clinical history. In recurrent iritis, an iridectomy when accompanied by suitable systemic treatment arrests the disease, so in these cases of increased tension with adhesions at the root of the iris the recurring attacks are arrested.

It is the cutting free of these adhesions through a considerable arc at the base of the coloboma in a properly performed broad peripheral iridectomy that gives that procedure a greater value than trephining, which is quite valueless in the majority of cases unless accompanied by iridectomy, and this in any case can only be a very narrow one, thus freeing the adhesion in a very limited arc. It was partly upon these considerations that I

ventured to predict that the employment of the trephine did not meet the requirements as efficiently as a technically correct iridectomy. The theory promulgated for the trephining operation is that it establishes a permanent drainage and thus relieves the tension of the globe. But if we accept the thesis that the increased tension is a sequel of uveal disease it is obvious that the mere fact of drainage will not arrest the degenerative processes going on in the eye. I have seen many examples which seem to buttress the truth of this statement. In brief, the etiologic factors, systemic and local, underlying the uveal disease must be sought for and treated.

Increased tension of the globe assumes at once a wider significance when regarded as a symptom and sequel of disease affecting the choroidal tract and must modify in many important respects the views underlying our treatment. The term "glaucoma" falls from its place as an entity in our catalog of ocular diseases, and must be regarded by the ophthalmic surgeon as only "a convenient appellation" for an important characteristic symptom of ocular disease, but not the disease itself. The acceptance of this view has for many years modified my own concept of glaucoma and controlled my management of eyes with increased tension.

The failure to recognize its etiologic significance has doubtless led to the early adoption of surgical interference at a stage of the disease when other measures should have been first employed. By way of illustration, attention may be called to the great value of iridectomy in the treatment of chronic recurrent iritis, but no experienced surgeon would think of adopting this valuable surgical procedure during an acute exacerbation. The same consideration should be the guide to treatment in those cases of uveal disease with a cataractous lens or in which the increased tension of the globe is the dominant symptom. In short, it is obvious that the underlying etiologic factors both local and general, should be considered, and as far as possible removed by treatment before the adoption of any surgical procedure. The failure to do this, affords sufficient explanation for the unfortunate sequelae so frequently following either iridectomy or any of the more recently devised operations for the relief of increased tension. Notwithstanding the extensively published experience with these modern procedures, I am not convinced that the mere fact that permanent drainage has been secured through an opening at the sclero-corneal limbus is a cure for the diseased condition of the globe culminating in increased tension.

In no other form of ocular disease, inflammatory in character, has the ophthalmic surgeon been so prone to undertake operative procedure as in inflammatory glaucoma. This has seemed to be justified by the rapidly fatal results to vision if relief of high tension were delayed. But if the contention of this paper is true, the early recognition of the essential nature of the disease and the adoption of suitable methods of treatment will, in the vast majority of cases, prevent the violent culmination we all know so well.

ESERIN IN UVEAL DISEASE.

It is a well known fact that a very large percentage of the patients who apply for treatment with transient attacks of the symptom complex, designated as *"glaucoma imminens,"* are relieved by the instillation of miotics, aspecially eserin, and that operative measures are not required, if at the same time suitable attention is given to the underlying etilogic factors usually found in general systemic states. Many examples could be brought forward in which under treatment the fellow eye recovered without operation which had proved necessary to the other.

The problem to be solved, however, is a very different one, if the disease has advanced, either through neglect or in spite of treatment, to a stage where permanent pathologic changes in the intraocular membranes have impaired the nutritive functions of these membranes and the drainage channels of the globe have been more or less permanently blocked by connective tissue formation; when the ciliary body is undergoing atrophy and the contracting adhesions have dragged the root of the iris backward and in contact with the scleral ring. We are then,

in my judgment, no longer justified in trusting to the influence of miotics. When we come to consider the physiologic properties of the most efficient of the miotics, physostigmin or eserin, it will be seen why this statement is true.

In answer to an inquiry, "how or why does eserin relieve intraocular tension?" I recall two experiences which have afforded, to me at least, a satisfactory explanation. A young woman with a leucomatous cornea and a blind eye came to the clinic complaining of pain; the old leucoma which had been for years entirely white and free from irritation was vascular, the ball tender to palpation and with increased tension. A solution of eserin was instilled; and at the close of the clinic hour the blood vessels in the white cornea were no longer visible except with the loup; the pain had disappeared and the tension was normal. A short time after a young man presented himself for treatment, giving a vague history of discomfort, occasional attacks of redness in one eye. Inspection showed an arborescent arrangement of blood vessels over the anterior surface of the entire iris. Having in mind the speedy disappearance of the blood vessels after the instillation of eserin in the case narrated above, eserin was instilled and the patient received a solution to be used at home. On his return the following day, the vessels were no longer visible to the unaided eye. The effect of the eserin in these two cases was ascribed to its influence over the muscle fibres in the walls of the blood vessels.

At that time and even now there is much confusion over the physiologic properties of this drug, but all experiments seem to agree that the well known rise in blood pressure after the administration of eserin is brought about by the stimulation of the muscular coat of the arterioles; that physostigmin increases the irritability of both striped and unstriped muscles, even causing tetanoid contractions, the effect apparently being due to the stimulation of the peripheral nerve endings. Local applications, it is claimed cause marked contraction of the pupil by stimulating the peripheral endings of the ocular motor nerve and probably also the iris muscle itself and causing the spasm of the accommodation by acting similarly on the ciliary muscle.

Now if these observations are correct, eserin is useful in the conditions which have been described as characteristic of the glaucomatous eye by contracting the uniformly dilated ciliary vessels in all of their ramifications in the iris and ciliary region. In this manner the hyperemia would be reduced, the secretion diminished and the general turgescence of the swollen ciliary body and ciliary muscle relieved. The instillation of solutions of suitable strength frequently repeated should therefore, reasoning *a priori,* be of great service in the premonitory stages of increased tension and should hold in check the pathologic processes which culminate in increased tension of the ball. The mistake of using too strong solutions of eserin is often made. It should never cause pain, as this is an indication of muscular spasm or cramp; weak solutions frequently repeated are more useful and are often of great value in the treatment of iritic and ciliary inflammations in alternation with the mydriatics.

But where permanent changes have already occurred, while its use in some measure retards the progress, it is obvious it can not remove or permanently arrest the baneful influence of the permanent pathologic changes at the root of the iris at the scleral ring. The effect of these contracting adhesions between the anterior prism of the ciliary body, the root of the iris and the scleral ring is analogous to the irritating influence of synechia between the capsule and iris after the extraction of cataract, or anterior synechia after perforating ulcer of the cornea and in certain cases of iritic adhesions. It is a common experience that such eyes remain irritable and show a tendency to recurring attacks of inflammation, which subside after the release of the adhesion.

In like manner the tendency to irritation and recurring attacks of increased tension will not permanently subside until the contracting bands of adhesion between the ciliary body at the scleral ring and root of the iris are released. To accomplish this design I know of no procedure which will release these bands thru so considerable an arc of the peri-

phery of the iris as a correctly performed broad iridectomy. It is open to question whether the securing of a drainage wound is correct in principle. Iridectomy, however, should not be undertaken until by suitable local and general treatment the acute inflammatory manifestations have subsided, and this treatment after iridectomy should be continued until the uveal disease has recovered.

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A NEW "MALINGEROSCOPE."

ELLICE M. ALGER, M. D.

NEW YORK.

With a discussion of the present need to discover malingering and ascertain as nearly as possible the actual vision of the eyes alleged to be amblyopic, this paper describes a new instrument for testing the vision of the alleged weak eye while the patient believes that he has seen with the other. The instrument was presented in a paper on Malingering at the annual meeting of the Medical Society of the State of New York, May 23, 1918. It can be obtained from F. A. Hardy & Co.

Visual malingering received but little practical attention from most American ophthalmologists till the passage of the Universal Service laws. The subject has, however, proved not to be so important from the military standpoint as was expected. There has been remarkably little persistent malingering, on the one hand, while on the other it is universally agreed that the persistent malingerer is of little military use. Apparently the officers of the army have often wasted more time and ingenuity in getting rid of these men than the local advisory boards did in getting them inducted.

If we are to judge by past experience, however, the subject may be of vastly greater importance when we begin to settle with the returning soldiers over their disabilities and pensions. It will be of even more importance in civil life because of the rapid and constant growth of accident insurance and industrial compensation. Ocular accidents capable of reducing vision outnumber all other accidents; while no type of injury causes, when real, greater reduction of earning capacity or makes a stronger appeal for sympathy and compensation. There is no kind of malingering which is harder to detect and to demonstrate.

In industrial work, at least, the detection of malingering is not the sole, or even the most important purpose of the examination, for there is no hard and fast line between exaggeration and malingering. The idea is to ascertain the exact organic and functional capacity of the eye, and the probable cause of any defect found. The success of the examination does not depend on any one or two classical tests but upon the ophthalmologist having a quick appreciation of what an eye ought to do under varying conditions, and on his ability to put the claimant rapidly into positions he has not anticipated, without rousing his suspicions or antagonism. The skill required is psychologic as much as ophthalmologic.

There are two different types of test for malingering; first, those intended to show merely that a supposedly blind eye has sight, and second, those tests which are capable of showing the degree of sight present. To the first class belong the pupillary reactions and many of the various diplopia tests. Their value is the less because they

would often be present in absolutely useless or dangerous eyes. Their chief function is to impugn the credibility and good faith of the claimant. Much more important are the methods which show in some degree the actual vision in each eye. These all depend on making the patient think he is seeing with his good eye when he must be using the poor one alone, and they all imply the apparent use of both eyes together. In this class come the tests involving the blocking out of the good eye by a strong convex glass, the bar reading tests, the various maneuvers possible with the stereoscope, the reading of colored letters thru colored glasses, and a few of the diplopia tests that appear in all our text books.

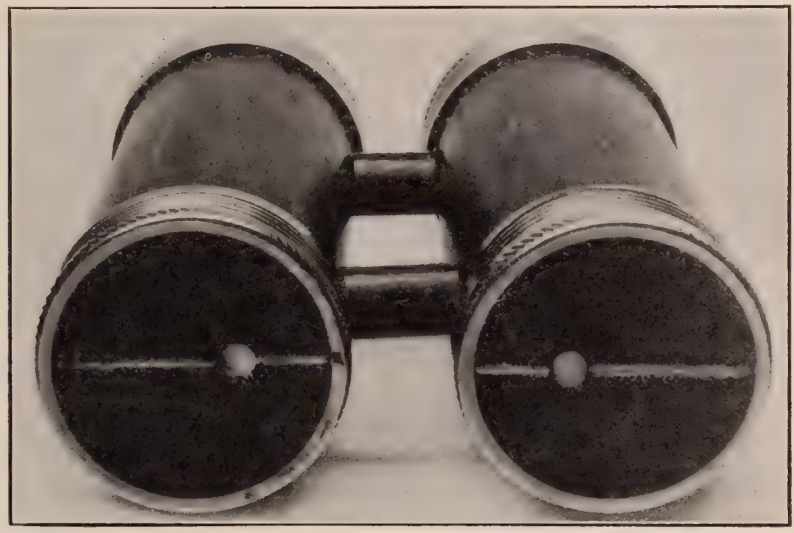


Fig. 1. Alger's new malingeroscope.

Like many other men who have been engaged in Local and Advisory Board work, I have experimented with various "malingeroscopes" and finally worked out the following one which in my hands has been more satisfactory than any single test. It is extremely simple, easily extemporized, and confuses even the very intelligent as to which eye is being used. Fig. 1.

It consists of two short parallel cylinders (four inches by one and one-half), arranged opera glass fashion. The distal end of each tube is covered by a cap which can be rotated, and contains a six mm. aperture, eccentrically placed. The caps can therefore be rotated so that the apertures, while in the same horizontal plane, may be as close to each other as 45 mm. (less than the average interpupillary distance), or any distance apart up to 70 mm. (more than the average).

The patient looks thru the instrument as he would an operaglass, at two ordinary test cards, twenty feet away, side by side, and about eighteen inches apart. The apertures are large enough to cover the width of one card but do not permit both to be seen at the same time with either eye alone. When the caps are so rotated that the distance between the apertures is nearly that between the pupils (Fig. 2, position 1), the right hand card is clearly visible to the right eye and the left hand card to the left eye (homonymous vision); but neither can see both cards at the same time. When the apertures are approximated slightly (Position 2), so as to permit slight convergence of the visual lines, both eyes see the same card simultaneously. When the apertures are approximated to considerably less than the interpupillary distance,

which is much the most useful arrangement (Position 3), both cards may be seen at the same time, but the right hand card is seen only with the left eye and vice versa (crossed vision). The sensation is that of binocular vision of both cards, but it is

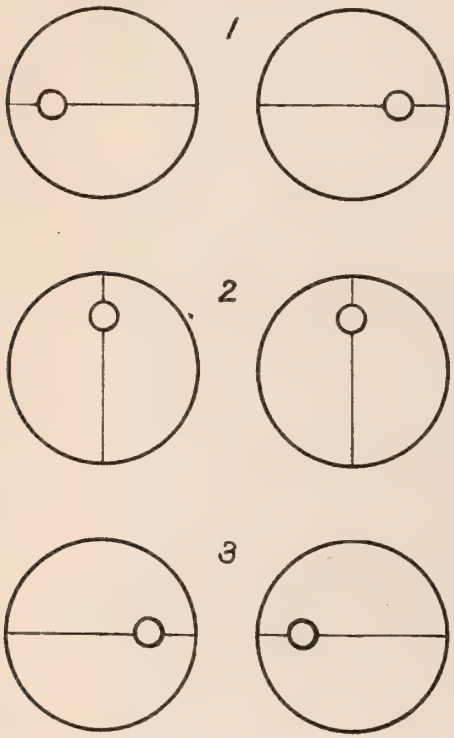


Fig. 2. Diagram showing various positions in which the apertures may be placed in using Alger's malingeroscope.

not quite that, for to read the right card the eyes have to be directed slightly to the right of the mid line, thus increasing the impression that one is using the right eye, while he is actually using the left, and vice versa.

As he looks thru one aperture at either card the image of the other aperture falls outside the macula of the fellow eye so that he is conscious of seeing two apertures and these apertures are "crossed," the apparent right one being actually before the left eye and vice versa. If the malingerer is asked to read the right hand card, thru the right hand hole he is apt to think he is using his right eye when he is really using his left. If he is told to read with his right eye, if that is the better one, and a card is held over the (to him) left aperture he assumes that he is really using his right eye and vice versa. In case there is a real difference in the vision of the two eyes, the intelligent patient can often readily tell which eye he is using, but as he has no means of knowing just how much he ought to see with the instrument it is easy enough to blur the vision of the better eye by holding a lens over the appropriate aperture and make him think he is using the better eye.

If two exactly similar charts are used, patients with strong fusion instincts will often fuse them by converging the eyes and see only one aperture and one card. If now extra letters are interpolated at different places on each card the patient will read them just as tho they were on both.

The instrument can be used over a trial frame or the patient's own glasses or it would be a perfectly simple matter to have a cell for lenses fastened to the distal end of each barrel.

The possibilities of deceiving the malingerer when one is familiar with the instrument are very great, the chief precaution being to watch carefully that he does not slyly close one eye. This is, of course, evidence of bad faith, but if the surgeon sits on the side of the worse eye and the instant it is closed puts a card over both apertures the culprit gets very little time for orientation.

ETIOLOGY OF PHLYCTENULAR OPHTHALMIA.

Capt. H. H. Turner, M. D.

PITTSBURGH, PA.

This paper urges the view that the essential lesion of the disease is a low grade chronic infection of the ethmoid, with obstruction to drainage, commonly following the acute infectious diseases of childhood. The attacks are provoked by recurring toxemias, especially of intestinal origin. This paper was presented to the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June, 1918.

Phlyctenular ophthalmia is second in economic importance only to ophthalmia neonatorum, and has been a veritable curse to hundreds of thousands of children. The dictum of years gone by that "the child will outgrow it" no longer suffices. True, the little victims did, in many instances, outgrow the disease, but with corneas so badly scarred that their economic usefulness was largely destroyed.

The child with classical phlyctenular ophthalmia is a pitiable sight—the more so because of the frequency with which it is encountered—constantly seeking dark corners, head hanging to avoid the direct light, lids red and swollen, eyes streaming, corneas dotted and clouded by phlyctenular nodules, swollen cervical glands, running nose and excoriated nares and lips, a child picture which, once seen, is never forgotten.

To cure a case of phlyctenular ophthalmia should mean the prevention of recurrences, not merely the relief of an immediate attack. A study of the literature impresses me with the fact that we have wandered far afield in analyzing this condition, and have lost ourselves in scientific discussion, which, altho of intense interest have accomplished little in the way of results.

The final solution of the etiology of phlyctenular ophthalmia must explain certain things: (1) why does the initial attack of ophthalmia so frequently follow the acute infectious diseases of childhood; (2) why does the process confine itself so constantly, in many cases, to only one and always the same eye; (3) why do some of the most violent cases occur among children who appear robust and healthy; (4) why does the removal of pathologic tonsils and adenoids stop the tendency in some children but not in others; (5) why does restriction of diet benefit but not cure these patients; (6) how does a dietetic indiscretion produce a lymphatic disturbance in an organ relatively remote; (7) why does the tendency disappear at adolesence?

Any theory which cannot answer these queries is not based on facts. Can perversion of carbohydrate metabolism or the tubercular theory explain these things? We all know they cannot.

It is generally conceded that the ocular manifestation is secondary. Where, then, and of what character is the primary lesion? The fact that the tendency remains limited in many cases to only one and always the same eye, over a period of years, is proof positive of a local tissue pathology, if not of the eye, then of some contiguous structure, which may be unilateral. Were a constitutional dyscrasia the principal fault, why should the local manifestation be confined to only one eye? What is the answer?

The relation of ocular disease to diseases of the accessory nasal sinuses has been a study with me for the past twelve years, and I would like to place on record a brief summary of my deductions as to the etiology of phlyctenular ophthalmia, which have no mention in the literature and which, to my mind, definitely explain all the queries made.

I am firmly convinced that the essential lesion in these cases is a low grade chronic infection of the ethmoidal labyrinth, with obstruction to drainage. Altho all patients with suppurative eth-ethmoiditis do not develop phlyctenular ophthalmia, this condition is always secondary to a suppurative ethmoiditis. The ethmoidal labyrinth is the only one of the accessory nasal sinuses present at birth, the others not being devel-

oped until several years have passed (Skillern). The outer wall of this sinus, the lamina papyracea, forms the inner third of the bony orbit, and is frequently the seat of defects in continuity, under which conditions the diseased mucosa of the sinus is brought into very intimate anatomic relationship with the orbital periosteum and the lymphatic channels of the orbit. Different theories as to the etiology of phlyctenulosis, advanced by various observers from time to time, bear an important relationship in that they are based on elements which excite or influence unfavorably the local focus of infection in the sinus. Phlyctenulosis is, in fact, a quite complicated syndrome, involving many factors, any one or more of which may be the actuating element in any individual case.

Skillern, in discussing the frequency of sinuitis in children, says that it is a very common thing for this infection to occur during the course of measles, scarlet fever, pertussis, influenza, pneumonia, etc., and that the resulting tissue devitalization favors a secondary infection of low intensity and chronic character, which may persist indefinitely. All ophthalmologists know by experience with what frequency the initial attack of phlyctenulosis follows these acute infectious diseases.

The excoriated, fissured nares, so constantly seen in these cases, while to some extent the result of the excessive lacrimation, are more largely the result of an excessively acrid discharge from the ostium of the ethmoidal labyrinth, the turgid nasal tissues, *above* the orifice of the nasolacrimal duct, being bathed in a sanious discharge, which gives a peculiar grayish appearance to the nasal mucosa and produces more or less odor. Many of these children develop early an intense atrophic rhinitis with marked ozena. Dr. Coffin, at the Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital, made a statement about a year ago to the effect that cases of ozena in children, which he has been investigating, were to be found principally among the victims of phlyctenulosis.

The consideration of the elements producing obstruction to sinus drainage is of vital importance, as it is only by removing or correcting these elements that recurrences of the ocular manifestations are prevented.

The successful treatment of this disease requires a broad grasp of the etiologic factors and the consideration and elimination of *all* the elements which may influence unfavorably the local sinus lesion.

Obstruction may be produced by: (1) an intrasinus secretion which is too viscid or heavy to drain thru a normal, patulous ostium; (2) a mechanical obstruction in the nasal chamber proper.

1. Many of these children without intranasal obstruction to sinus drainage may be free for several years from any tendency to phlyctenular ophthalmia. Later, owing to a degeneration of the intrasinus mucosa, the secretion may become too thick to drain properly, and we then have the essential element—that of obstruction to drainage —with the subsequent development of eye symptoms.

2. The several elements which may produce mechanical obstruction from within the nasal chamber proper are (a) pathologic tonsils and adenoids; (b) deflected septum, spurs, or tight nostrils; (c) many forms of general toxemia, of which the most frequent is intestinal in origin.

A. Hypertrophied tonsils and adenoids produce a stasis in the lymphatic flow, with intumescence and bogginess of the intranasal and intrasinus tissues and obstruction to sinus drainage. The retained, infected sinus contents accumulate under pressure and are forced into lymphatic channels, being carried along lymphatic pathways to the tissues of the conjunctiva or cornea, where they lodge and produce the typical phlyctenular lesions. The removal of such diseased tonsils and adenoids will effect a relief of the condition only when they are the sole exciting factor.

B. As is well known, the separation of the superior maxillae is produced largely by the wedging action of the upper teeth. When these are badly decayed or erupt abnormally, this wedg-

ing action is lost and we find a dental arch flattened laterally, with the incisors projecting to varying degrees, a contracted, highly arched palate, and narrowed nasal chambers, with deflected or spurred septum, produced by the vertical encroachment of the highly arched palate and the consequent buckling of the septum. These cases, almost without exception, have obstruction to sinus drainage on one or both sides, and, if a chronic infection be present, are very likely to develop a typical phlyctenular ophthalmia.

I have in many instances secured excellent results by referring these patients to a skillful orthodontist, who, by spreading the superior dental arch, has so widened the nasal chambers as to relieve obstruction to sinus drainage, and caused the phlyctenular tendency to disappear.

As the child with a phlyctenular history approaches the age of adolescence, the facial and cranial bone spaces develop, the nasal cavities widen, and the impediment to sinus drainage becomes less marked and possibly entirely disappears. Therefore the tendency usually subsides, in the vast majority of cases, at about this age, and remains quiescent, except at such times as the drainage may become blocked by an acute intumescence of the local soft parts.

C. Given hyperplasia of the middle turbinates or accessory sinus tissues (which is constant in these cases), many forms of constitutional toxemia will produce marked circulatory disturbances in the nasal and orbital tissues of the same side, the opposite side remaining normal, if the nasal condition be unilateral. The circulatory disturbance in the nostril proper will manifest itself by an intense intumescence of the local parts, with partial or complete blocking of the breathing space, often with considerable pain and sense of pressure.

The toxemia, in my experience, most frequently found originates in the intestinal tract. Hajek states that indiscretion of diet will produce an acute exacerbatin of a chronic sinuitis.

There is a peculiar reflex perversion of the intestinal digestive function, which is constantly found in the entire group of sinus disease, including phlyctenulosis, and which, observation leads me to believe, is produced by way of the sympathetic system. The relation is vicious, in that the autointoxication produced by absorption from the intestinal tract intensifies the pathologic process which produces the reflex. This digestive perversion is simply an instance of the functional disturbance of the digestive act which we now know may be produced by any persistent irritation of the sympathetic system. I have seen many of these cases in which the chronic digestive trouble disappeared entirely or was vastly improved following the correction of a sinus pathology.

The intestinal condition is characterized by acidity, with fermentation, flatus, eructations, etc., the intensity of the functional disturbance varying in different individuals, according to the intensity of the focal irritation to the sympathetic system and the susceptibility of the patient.

Unfortunately, radical procedures for the securing of free sinus drainage—such as curettement of the ethmoid, resection of the septum, or partial turbinectomy—are not usually applicable in childhood. Therefore it is doubly essential that all factors which may influence unfavorably the local lesion be considered, and eliminated so far as may be possible.

Whether the local tissue reaction in the nasal structures, secondary to intoxication of intestinal origin, be an example of anaphylaxis or not is a matter of purely academic interest in this relationship. The essential point is that the focal reaction, with obstruction to sinus drainage, may be relieved with certainty in these cases by a proper regulation of the diet.

The object in outlining a diet should be to exclude those elements which already contain such acids as would add fuel to the fire, and those which, because of indigestibility, would add to the existing status the acids and toxins formed during the process of intestinal

fermentation and putrefaction. My experience has led me to exclude, as a routine, all raw fruits excepting only the citrus group, aside from which Metchnikoff was certainly correct, as regards this group of cases at least, when he stated that raw fruits are harmful, but that cooking renders them innocuous. I do not believe that a carbohydrate free diet is either indicated or desirable in these cases, but do believe that the more indigestible carbohydrates, such as oatmeal, sweet potatoes, and navy beans, should be absolutely excluded and moderation be advised in the consumption of even the lighter starches. We must remember that the diet, to produce the desired result, must be constantly followed, which would be absolutely impossible under many of the projected regimens, as the child's general nutrition would suffer sadly within a short period. Regarding confections, I allow a moderate amount of plain candies—fondants or plain hard candies—occasionally, with meals, but exclude chocolate in all forms.

The ophthalmologist in handling these cases must, perforce, be somewhat of an internist, and study his patient from all angles, would he accomplish results.

In view of the fact that the flow of the lymphatic current from the head is downward, an involvement of the lymphatic glands of the neck is to be expected when there is a focus of infection above. Also, since the inspired air, with its myriad forms of bacterial life, passes constantly over this devitalized focus in the nasal passages, a mixed infection—in some cases tubercular—is certain to occur, and in these cases the various organisms may or may not be identified in the broken-down glands of the neck.

The general medicinal measures for the relief of this condition, which have been employed empirically for many years—the iodids, sodium salicylat, cod liver oil, etc.—have all very definite indications when this relationship is grasped.

In the early acute stages, the internal administration of atropin or belladonna in small doses for a few days is often of great benefit, and has been widely employed for years by rhinologists for the purpose of drying up nasal secretion and diminishing pressure. To my mind, in the treatment of phlyctenulosis, this procedure parallels too closely the use of opiates in intestinal conditions, which was largely discarded years ago because, by locking up deleterious elements, it eventually did more harm than good.

The shrinking of the nasal tissues about the ethmoidal ostium, to afford free drainage, and the liberal, daily application of a 2 per cent solution of silver nitrate to the middle turbinate and neighboring nasal tissues, by means of a dropper, is to me a far more logical procedure, as it disinfects the local tissues so far as is possible, depletes the local circulation, and produces a free outpouring of the sinus contents.

The internal administration of the iodids, *in small doses*, further promotes free sinus drainage by causing the secretion to become more fluid, and at the same time tones up the depraved mucous membranes. Large doses of the iodids in these cases are frequently injurious, as the intumescence of the nasal tissues, often seen when large doses are employed, blocks sinus drainage and so defeats the very purpose for which the drug is employed.

SUMMARY.

Taking the queries made, in the order given:

1. The primary attack of phlyctenulosis follows the acute infections of childhood so frequently because an infection of the ethmoidal labyrinth has occurred during the disease, and a secondary infection has taken place owing to the diminished resistance of the intrasinus tissues.

2. The process is constantly unilaeral in some cases, because only one ethmoid has been infected—that on the same side as the affected eye.

3. Some of these patients appear robust and healthy, because the secondarily infecting organisms are less virulent and the constitution of the

child more resistant to the toxins absorbed from the local focus.

4. In cases that remain clear after a tonsillectomy and adenoidectomy, the tonsils and adenoids, by producing an intumescence of the soft parts above, have been the principal factors creating obstruction to sinus drainage.

5 and 6. Given hyperplasia of the middle turbinate and intrasinus tissues, which is constant in these cases, many constitutional toxemias will produce an intense local intumescence with obstruction to sinus drainage. The toxemia most frequently associated originates by absorption from the intestinal tract, and may be controlled by a proper regulation of the diet. This eliminates one element which may produce obstruction to sinus drainage, but cannot *cure* the phlyctenular tendency because the toxemia is only a contributing element.

7. The tendency usually disappears at adolescence, so far as eye symptoms are concerned, because the development and widening of the nasal chambers has relieved the obstruction to sinus drainage.

CONCLUSION.

I wish to state that by following the procedure outlined herewith, we have practically eradicated the recurrence of these attacks in an orphanage caring for 1,300 children, to which I have been ophthalmologist for several years, the cases presenting usually being new, and especially following an epidemic in the institution of one of the acute infectious diseases.

I am aware that this course of reasoning may be considered heretical by some, but if the members of the section will study these cases along the lines I have indicated, in conjunction with a competent rhinologist, they will find that the same conclusions must inevitably be reached.

PERSPECTIVE FOR AVIATORS.

WILLIAM H. DUDLEY, M. D., F. A. C. S.

LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA.

This paper discusses the peculiar conditions under which aviators are compelled to judge of distance, and raises the question whether the tests that have been relied on to determine fitness for the aviation service are sufficient.

Perspective in its origin means to see thru, and in its usual application this term answers the purpose well enough, i. e., when applied to terrestrial objects; but when applied to objects floating in the air above the horizon, the conditions are so radically different, that it largely loses its significance. Hence, in contrast with terrestrial, I shall refer to aerial perspective; altho this term is often used with quite a different significance.

In an article appearing in this journal in the April number (1918), by Isadore Franklin (p. 236), discussing the general subject of perspective and stereoscopic vision, the author enumerates the various faculties brought into play in the ability to judge relative as well as positive distances, as: the interpupillary distance, the sense of the play of the muscles, which he states can be of value only within a short distance, the play of the muscles of accommodation which he considers of the next importance; next he considers the blurring of objects out of focus, i. e., objects proximal to, as well as those beyond the point of fixation; but here again the effect is confined to a relatively short distance. Next he states that the apparent size of objects is of great value, and it is my opinion also, that in what might be called terrestrial perspective, these various functions, etc., are of great importance in judging relative as well as positive distances.

For the purpose of testing aerial perspective in candidates for the air service in the U. S. army, the war depart

ment of this country has adopted a method which I understand had been in use by the German government for this purpose for some time previous to the breaking out of the present hostilities; and upon the use of this instrument must depend all of our reasoning relating to the subject in hand. This instrument is simply an ordinary stereoscope provided with a card upon which has been photographed various objects in silhouette so arranged as to give the examinee, with proper aerial perspective the impression of decidedly varying distances from the observer of the objects on the card.

This effect is produced by placing the identical pictures on the two sides of the card at slightly varying distances from each other; those appearing in the foreground having a slightly shorter distance between them than those appearing farther away. This variation in the distance between the pictures on the two sides of the card may be exceedingly small, however, for it is stated that so small a variation as 1/100 of a millimeter is sufficient to give perspective effect to one with aerial perspective.

On the card in use by the examiner of candidates for the air service, however, the variation between one set of pictures, and the set nearest is not less than 1/15 to 1/10 millimeter, and this produces an effect which is quite decided. The card furnished the examiners contains ten sets representing objects familiar to the Teutonic eye, such as castles, forts, lighthouses, cathedrals, battleships, etc., and over each object is placed a small number for identification. Much ingenuity has been used in the setting in order to deceive one who should depend upon anything but his perspective sense. For example, the largest picture on the card, a sailing vessel with all sails set, and placed at the bottom of the card, consequently in the foreground, is really the farthest in the setting, while the one next nearer is a small warship.

When taking up the work of examining candidates for the air service something over a year ago, the writer at once became much interested in this particular part of the work, and with the hope of satisfying himself as to just which of the special elements of vision, etc., were the determining factors in aerial perspective, private notes were kept in several hundred cases as to (1) the pupil distances; (2) muscle balance; (3) power of convergence and divergence; (4) the accommodation, and (5) the acuity of vision. These, together with numerous cases with abnormalities of these conditions, have been made in the private office; and it may be stated here that the results of these studies have been to upset nearly all of his preconceived notions.

In reference to the pupil distance, it seemed at first that this must be influential in this perspective. Sometime in December, '17, someone in official position appeared to be thinking along similar lines, for we received notice to record this finding—which question was not included in the questions on the examination chart—tho the writer long before this had become satisfied that it had no influence in this kind of perspective, as quite often one with very narrow p. d. would call off the number on the stereoscopic card rapidly and correctly without error, while another with a wide p. d. and with other facilities well developed would make a bad mess of it.

It did seem, however, that accommodation must play an important part in this faculty, till we took occasion to try the test on those under complete cycloplegia when we found that they used the stereoscope fully as well as they did with the accommodation intact. Of the question of vision, it may be stated, so long as it was sufficient to make out details it has not appeared to effect the ability for proper perspective. The varying size of objects seen against the sky is very deceiving to one whose perspective is not good, and in the use of the stereoscope, as previously remarked, the candidate will be almost sure to place the large sailing vessel well in the foreground, while the candidate with this faculty well developed will seldom make a mistake.

The question of the play of the muscles of convergence, however, is not so easily disposed of. Somewhat early in my experience in these examinations, it seemed to me that at least the possession of convergence with somewhere near the standard relation of abduction to adduction, usually reckoned as one to three, must be necessary to be able to qualify in the examination in this test.

Our regulations provided that in case the muscle balance test shows exophoria or esophoria of more than two prism diopters, the relation of the convergence to divergence must equal three to one, in order to qualify. However, after going over several hundreds of these records, it seems that my conclusions will hardly stand.

In giving the details of some of these cases in regard to the muscle relationship which were selected out of many, the numbers must be understood to represent prism diopters of convergence and divergence, abbreviated to ad. and ab. It seems hardly necessary to give the ages of the individuals, as they were mostly between eighteen and thirty, and a careful review does not show that these conditions are especially influenced by age. Among those whose amount of positive and relative convergence was at least fair, and who in spite of this showed quite imperfect perspective, the following have been selected. I will state that these muscle examinations were all carefully made with Reimold's optometer, equipped with the rotary prism, which was used in the examinations.

No. 269: Orthophoric, ab. 8, ad. 19, great difficulty with the stereoscope, disqualified.

No. 552: Orthophoric, ab. 4, ad. 14, no perspective.

No. 785: Orthophoric, ab. 8, ad. 15, perspective bad, disqualified.

No. 173: Orthophoric, ab. 11, ad. 20, disqualified.

No. 126: Orthophoric, ab. 3, ad. 13, disqualified.

No. 548: Orthophoric, ab. 4, ad. 15, disqualified.

No. 179: Orthophoric, ab. 8, ad. 14, disqualified. This record simply shows that these cases were apparently well supplied with sense of muscle play, tho it was not sufficient for proper aerial perspective; on the other hand, a series of cases with especially bad convergence, both positive and relative, proved well qualified with aerial perspective in the test. For example, No. 484: Orthophoric, had ab. 6, ad. 3, perspective satisfactory. No. 589: Orthophoric, ab. 6, ad. 6, perspective correct. No. 77: Orthophoric, ab. 6, ad. 4, qualified. No. 128: Orthophoric, ab. 8, ad. 8, qualified. No. 274: Orthophoric, ab. 10, ad. 4. (This man, tho qualifying in the perspective test, was disqualified by his 5° of exophoria.) No. 688: Orthophoric, ab. 11, ad. 9, qualified. No. 772: Orthophoric, ab. 12, ad. 8, qualified. No. 193: Orthophoric, ab. 12, ad. 10, qualified.

This shows that so far as our experience goes, in the examination of a large number of prospective aviators, supplemented by a good number of similar cases in the private office, none of the faculties possessed by our eyes and their adnexa appear, singly or collectively to be sufficient in certain cases to provide us with perspective, when we do not have terrestrial conditions to help us. On the other hand, quite a series of cases which appear particularly disqualifying, are able to present a perfect aerial perspective.

Taking into account these considerations, the question arises, upon what then must we depend for our ability to look into space and determine, aside from size, of two or more objects, which is nearer or farther from us. In Dr. Franklin's article, previously referred to, he makes the statement which appears to come very near my own conclusion when he states—"the sense of depth and solidity are neither essentially ocular, nor tactile, nor muscular in their nature; but are a psychic complex, outgrowing principally from three (previously mentioned), senses, but embracing other mental reactions to bodily experience. Or to put it another, briefer way: for our ability to determine perspective in space, the fac-

ulty now under consideration, there must be present some special cerebral center, probably closely associated with centers controlling muscle balance, and possibly some of our other ocular faculties, with which by the aid of binocular single vision we are able to exhibit this particular function.

Now a word in regard to the practical application of these muscle tests. The question has come to mind as to whether the simple examination for exophoria and esophoria in the lateral balance in all cases is sufficient. This precise method having been adopted by those in charge of the examination for the air service presupposes that it is; and yet it seems quite possible that with practically orthophoric conditions as found with the phorometer, it frequently occurs that the convergence is low, and in fact it may have its relation to divergence reversed as occurred in some of the cases reported, and yet be given a passing mark.

The danger of this condition—weak convergence—under the trying conditions in which the eyes of the pilot are placed, Col. W. H. Wilmer has recently stated (Arch. of Ophthalmol. v. 47, p. 447). "After the strain of service the tendency of the weak muscle becomes a manifest error, a weak convergence becomes a dynamic divergent squint." From the fact that so many students in the air service die from accident—in many cases it seems an utter impossibility to determine the cause—it appears entirely possible that something of this nature may have occurred, that due to the heavy strain he is suddenly confronted with a double vision, which so confuses him, that he loses control of himself and likewise of the machine, and one more is added to the fatalities of the aviation field.

OPHTHALMOSCOPY WITH RED-FREE LIGHT OF VOGT.

Demonstration of Method with Normal Fundus

ROBERT VON DER HEYDT, M. D.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

This is a description of the effects of red-free light upon the ophthalmoscopic image and the method of obtaining such light which was presented to the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, November 18th, 1918.

Vogt, now of the University of Basle, published in 1913 his first reports on ophthalmoscopy with the red-free source of illumination. Since then he has done a great deal of research work in the application of this new method, and reported much of interest pertaining to the normal fundus. To this have been added of late some very important diagnostic observations in pathologic fundi.

Our usual illumination for the fundus, the old petroleum lamp—the Welsbach—as well as the electric bulbs, give a more or less yellowish white light dependent on the temperature to which the respective carbons are heated. A nerve head seen with a white light will seem more pale and even "atrophic" when compared to one seen with a light more rich in yellow. Therefore the term white is a relative one and in a measure a matter of contrast. The yellow of the macula cannot be seen intravitally with ordinary illumination on account of too little contrast and too much yellow in the light. The rich in red reflection returning from the sclera and choroid also aid in reducing its visibility.

This yellow coloration of the macula, a much disputed point especially studied and investigated by Dimmer and Gullstrand, is now certain, and can be seen in the living eye by the light filtration of Vogt. He says if we are

able to remove the red rays from the ophthalmoscopic illumination and if the fundus is not excessively pigmented so that it will reflect a fair quantity of light entering, we can make observations by contrast not otherwise possible.

This illumination will therefore be green and in addition its yellow and blue rays may modify it to bluish-green. It is also necessary to reduce the ultraviolet, violet and indigo rays.

The elimination of the red rays from our light could be accomplished by prismatic dispersion, separation and a reuniting of the necessary components. This is technically a complex problem, the loss by elimination, reflection and absorption would too greatly reduce the quantity of light. A method by filtration is probably the most simple; however, the red of the spectrum is the most difficult to eliminate.

Our most common filters are colored lenses made by combinations of white glass with inorganic metals. Also watery solutions of these metals as well as anilin dyes in water, alcohol or gelatin may be used. Great difficulty is experienced in completely removing all traces of red. All combinations of copper acetat solutions on the one hand and anilin dyes such as Malachite green, acid green, brilliant green, etc., have been tried without success.

The blue glass of Schott and Co. is the only known glass to eliminate all red in the thickness of 5 mm. It, however, allows the violet and indigo to pass, which latter are contraindicated for our purpose, besides eliminating probably all of the so necessary yellow.

As filters, Vogt used two solutions contained in 10 c. m. square glass vessels with parallel sides and of about 1 c. m. lumen.

Solution No. 1—Aqueous solution of copper sulphat, 30 per cent.

Solution No. 2—Aqueous solution of erioviridin "B," an analin dye in shade somewhat darker than solution No. 1.

For illumination in arc flame of the projection type fed by a direct current of 40 amperes. Affolter of late finds a Leitz arc lamp with condensing lens sufficient. This is mounted in an asbestos lined box.

NORMAL FUNDUS.

With the red-free illumination many retinal reflexas at first quite confusing are seen. These are due to the absence of the long wave spectral components in the yellow blue light.

When examining with a purely red light by contrast a scarcity or almost total absence of these reflexes is found. Some of the surface reflexes are flat and wander with the motion of the mirror, probably a drawing tense of the retina in certain areas. These are not found in the macular zone. Radial from this zone we often find superficial small linear reflexes, probably folds.

The vessel surface reflexes are similar to the ones seen with ordinary light, except a delicate moss-like area between zones otherwise sharply demarcated is shown with the red-free light.

The yellow discoloration of the lens in age can be measured with this light and the contrast of fundi in monolateral aphakia is quite marked. The retinal nerve fibres are faintly visible with ordinary illumination, especially near the papilla in youthful individuals. With the red-free light, however, they are plainly visible all over the fundus and their course can be followed easily. It is most interesting to trace them towards the macula. The central fibres are directly horizontal. Above and below these are bundles that surround the foveal zone in a close sweeping arc at its temporal border. These are bound by circular enveloping fibre bundles that meet and cross basket-weave-like in a zone temporal of the macula. At first they meet at an obtuse angle which becomes acute and more acute as we recede from the macular zone.

The larger blood vessels are above this layer while numerous smaller vessels can be seen intermingling and at times covered by these nerve fibre bundles.

Fundus vessels seen with the red-free light are black on a light background due to the absence of the diffuse red of the choroid. Of particular interest are some of the findings in the macular region. Here very minute vessels may be followed over the edge of the macula into its depression until they are lost in the foveal reflex. A well-defined, small granulation of the macular surface is seen. Small macular hemorhages are easily discernible and larger hemorrhagic and exudative zones in choroiditis quite easily located even through a diffusely clouded vitreous.

The foveal reflex ordinarily found only in youthful individuals can often be observed with the red-free light in old age.

The macular zone is of a radiant yellow color and its diameter about one-third that of the disc. It is therefore easily visible and can be located in pathologic fundi in cases where this would be impossible with ordinary light.

It has been conceded and especially emphasized by Haab that the darker red of the macula is due to increased pigmentation. With the red-free light all pigment appears black. There is, however, no black mottling in the macular zone, consequently no pigment. As the macula is now definitely known and seen to be yellow, its darker red contrast found with ordinary illumination can only be ascribed to an intensification by the yellow coloration. This can be easily shown by placing a yellow lens over part of a red zone the color of the fundus. The red under the yellow lens will be of a more intense red.

We have therefore with the red-free light the first absolute demonstration of the yellow coloring at the macula in the living eye. A new explanation of why this zone is more intensely red with ordinary illumination. The ability to measure this zone more accurately, comparing it with the usually larger size of yellow discoloration found after death.

We can note new details of the macula as respects its size, reflexes and surface, absence of pigmentation (except secondary to disease), vascularization and the direction of vessels. We can also with it measure and by comparison in various eyes study the yellow discoloration of the lens in age.

Most important is the ability to follow minutely the direction of the nerve bundle and fibre layers in the retina—a matter of great importance; as I will endeavor to show in the near future by presenting some new and intensely interesting findings by Vogt in pathologic fundi as shown with the red-free light.

CORRECTION OF CROSS-EYE DEFORMITY.

J. A. Kearney, M. D.

NEW YORK.

This is a review of the author's practice and teaching in the New York Polyclinic Medical School and Hospital, based upon 175 consecutive operative cases.

The chief concern of cross-eyed patients is the correction of the deformity. Cross-eye (Strabismus Squint) cases as a rule are seen in consultation by the eye surgeon at certain ages and under certain conditions and it is always interesting to note the compelling cause of the first visit.

The child in arms is seen by us when a worried mother notices the infant's eyes are crossed, next period when as a sensitive youth he suffers deeply the gibes of his school companions, somewhat later on when he is chagrined to find that because of this deformity he is unable to secure a position for which

he has trained and is perfectly capable of filling, still later on in life when he discovers that the operation for the correction of squint is not a serious one and that it is possible to obtain a good result at any time from nine years of age onward. Certain other compelling conditions are familiar, the young girl who is not invited to parties given by her friends on account of her appearance, the young person during courtship for obvious reasons, and the cross-eyed who are avoided by superstitious people. No other case is more gratifying than when a client applies for the correction of a squint deformity referred by a patient upon whom you have operated.

Strabismus is paralytic (partial, complete), or concomitant (monocular, alternate). In complete paralytic squint the eye is in malposition and can not be voluntarily moved in the direction of the paralyzed muscle; in partial paralytic squint the eye in faulty position can voluntarily be rotated in the direction of the paralyzed muscle, but not to the normal extent.

In concomitant squint the eyes rotate equally, the affected one maintaining the same angle of deviation in all positions. Each eye fixes alternately in alternate concomitant strabismus; and in monocular concomitant strabismus one eye fixes and the other constantly deviates. Vertical concomitant strabismus is uncommon and we have to do chiefly with lateral deviations, convergent and divergent concomitant strabismus.

An infant with a noticeable squint requires a careful direct method ophthalmoscopic examination of the fundus of each eye. They are neurologic cases when we discover as we frequently do edematous changes in the fundi, that indicate an increase in the intracranial pressure. Measurement of the degree of intracranial pressure should be made and recorded at once, by a spinal mercurial manometer at lumbar puncture to verify the fundus findings; and if it records a decided increase above the normal, the excess of pressure is usually due to an intracranial hemorrhage at birth. There is generally a history given of difficult or instrumental delivery of the child and subsequent occasional convulsions. Spasticity and other neurologic disorders are the usual sequellae of birth hemorrhages, unless the clot is removed and intracranial pressure relieved by a decompression operation. If this procedure is deemed necessary the earlier it is done the better. Often we find in the fundi of cross-eyed infants optic discs that are decidedly pale thruout (atrophic), as the result of faulty development in embryo and sometimes associated with stigmata (high palatal arches, cleft palates etc.) elsewhere from the same cause. These are neurologic cases also.

Mentally normal children with strabismus, in which no changes are noted in the eye grounds, with or without errors of refraction existing, or in which recent exudative changes are observed become the subsequent charge of the ophthalmologist.

Since no one cause has been ascribed for strabismus, the usual attending abnormal factors may be looked for and corrected if possible, the earlier the better. Errors of refraction, amblyopia and faulty fusion are the usual concomitants.

If an error of refraction is present suitable lenses worn constantly give the best results in correcting a squint deformity at a period when a child's eyes are observed to be crossed at times and straight at others, no matter what angle of deviation obtains; or when the angle remains constant and is less than 15 degrees. Glasses may be worn by children as young as one and one-half years of age, and it is never too early to prescribe a correction for an existing error of refraction in a developing strabismus. Correcting lenses, however, seldom have any effect upon a squint deformity of 15 degrees and over, if the eye that turns remains in malposition for three months or longer.

The correction of faulty fusion is rarely successful because of the immaturity of the patient at the time the treatment would avail; and even under the best conditions excessive dili-

gence is required to get a small percentage of good results. An occasional good result is obtained in amblyopics when the affected eye is compelled to fix by placing a correcting lens before it, and shutting off fixation of the good eye by a shade, or atropinizing it.

Conservative methods have been tried out usually, on all strabismic patients who are particular about their looks, before the operative age (9 years) is reached; and when an eye surgeon is consulted a review is made of the history and treatments that had been given, and if stated nonoperative methods have failed to correct the deformity then surgical measures are advised.

Operations upon the external ocular muscles for the correction of squint are advisable when the patient is 9 years of age and over, and all necessary nonoperative measures have been tried and have failed to correct the deformity. The choice of procedure depends upon the character and angle of strabismus that exists, and the nature and extent of lateral rotations. Under usual conditions the deformity in all concomitant strabismic eyes may be corrected to parallelism by definite surgical procedures.

If the external lateral rotation of the squinting eye is found to be normal, in monocular concomitant convergent strabismus that measures 15 degrees of deviation, a complete tentotomy of the internal rectus of the affected eye usually corrects. If the deviation measures 30 degrees a complete tenotomy of the itnernus followed by an advancement of the externus of the squinting eye usually corrects. If the deviation measures 45 degrees complete tenotomies of the interni of both eyes usually correct.

However, if it is determined that the external lateral rotation of the squinting eye is not sufficient, but the amount of deficiency is made up by excess of internal rotation, or in other words the lateral excursions are equal, but the plane of rotation is advanced to the nasal side, then an advancement of the external rectus is done first and usually corrects a deviation of 15 degrees when it exists. If the deviation measures 30 degrees an advancement of the externus is done first and when the reaction subsides the internus of the same eye is completely tenotomized and usually corrects. If the deviation is 45 degrees an advancement of the externus of the squinting eye is done first followed by a complete tenotomy of the internus of the same eye when the reaction of the advancement operation subsides, and later on an advancement of the externus of the good eye usually corrects.

When tenotomies are indicated in concomitant convergent strabismus a complete tenotomy of the internus corrects 15 degrees and if less than 15 degrees are to be corrected, partial tenotomies are done. When advancements are indicated in concomitant convergent strabismus 15 degrees are corrected by the usual placement of stitches in the externus, but a little more or less can be accomplished by entering the stitches on either side of the usual position.

In alternate convergent concomitant strabismus advancements of the external recti of both eyes are done and the amount to be corrected is divided between both eyes. If the advancements do not correct the entire amount of squint, for the deviation remaining, partial tenotomies of the interni of both eyes are done and should be equally divided between them.

In the divergent type of concomitant strabismus, tenotomies of the external recti have very little effect upon the cosmetic result but the advancement of the internus may be regulated to correct up to 45 degrees of deviation This is a most satisfactory procedure on account of the good size of the internus muscle, and experience guides one in the placement of stitches to correct various amounts of deviation.

Operations for the correction of paralytic squints are unsatisfactory as a rule, but it is possible at times to pull and fix an eye in straight position.

The usual complete tenotomy in which the aponeuroses of the muscle as well as the tendon are severed, and the advancement operation, a modifi-

cation of Landolt's, give the best results in the writer's hands. In the last 175 consecutive operations for the correction of squint deformity, parallelism has been obtained in all of them. There were 155 monocular convergent concomitant, 16 divergent concomitant, 3 alternate convergent concomitant and one convergent paralytic (complete).

HYPERPLASTIC EXUDATIVE RETINITIS (NONHEMORRHAGIC).

J. W. Jervey, M. D.

GREENVILLE, SOUTH CAROLINA.

The report of four cases and statement of reasons for grouping them as illustrating this form of retinitis. A thesis submitted, and accepted, as a candidate for membership in the American Ophthalmological Society, 1918.

True hyperplastic, exudative, nonhemorrhagic phenomena in and apparently adjacent to the retina are rare. The appearances which they present to ophthalmoscopic examination are frequently similar to, and perhaps often indistinguishable from, the lesions resulting from previous hemorrhagic extravasations. In fact, the ultimate result, subjectively and objectively, of organized hemorrhagic and nonhemorrhagic exudates might conceivably be pathologically identical, as in the lesions of retinitis proliferans, which may have their origin in either form of exudation.

This latter form of retinitis is of course described in all modern text books, but the rarity of its occurrence may be realized by the statement of Weeks that he had seen but two cases in twenty-four thousand private patients, and of Schöbl, quoted by Weeks, who observed five cases out of 179,057 patients. The common acceptance of its etiology is hemorrhagic extravasation from the retina into the vitreous. It has been pointed out, however, that it may occur consequently upon the ejection of a fibrinous exudate or coagulum, with or without the presence of blood corpuscles (Weeks).

Leaving out of consideration, for the present, cases of retinitis circinata, which will be referred to later, the writer has observed at least four cases showing lesions in six eyes, of what appeared to be true organized retinal exudates, nonhemorrhagic, three of them being confined within, or adjacent to the retinal layers, and one combining this type with the currently described type of retinitis proliferans extending into the vitreous body. In none of these cases was there any evidence of previous or present hemorrhage at the site of the lesions, and in all except one the development of the processes was watched from week to week and month to month under ophthalmoscopic observation.

In view of these observations, which are detailed below, the writer suggests that proliferating or granulating or chronic inflammatory (neoplastic) tissue may occur within as well as without (with an origin within) the retinal layers; that it may occur without preceding hemorrhagic phenomena; and that whether within or without the retinal layers these lesions may properly be classified as hyperplastic exudative (nonhemorrhagic) retinitis.

From all that is known of retinitis circinata, it would seem justifiable to include this type in the above classification, the difference in the ophthalmoscopic picture being due merely to the different arrangement of the lesions.

The identification of hyperplastic exudative retinitis with the conditions described by Coats in 1909 as a "disease of the retina, hitherto insufficiently differentiated, which is charac-

terized by the presence in the fundus of large masses of white or yellow exudation; usually there are also groups of cholesterin crystals and hemorrhage" (Massive Exudation of the Retina, (Coats), seems more than possible. There seem to be, however, some interesting points of difference. For instance, Coats states that "in the only case of this disease which has so far been examined in a recent stage, the white mass in the fundus was found to be due to a disintegrating hemorrhage." In three of the subjoined cases the growth and development, and in one case the retrogression of the lesions, were observed by the writer over a considerable period of time, and at no time could hemorrhage be suspected of having a part in the origin or progress of the lesions.

Coats remarks that "in an allied form of the disease, or in a variety of the same form, strange types of vascular disease are found — fusiform and globular expansions, kinks, loops, glomeruli, etc.,—as well as the more common types, such as constriction, white ensheathing, etc." Interestingly enough, this "allied form" occurred in the left eye of Case I, described below, the right eye having been enucleated after destructive blindness had ensued on a continued development of the hyperplasia and excessive glaucomatous tension.

In at least two of these cases, II and IV, a neogenetic vascularity was observed as a part of the hyperplastic processes. This vascularity has an apparent tendency to disappear from ophthalmoscopic view after a longer or shorter lapse of time, but whether from actual resorption or from becoming obscured by cellular infiltration of leucocytes or the development of fatty degeneration, it seems difficult to determine, tho the writer inclines to the two latter hypotheses. The evidence leading to this conclusion was quite marked in the case of the enucleated right eye of Case I. Here the chief lesion was about the entrance of the optic nerve. In enucleation the nerve was severed three or four millimeters behind the bulb; and surrounding the nerve, beneath the sheath, and giving it a somewhat lobulated appearance more than twice its normal size was a mass of what looked macroscopically like chronic inflammatory, or granulation tissue with finely spun vascular elements—certainly well organized hyperplastic tissue, and certainly a part of the process ophthalmoscopically observed; and from indications at the time, proved by subsequent events, evidently not malignant. There is no doubt that this process extended further up the nerve than the point of severance. In Case II a well marked, fine vascularity appeared in the exudative mass, subsequently disappearing from ophthalmoscopic view.

In none of the writer's cases were there any of the stigmata of lues, inherited or acquired, and repeated examinations clinically and by laboratory methods of cases I, II, and IV, failed to show positive signs of either syphilis or tuberculosis. In none was there a history of trauma obtainable, except as noted in report of Case II, below. It is true that in Case I, while the second eye was giving us some concern, Dr. G. E. de Schweinitz, who was the consultant in the case, reported that there was a strong positive reaction to the von Pirquet test. However, this was subsequent to repeated subcutaneous and von Pirquet tests previously made (with negative results) under the writer's direction, and the possibility of anaphylaxis may be properly considered. Dr. de Schweinitz quotes the clinician's report as follows: "Altho the physical signs at the right apex are not sufficient in themselves to make a diagnosis of tuberculosis, and an X-ray examination is always a little uncertain, when these are taken together there seems little doubt that a lesion in the upper lobe exists, and the probability is that the lesion is a tuberculous one." Fifteen months have elapsed since this report was made and no further evidence of tuberculosis has been obtainable.

In all the cases except III (who was seen only twice), all possible points of focal infection were satisfactorily eliminated from consideration as etiologic

factors except as follows: Case I had suspicious faucial tonsils, which were enucleated; and later X-ray examination of the various sinuses gave apparently positive evidence of an old right mastoid infection. This mastoid was opened and cleaned out, but there proved little evidence of diseased processes present. In Case IV it was discovered that active pus tonsils were present, and these were promptly enucleated. The effect of the removal of these foci in Case I is rather difficult of estimation, but on the whole it may be said that the result appears satisfactory. At any rate the remaining eye is in a more quiescent condition since this interference and vision is normal with correction. In Case IV a sufficient time has not yet elapsed since the removal of the tonsils to warrant a statement of intraocular effects, tho the patient expresses herself as feeling much better generally.

In these cases the circulatory, intestinal, and kidney functions were repeatedly, and the writer believes, carefully and thoroly investigated with results negative in informative value. Cases I and II showed undoubted benefit from massive doses of iodid of potash, but this can hardly be taken as indicative of anything definite as to the etiology.

After observing for several months the development of the process in Case I, right eye, the writer had made a diagnosis of probable malignant tumor. Dr. de Schweinitz, however, after a careful study of the case, suggested "massive exudation of the retina—Coats," or else the rarer type described by von Hippel under the name of "angiomatosis retinae," but concurred in the advice to enucleate the eye, "inasmuch as in either circumstance the eye is sure to go on to secondary glaucoma and complete blindness, and as a staphyloma is already beginning to form in this eye." The writer is now convinced that de Schweinitz's diagnosis of massive exudation was practically correct.

With these cases as suggested above, it would seem proper to classify, clinically, those conditions of exudative, nonhemorrhagic retinitis which are typified by the so-called retinitis circinata, retinitis proliferans of nonhemorrhagic origin, and the hyperplastic retinitis of syphilitic and traumatic origin which are not of hemorrhagic formation. The cases of the type which the writer is reporting (like retinitis circinata and retinitis proliferans of nonhemorrhagic origin) must be regarded for the present, as idiopathic—much as we may dislike the term; tho we must necessarily accept the dictum that may be tersely put in this form: In the presence of exudate there must be a departure from the vascular normal. This, for the present, is as far as we can get etiologically.

The suggested classification would come entirely within the purview of Fuchs' statement (Textbook of Ophthalmology—translated by Duane, Fifth Edition, p. 589) of the anatomic changes in retinal inflammation, and would serve to clarify and make more readily understood the diagnosis of certain rarely observed and hitherto seldom recognized conditions whose ophthalmoscopic changes and pathology have been veiled in more or less obscurity.

(It is a matter of deep regret to the writer that, owing to a mistake on the part of his pharmacist in furnishing too strong a solution of formaldehyd, the eyeball enucleated in Case I was rendered unfit for laboratory examination, tho Dr. de Schweinitz and his pathologist made every effort to use it.)

ABSTRACT OF CASES.

Case I. June 10th, 1912. C. S. C. White, male, age 15 years. School boy. Excellent family and environment. Right eye went suddenly blind (in space of two or three days), two months before this date. Constant severe parietal headaches right side. Health otherwise good. Nothing of interest in previous personal or family history, except that his father died several years previously of some obscure stomach trouble (probably malignant). V. R. E. equals L. P. V. L. E. equals 20/30 — .50 S equals 20/20. No external evidence of disease. Ophthal-

moscopic examination of R. E. reveals severe advanced type of neuroretinitis with macular exudations probably going on to atrophy. L. E. shows beginning of papillitis. Tension R. E. equals +1 (palpation). Clinical examination shows no evidence of any sinus involvement. Sent to hospital for treatment.

June 16th. After several days' treatment at hospital with pilocarpin sweats and eliminants, the whole right eye is acutely inflamed (uveitis). Excessive tension and eye very painful at times. Applied leeches to right mastoid.

June 21st. Right eye comfortable and inflammation apparently slightly less. V. L. E. equals 20/20. During this time urinary, blood, heart, chest, and general systemic examinations have been carried out, all with negative findings.

July 1st. Possibly slight improvement in appearance of right eye. Subconjunctival injection 15 minims 1-5000 cyanid of mercury with ½ of 1 per cent acoin.

July 7th. Stopped mercurial inunctions which had been used for some days and ordered sodium salicylat grs. 15 every three hours.

July 9th. Inflammation right eye improved.

July 11th. Another subconjunctival injection.

July 16th. Papillitis in left eye almost cleared up.

July 28th. Inflammation right eye slowly, but steadily improving.

August 5th. Dismissed from hospital and sent home to Gaffney, S. C. Right optic disc very edematous, pale, and elevated about 3 mm.

August 26th. Suspicion of exophthalmos, R. E. Sclera still much congested. Anterior chamber shallow. Pupil 4 mm. diameter. Nearly entire visible fundus white, hazy, and elevated three to four mm. Is this a neoplasm originating in optic nerve?

September 10th. Large white area with heavy bunches of vascular formations seems to be growing steadily in right fundus now occupying almost the whole visible fundus and best seen with +13 lens, indicating elevation of over 4 mm. Eye, of course, is totally blind. (At this time I advised an enucleation of the eye with a probable diagnosis of malignant growth and a suggestion for a consultation. Dr. G. E. de Schweinitz, of Philadelphia, was consulted with the result that he concurred in my advice as to an enucleation, but differed in the diagnosis as stated above in this article. Previous to this time von Pirquet and subcutaneous tuberculin tests had been made under my direction with negative results)

October 24th. The right eye was enucleated by the writer. At this time the tension had increased to such a point that in places it was evidently telling on the integrity of the eyeball, and the elevation of the growth in the fundus was 5 mm. (The macroscopic appearance of the bulb and severed nerve is referred to in the previous part of this article. As stated above, an error on the part of the pharmacist in supplying a solution unfortunately ruined the eyeball for microscopic examination, and indeed even for gross examination. This was a serious loss, as opportunities for such examinations in this type of case are undoubtedly rare.)

November 16th. Uneventful recovery from operation with good movable stump for prosthesis. V. L. E. equals 20/15.

December 1st. Prosthesis fitted. (Patient has been wearing artificial eye comfortably ever since. There have been no subsequent evidences of trouble in the right orbital tissues.)

Here follows history of left eye from this date:

January 25th, 1913. Patient complains of slight asthenopia left eye. V. L. Equals 20/20—, corrected with —.25 cyl. 45° equals 20/15. The fundus appears normal.

May 1st, 1913. Left eye, fundus appears normal except perhaps slight haziness at the edges of papilla and rather large veins. V. equals 20/15 with correction.

October 6th, 1913. Retinal venous engorgement and papillary haze. Vi-

sion with —1. cyl. axis 180° equals 20/20. Advised refraction again.

October 13th, 1913. Slight conjunctival congestion. Vision with correction equals 20/15. Ophthalmoscopic examination negative.

October 13th, 1915. Mild acute conjunctivitis, recovered in a few days. Fundus normal.

May 20th, 1916. Vision with correction equals 20/20. Fundus normal.

October 3rd, 1916. Slight asthenopia. Homatropin refraction shows net correction to be —.50 s. ⌒ —.50 cyl. axis 160°. This was not a satisfactory examination and I did not accept results as conclusive. Ophthalmoscope shows retinal congestion, whitish glistening corrugations and roughness in region between papilla and macula and suspicion of stellate streaks about macular region. Macula not marked. Excessive formation of fibrillary blood vessels, very tortuous, in this region. Vision with correction (before using homatropin) equals 20/30. Advised examination of heart and kidneys.

October 4th, 1916. Vision with —1. s. ⌒ —.50 cyl. axis 180° equals 20/20, minus. Dr. Jordan reports heart and kidney examination negative.

October 7th, 1916. Retinal vessels less congested.

October 19th, 1916. Acute follicular tonsillitis.

October 21st, 1916. Eye and throat better.

October 26th, 1916. Fundus still improving.

November 8th, 1916. Double tonsillectomy.

November 27th, 1916. Vision —1. s. equals 20/20. Ordered constant. Fundus same as last examination. It will be seen that there has been a gradual increase in refraction from —.25 cyl. a little over four years previously to —1. s. in November, 1916. I am inclined to think, therefore, that the clinical signs in the fundus may be explained as accompanying a mild progressive myopia.

Dr. de Schweinitz was again consulted at this time, at an interval of two months after I had last seen the case. At this time he wrote me as follows: "The large stringlike band of white tissue about the disc and the oval hemorrhages made me think, in view of the condition (which had previously obtained), of the other eye, that an early proliferating retinitis is beginning." To this letter I promptly replied that when I had last seen the patient two months previously, neither of these lesions were present.

On January 31st, 1917. Dr. de Schweinitz wrote me suggesting a probable diagnosis of tuberculosis as referred to in the first part of this article.

February 12th, 1917. I again saw the patient and noted in the fundus "suggestions of proliferation" along the upper sweep of one or two of the temporal vessels. This was somewhat in the nature of hazy sheaths running parallel to the vessels, but the "stringlike" bands observed by Dr. de Schweinitz had disappeared. The patient was put on increasing doses of iodid of potach and vichy water, and was allowed no use of eye for near work.

March 26th, 1917. In the extreme upper field of fundus are several patches of what look like spots of choroiditis with some pigmentary deposits and crossed by an evidently adventitious and tortuous vascularity. The suspected proliferative signs along the upward sweep of the vessels still persist. The patches above referred to can only be seen on wide dilation and extreme rotation of the eyeball.

April 4th, 1917. Taking 24 grs. KI, t. i. d. Choroidal patches plainly smaller and less congestion about them.

April 10th, 1917. Lesion in upper fundus smaller and less marked. V. L. E. —1. s. equals 20/20+.

April 16th, 1917. Patches in upper fundus smaller and show less vascular disturbance. Just to nasal side of these patches is a fresh hemorrhage about one-eighth size of the disc.

May 2nd, 1917. Patches less marked. Hemorrhage one-fourth size of disc. V. equals 20/20 —, with correction Now taking KI 50 grs., t. i. d.

The apparent hemorrhage persisted for several months, but seemed to be

reduced in size, altho remaining a bright red. In October, 1917, in the course of an X-ray examination of all of the sinuses, a diagnosis of an old mastoid involvement of the right side was made. In November, 1917, the mastoid was opened with the findings referred to in the first part of this article.

At the present time, April, 1918, the eye is quiet. Vision, with correction, equals 20/15. The patches in the upper fundus are much smaller. There is some tortuosity of numerous small vessels. The faint parallel streaking persists along one vessel in the upper fundus, and the apparent hemorrhage, which is now not more than 1 by 3 mm. in size (ophthalmoscopic magnification), still remains as a bright red spot. I have come to the conclusion that this is not a hemorrhage, but a small aneurism. All treatment has been discontinued, but the use of the eye for near work has been restricted and the patient will be kept under observation from time to time.

Note: It would seem that this interesting case was one of true hyperplastic exudative retinitis of nonhemorrhagic origin in the right eye, evidently not a malignant growth as subsequent events have proved; and in the left eye one of the "allied forms" of the same disease to which Coats has referred. Evidently the vigorous treatment with iodid of potash was of decided benefit, for the process has undoubtedly not only been checked, but has undergone at least partial resolution.

Case II. April 25th, 1916. Mr. S. W. F., Newry, S. C. Age 30 years. Farm overseer. Three days ago noted sudden diminution of vision of left eye. Has had frequent, but not severe pain "behind eyes." Had fall on back of head about one year ago, stunning him. V. R. equals 20/20 no acceptance. V. L. equals 20/200 no acceptance. Homatropin and retinoscopy show practically emmetropia. Ophthalmoscope shows slight fluffiness of papilla, left. Faint yellowish reflex over macular area. Tension normal. General health excellent. Positively denies specific history. Does not use tobacco or alcohol. Left pupil slightly larger than right. Does not react as well to mydriatic. Possibly intracranial tumor or ruptured vessel. ℞ KI in increasing doses.

May 1st. V. R. equals 20/20. V. L. equals F. 4 feet. (Central vision. He seems to have a fair eccentric field.) Ophthalmoscope, left, shows a disc of white over macular region, about size of papilla; hazy edges and a few minute vessels, not elevated. I noted a peculiar faintly yellowish reflex at this point a week ago. Evidently a tumor. Continue KI. Wassermann reported negative.

May 12th. Same as May 1st. General examination, including chest, heart, kidneys, etc., by competent clinician, negative. Continue KI.

May 26th. Exudate is irregularly oval and somewhat lobulated. No longer any traces of vessels on this formation. Seen clearest with a —2. lens in ophthalmoscope. Evidently subretinal. Whole fundus slightly hazy. Taking 32 drops KI, t. i. d. Ordered continued increase. The exudation above referred to is about the diameter of the disc horizontally, and a little over half of this measurement in the vertical line. I think undoubtedly one of the rare cases of massive exudation of the retina.

June 2nd. V. L. equals 20/200, eccentric. Macular patch undoubtedly smaller, being less than a disc diameter horizontally and less than one-half of this vertically. Considerable dustlike opacities in vitreous suggests choroid involvement. Now taking 46 drops KI t. i. d. Continued treatment.

June 20th. Improving. Exudative mass about one-half size of a month previous, about same general outline. Shades off at periphery as if undergoing absorption. Now taking 80 grs. KI t. i. d. Continued at 80 grs. for ten days.

July 1st. V. L. equals 20/200, eccentric. Exudate slowly absorbing. White glistening area less than one-fourth former size and somewhat triangular shape shading off over original area into normal retina. Decreasing

dosage from 80 grs. KI. Continue atropin and protection.

July 15th. Few sparse punctate glistening retinal spots just above central fundus. Cholesterin? Central lesion slowly absorbing with slight tendency to pigmentation. Patient again declares absolutely no tuberculosis has ever existed in any branch of family. V. L. equals 20/200 (not central).

July 22nd. V. about the same as a week ago. Exudate still clearing. Pepper dust opacities in vitreous persist.

Aug. 4th. Only small pigmented spot about size of split pea (ophthalmoscopic magnification) at macula. Slight pinpoint vitreous opacification. Discontinue KI for two weeks and start again.

Sept. 1st. Left macula steadily clearing. Small pigmented spot remains. V. equals 20/200, eccentric. Minute vitreous opacities.

Sept. 15th. Improving steadily. V. R. (eccentric) equals 20/200. Had to stop KI week ago for saturation. Resume next week. Left macula now appears as having faint, grayish appearance, in size one-half diameter of disc horizontally and one-third disc diameter vertically; ovoid, and at lower center a darkly pigmented spot.

Oct. 6th. V. L. +1.s., (atropin) equals 20/200, eccentric. Vitreous clearer; macular condition about same as last visit.

Nov. 2nd. Macular patch smaller and less distinct. Now of more regular ovoid shape, and about one-eighth area of disc in size. Dismissed for two or three months.

Note: There can be no doubt that this was a case of exudative hyperplastic formation of organized tissue. The unusual opportunity was here presented of observing the clinical development from the time vision was first seriously impaired by what was evidently a retinal or subretinal fibrinous or plastic exudate, to an organized vascular formative period, and on to final partial retrogression, with undoubted permanent functional impairment. At no time was there the slightest trace of hemorrhagic phenomena participating in the origin or growth of the lesions. The patient did not return as instructed, but the reporter is endeavoring to get in touch with him.

Case III. November 30th, 1915, Mr. D. C. C., aged 35 years, bookkeeper, complains of asthenopia, frequent styes and chalazia; wearing: R. +1. cyl. 90°; L. +0.75 cyl. 90°. V. R. equals 20/20 +1.50 cyl. 90° equals 20/20. V. L. equals 20/70 +1.50 cyl. 90° equals 20/20. Retinoscopy checks this finding. Ophthalmoscopic examination negative, except perhaps rather hazy discs.

Dec. 7th: V. R. equals 20/30 +1.50 cyl. 90° equals 20/20.

V. L. equals 20/200 +1.50 cyl. equals 20/50. R. fundus somewhat congested and slight "knobby" appearance of papilla. L. fundus shows papilla markedly "knobby" and gray and white mottled, much like a piece of popcorn, with faint suggestion of vascularization. Apparently exudative (?) condition around papilla and latter is distinctly elevated (about three diopters). "Massive exudation of retina." (?) Ordered Crookes' glasses and advised careful watching and further examination. (This patient was of the neurotic type and became dissatisfied when I told him his trouble might be serious. He did not return after this second visit, altho his family physician made every effort to get him to do so. Eighteen months later his physician told me he was complaining sorely of his eyes, but would do nothing for them.

Note: This case, in the space of seven days, showed a transition from slight papillary haze to a well marked organized tissue formation without the slightest evidence of hemorrhagic antecedence. Nor had his family physician—a very capable man—ever suspected lues.

Case IV. September 29th, 1917. Mrs. W. M. E., Honea Path, S. C., housekeeper, aged 55 years. Vision has recently been failing. No pain or inflammation in eyes. General health good. For some years has been wearing reading and distance glasses, fitted by opticians; the present ones recently fitted. V. R. equals 10/200 —2. s.

equals 20/100. V. L. equals 20/20 and no improvement with any glass.

Ophthalmoscopic examination reveals in the right eye a very edematous retina with a few bright yellow spots (cholesterin?), one to two millimeters in diameter (ophthalmoscopic magnification), in macular area, and between that and disc. The disc is surrounded by an area of white with grayish clouding (probably edematous infiltration). There is a persistent canal of Cloquet, the anterior end of which is quite opaque. Tension normal (palpation). Left eye edematous retina and disc. Tension normal. There is no sign, symptom, or history of syphilis, tuberculosis, or trauma, and no indication of hemorrhages.

October 12th. Ophthalmoscopic appearances about same. Patient's family physician reports heart, kidneys and blood pressure normal, and patient otherwise sound. V. R. —2. s. equals 20/100, V. L. equals 20/20.

Examinations on November 30th and January 1st, 1918, show little change.

February 1st, 1918. Increasing infiltrated area around disc, right eye, being more pronounced at temporal side, where it is about two-thirds of a disc diameter in width and somewhat narrower on nasal side of papilla. The appearance of the infiltration presents the popcorn or cumulus cloud effect, and is best seen with a —5 lens in the ophthalmoscopic aperture. Fine vascularization is noted. The left eye shows indications at temporal border of disc of the same process commencing as obtains in the right eye. The patient has no teeth. A careful examination of the nose and paranasal sinuses is negative. There are, however, small diseased tonsils, exuding pus on pressure. V. R. —5. s. equals 20/100 (note myopic increase). V. L. equals 20/40, no improvement with any lens.

March 1st. V. R. —5. s. equals 20/100, V. L. equals 20/30. The exudation about the right disc is bulging out still more in temporoinferior area. In left eye the exudate now encircles the disc in a band about one-eighth disc diameter in width. Attached to the nasal side of this band is a thin, finely organized opaque veil like substance, presenting edgeways in the vertical plane, about one-half disc diameter in vertical width, and waving in the vitreous. The appearance suggests proliferative retinitis, with a suspicion of fine spun vascularity. Patient is just recovering from an intercurrent attack of bronchitis.

March 27th. V. R. —5. s. equals 20/70, V. L. equals 20/30. Fundi about same.

March 28th. Double tonsillectomy; local anesthesia.

May 3rd. The organized exudate about the right disc is increasing, being now a full disc diameter in width temporally and inferiorly. There is undoubted fine vascularization. From the hyperplastic mass, spreading for two-thirds of the way to the macula is a whitish haze of exudation, roughly triangular in shape with base the width of the new growth, beneath the nerve fiber layer and with characteristic appearance of serous retinitis, evidencing the extension of the exudative process. Organization of this exudation can be seen to be taking place along the course of some of the vessels, contiguous to the already organized mass. Tortuosity of vessels elsewhere in retina. Increased evidences of degenerative changes in macular area, and between that and disc. Several irregular bright yellow spots of varying sizes and shapes are noted, and in some are faint appearances of pigment deposits in centers. Growth and fundus best seen with —7 lens. The left fundus shows marked tortuosity of vessels. The proliferating tissue at nasal side of disc is appreciably less well defined and seems to be atrophying. V. R. —7. s. equals 20/200+, V. L. equals 20/30. Tension (Schiötz tonometer), R. E. equals 18, L. E. equals 18.

Note: There is an evident increase in the anteroposterior diameter of the right bulb, in marked contrast to the behavior of the left bulb, tho the pathologic process in each eye is clearly progressing. This phenomenon, it seems to the writer, can only be explained on the ground of the exertion of traction posteriorly by the process

as it extends backward along the nerve trunk. There is no evidence of lenticular swelling or keratoconus. The lesion at the disc could not possibly be confused with the socalled posterior staphyloma of progressive or high myopia, which, it is now recognized, is not a staphyloma at all, in the real sense of the word. The whole history and picture would confound the suggestion of such confusion, tho perhaps the writer's inadequacy of description might incite such a criticism.

CONCLUSIONS.

There is a retinal pathologic entity consisting of organized hyperplastic tissue evolving from fibrinous or plastic retinal exudates of indeterminate origin.

These exudates are not of hemorrhagic character, tho it would appear that they must necessarily have a vascular pathogenesis; and the tissue into which they are determined would seem to be analogous to granulation or chronic inflammatory tissue.

The clinical phenomena manifested can evidently be divorced from syphilitic, tubercular, or traumatic causation, tho unquestionably resembling the lesions sometimes seen consequent upon these origins.

The hyperplastic organizations are characterized by a white or grayish or yellowish or mottled appearance, in form suggesting a piece of popcorn or miniature cumulus clouds, showing a fine vascularity at some period of their development; of no fixed size; usually, it would seem, in one mass, often highly elevated from the retinal level; when in the active formative stage usually with well marked peripheral definitions; with a minimum of pigmentation or none at all; and, in the writer's observation at least, with points of selection for their development either in the papillary or macular area. If in the disc area the organized exudates probably always extend along the nerve trunk beneath the sheath. They are, of course, essentially benign.

As the pathologic morphology and clinical appearances of these lesions are evidently similar (tho usually distinguishable by location, arrangement, anamnesis, and instruments and methods of precision), to those of retinitis circinata, retinitis proliferans of nonhemorrhagic origin, and certain forms of syphilitic, traumatic and perhaps tubercular retinitis, it would seem appropriate for clinical study and for the minimizing of a certain obscurity, to group all of these, for differentiation from other types, under the descriptive head of Hyperplastic Exudative Retinitis—Nonhemorrhagic.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

OCULAR ACTION OF DICHLORETHYLSULPHID (MUSTARD GAS).

CAPT. H. L. PICKARD, M. D.

EDGEWOOD BASE HOSPITAL.

This is a preliminary report on the action of mustard gas in man, as seen at the Edgewood Arsenal. Authority to publish granted by the Board of Publication, Surgeon General's Office.

The reactions in the eyes to dichlorethylsulphid depend upon the duration of the exposure, and the dilution of the gas. Many of our cases were exposed for a period varying from one to thirty days, to the air contaminated by the gas in the plant where the dichlorethylsulphid was manufactured.

The continual leaks would have a varying effect upon the men, depending to some extent upon their susceptibility. Eyes once affected by the gas seem more prone to a second attack, and the period between attacks grows shorter, as the men are returned to work. Some cases exposed to the vapor or fumes leaking from pipes or stopcocks, would become affected with smarting of both eyes in from one to six hours. Many of the men would continue work during their shift, go to their barracks and to bed, be awakened during the night with intense pain and report to the hospital in the morning. In some cases where the gas would escape in jets as from manometers, rubber tube attachments, etc. and the face sprinkled with the chemical, the reaction would be immediate, and result in severe burns. Our cases ranged in severity from the mild conjunctivitis, with slight lacrimation and photophobia and only slight injection of the conjunctivas, radiating from the limbus in a triangular area toward the inner and outer canthi, and the width of the palpebral fissure, with pearly white conjunctiva above and below, to the high grade conjunctivitis associated with edema of the lids and chemosis.

The conjunctivitis has been arbitrarily divided by us into the mild, medium and severe forms.

The mild form shows only a slight degree of injection of the triangular area above mentioned, with very slight or no lacrimation but a decided photophobia. The photophobia seems to be marked from the incipiency of the attack, and the pain is usually of a smarting nature. The cornea clear, pupils small, active to light and accommodation, and the iris negative.

The medium cases show congestion of both the ocular and palpebral conjunctivas, with the straight scleral vessels engorged and tortuous, and the very fine vessels visible. Here the lacrimation is profuse and the photophobia intense and associated with blepharospasm. The lids may be glued together by the secretion but this is rare as the secretion is watery and seems to be more lacrimatory, and unaccompanied with a thick viscid discharge. No hemorrhages are visible, but the vessels seem on the point of rupture.

In the severe form, edema of the lids is marked, and the predominating symptom. In some cases the swelling of the lids is on a level with the supraorbital ridge, and extends to the nose. On forcibly retracting the lids, the secretion squirts from the eye onto the cheek, in clear, colorless, limpid droplets, which rapidly reaccumulate. The skin is red, tense, hot and the patient complains of pain in the skin and the eye.

The conjunctivas are intensely injected, both palpebral and ocular, chemosis is present and minute hemorrhages, scattered in the lower segment of the ocular conjunctiva, toward the culdesac, rarely above the median line and we have yet to see a hemorrhage on the palpebral conjunctiva.

In this variety the photophobia and lacrimation is intense, blepharospasm continuous, and the oculodynia of a high grade. The cornea remains unaffected and with the fluorescein test is negative. Pupils remain small, active to light and anterior chamber negative.

Our first cases were treated with rest in bed, cold compresses, cocain for the first day, once or twice; atropin twice daily. These cases remained in the hospital for from three to six weeks, depending on the severity of the reaction.

Latterly we have been using cocain for only one instillation, and for its immediate quieting effect. Atropin, three times daily for its continued physiologic effect, cold compresses, boric acid flushing, iodoform powered into the eye twice daily, yellow oxid of mercury salve to the lids and a Liebreich bandage for from three to seven days, or longer as the case requires. Under this plan of treatment, the stay of patients in the hospital has been decreased to seven to fourteen days, with rapid amelioration of all symptoms.

It is our opinion that the deleterious effects of dichlorethylsulphid upon the eyes, can best be treated by antiphlogistic measures, ignoring to a considerable extent the chemical composition of the affecting gas. To look for a chemical antidote to neutralize its action in the eye, would more than likely lead to a substance as severe in reaction as the poison itself, whereas, by treating the inflammatory symptoms, immediate relief is obtained, insofar as pain, lacrimation, photophobia and swelling are concerned. Previous to the use of the mercurial salve externally, about five (5%) per cent of our cases developed chalazia, hordeola and small multiple abscess of the lids; but since its introduction into our routine treatment, we have had no such complications.

SCLERITIS AND EPISCLERITIS.

HUGH MILLER, M. D.

KANSAS CITY, MO.

These notes were read in connection with the presentation of a case before the meeting of the Kansas City Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Club, October 17th, 1918.

The etiology is somewhat obscure and probably from a constitutional disturbance rather than a local affection. We find in literature that the following are causative factors: Rheumatism, tuberculosis, syphilis, menstrual disturbances and others.

Rheumatism itself has been obscure in etiology. We now attribute as a causative fact of rheumatism toxic absorption principally from the oral cavity, pyorrhea and tonsils. So we would at this time say simply toxic absorption. It is a question whether we have true scleritis and episcleritis from tubercular bacilli. As to syphilis I have been unable to find any literature definitely showing characteristic scleritis except where it is secondary to iritis or keratitis.

That it may be from menstrual disturbances I have doubts. I have had but three cases in my experience, two in men and one woman; in the latter there were no indications of genital disturbances. The tonsils and dental pyorrhea are the places where we should seek for an explanation of these conditions. I am quite confident that scleritis is a local manifestation of constitutional absorption of toxins. Our most recent observations in toxic absorptions are explaining many pathologic conditions that previously were obscure.

Objective Symptoms.—We find some millimeters from the cornea a hyperemic area with an elevated slate colored center. There may be one or more of these areas at the same time, on the same eyeball. Seldom are both eyes involved at the same time. These areas are variable in size and shape, depending upon the intensity of the disease. It may be simply episcleritis, involving only the tissue covering the sclera, or it may extend thru the entire thickness of the sclera, in fact include the choroid as has been shown by microscopic investigation.

Subjective Symptoms.—Dull, heavy ache is the usual nature of the pain. Sometimes sharp shooting pain. The pain is produced principally by pressure, as I desire to show further on. There is lacrimation and slight photophobia. The diagnosis is made by the inspection of the eye, where we find the characteristic areas.

Progress.—The healing of one area requires from two to six weeks. Oftentimes before the first has recovered, a second or third inflammatory area has

appeared, which may be near the original site or on any part of the anterior hemisphere of the globe, usually several millimeters posterior to the border of the cornea. It is known to be recurrent and chronic and to run on several years. Prognosis is favorable as to sight, provided the intraocular tissues are not involved. When the choroid, ciliary body, or iris becomes involved, prognosis is unfavorable.

Sequels.—After the inflammatory period is past there is left in episcleritis simply a dusky area. But in scleritis the conformity of the globe has changed. In one case I had, an anterior staphyloma appeared at each point of the inflammatory area. The inflammatory process had almost completely encircled the globe so that these nodules reminded one of a potato, that had taken second growth. There may still be vision in eyes that have had such inflammation, but the irregular astigmatism produced is next to impossible to neutralize.

Treatment.—Treatment in our text books has principally followed the lines of that suggested by etiology. I believe now that we should look for some local source of the infection with a purpose of shortening the course of the disease. I desire to present a case to-night for the purpose of bringing out some points in the foregoing discussion:

Case.—Mr. G. F. of Kansas City, Mo., came to my office September 7, stating that he had had a cinder removed which had been buried in the sclera. The eye was still painful and he desired that I ascertain if there were more foreign particles. I found but a red area and no remaining particles of cinder. I dismissed him feeling that there had probably been a foreign particle embedded. This original area I now believe, was simply the beginning of his present trouble; and there probably had been no cinder there at all, but the small and darkened spot had the appearance of a foreign body which some one had attempted to remove.

On the 29th of September he presented himself to me in great pain. I found deep episcleritis or scleritis near the site of the former area, and sent him to the hospital. For a week following September 29th he suffered great pain, notwithstanding he was taking fifteen grains of salicylat of soda every four hours, and atropin instilled in the eye every six hours. He finally became easier. The above drug kept him quite comfortable. About October 10th he had another flare up, pain exceeding that which he had had on the previous occasion, when on inspection I found this second area beneath the upper lid. Saturday morning, the 12th of October, I operated on this last inflammatory area.

The operative procedure was as follows: After dissecting freely the conjunctiva and episcleral tissue down to the dark elevated area I transfixed it with a fine cutting instrument. It is necessary that the transfixing instrument enter at a tangent to the eyeball. Promptly the discoloration disappeared (five days later the bluish discoloration reappeared, but it is a flattened area instead of a tumor as before). I dressed the eye with a pad of gauze and put the patient to bed.

In a brief survey of the literature I have not found any describing this procedure for scleritis. While it is a new idea I felt it was a rational one and at least could do no harm. Tho this operation may not prohibit attacks in other locations of the sclera or hasten complete recovery it would seem to lessen the danger of extension toward other internal ocular structures.

The operation gave instant relief from pain, and the patient has had perfect comfort to the present time. Before the operation drugs only partially relieved the pain, since then none has been necessary. I can most certainly recommend the procedure so far as the comfort of the patient is concerned. The influence on the disease is yet to be determined. As to this patient's tonsils, they are to be removed at an early date and I hope to make a further report on the case.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARDIZING TEST CARDS.

Presented to the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June 14th, 1918.

The work of your Committee for the past year has been done on the figures designed for the testing of those who are not familiar with the letters of the various alphabets. Essentially the same plan of comparative testing of the different figures was used. Over 180 different figures have been tested, the collection and preparation of these figures having been done by Dr. Ewing.

The Committee has thus selected the accompanying characters from among the various designs which heretofore have been submitted by authors on this subject.

Small variations in the size of letters would be subject to criticism because of incongruity to the eye, but small variations in the size of the figures here considered are not noticeable: provided the figures are well proportioned and are arranged to line up evenly with one another. The choice is based on the following principles:

(1) The lines of which the chief frame work of the character is constructed should each subtend the angle of one minute.

(2) The main body of the character should conform to the five minute visual angle.

(3) Slight unobtrusive variations may be made in the lengths of the lines of the characters beyond the five minute angle, in order to insure legibility: as it is practically impossible to construct pictures of ordinary well known objects in the five minute space with lines of one minute thickness.

(4) Masses of black are undesirable.

(5) Finer lines than subtend the angle of one minute are to be avoided in the body of the character.

(6) As any one character cannot be depended on for a visual measurement, the smaller characters for distances less than 20 meters should be arranged in rows of three or four each. The reading of the row is considered by the Committee to be the equivalent of V=1.

The interval may be in any ratio, but the geometric ratios of Green, are suggested as being the most advisable.

The characters suggested by the Committee are those indicated in the accompanying diagram. They consist of the ring, square, star, pitcher, cross, horseshoe, flag, fork, and chair. They should be printed in black on a creamy white background and the paper or board should be of sufficient hardness to prevent the type sinking into it.

There is a distinct advantage in having a relatively small number of these characters repeated on successive lines of the chart. Because in this way it



Figures suggested for testing illiterates, recognized at 5 meters by V-1.

can be known from the larger lines whether the person tested understands, and responds properly to the test.

The characters suggested by the Committee are for subjective tests to meet the requirements of useful vision. They conform so well to the letter tests that the two may be readily interchanged.

In addition to the characters here presented, the several more accurate tests, ordinarily designated as "one minute" tests in contradistinction to the five minute tests, have been considered.

These are the Snellen "E," the Landolt "Broken Ring," the Jackson "Incomplete Square," the "E" and the Incomplete Parallelogram forms of Pergens, also the several varying one to

three minute tests of Pergens, the "Cross-point" and "Line-point" tests of Wolffberg, and the Central Broken Line test of Ewing. Taken singly each of these tests is practically the equivalent of the others. They are excellent for employment in the final checking up test, when there is any question of a fine degree of visual acuity involved; and for the repeated testing of persons with greatly reduced vision.

The trouble with each of them is that the location of the "one minute" test must be indicated either by pointing to it, or by naming the position in which it is to be placed. This, including the instruction with regard to the test which must be given the patient, requires a greater amount of time than the simple naming of a test object. However, the Committee recognizes that these "one minute" tests are necessary for the exact comparison of the vision of the same eye at different times, or of one eye with that of the other, or for comparing the exact vision of different individuals; and advises that every ophthalmologist have one or more of them on hand in case special accuracy is demanded.

For obtaining an idea of the vision of very young children the Committee indorses the suggestion of Worth, that balls of various sizes be employed. However, in place of the ivory which is used by Worth, a noiseless material as paper, yarn, cork, or rubber painted white or black to contrast with the background would be superior for the construction of the balls.

Semaphores are special tests for railroad and signal service employment, although they may be considered tests for the illiterate. The Committee recommends those designed by Dr. Charles H. Williams and by Dr. N. M. Black.

Edward Jackson,
Nelson M. Black,
Walter B. Lancaster,
A. E. Ewing.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

NETHERLANDS OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

FIFTY-SECOND MEETING

Dr. C. Nicolai in the Chair

Translated from the Nederlandische Tijdschrift v. Geneeskunde, March 16, 1918, by E. E. Blaauw, M. D.

Experimental, Toxic, and Anaphylactic Inflammation.

F. Wibaut starts from Kümmel's investigation to produce inflammation in the rabbit's eye thru anaphylaxis. He describes the pathologic-anatomic changes found in his experiments. He found a moderate inflammation in the iris, especially at its posterior surface, a much more severe inflammation in the ciliary body, and extensive diffuse and focal inflammations of the choroid. He mentions destruction of the retina, slight changes in the vitreous, and in the choroidal foci mononuclear leucocytes with epithelioid and giant cells.

Kümmel concluded that these inflammations greatly resemble sympathetic ophthalmia; that these investigations prove that focal inflammations in the uvea do not need to be of bacterial origin; that if blood or pieces of tissue of sufferers of sympathetic ophthalmia produce inflammation in the rabbit's vitreous, this may not lead to the conclusion of the bacterial origin of sympathetic ophthalmia.

Von Szily, Adalbert Fuchs, and Meller protested especially against the first conclusion of Kümmel. Repeated experiments gave in general similar results, from which they, however, draw different conclusions. They are inclined to consider the changes due to the first injection. The inflammation is then in general toxic, and has the character of an *endophthalmitis septica* (Meller); but this Wibaut rather calls a hyalitis. It is the picture of a very serious inflammation of the ciliary body, especially of the tops of the processes; the retina is severely af-

fected and often destroyed. Serious changes in the choroid are also found, the more as the retina has suffered. If the retina was not affected or previously detached, the choroid was least affected or not at all. And if an exception is found, Meller reduces this to particular circumstance of the specimen. The giant cells he found are "foreign-body-giant cells" formed around tissue fragments, and especially pigment granules. The *"anaphylactic ophthalmia"* corresponds with the endophthalmitis septica in the following points: 1. The exudative character; and affection chiefly of the ciliary body, especially of the tops of the processes, and the retina. 2. The change of the exudate into connective tissue with formation of "Schwarten" with retina and ciliary body, and the appearance of large cells, as epithelioid and giant cells. 3. The dependence of the affection of the choroid on that of the retina.

Meller does not consider these changes as anaphylactic, but considers them more as depending on the poisonous character of the serum of the first and second injections. Among the described eyes there is, however, one which even to him has shown anaphylactic phenomena. The first injection was in the vitreous and a renewal of the inflammation followed an intravenous injection. The iris was found richer in cells with nodular foci and plasma cells, moderately strong exudation of and infiltration with round cells in the ciliary body. The retina has suffered only in its fine texture, the choroid contains more cells than normal; the cells lie in groups, chiefly plasma cells, with tendency to break thru the pigment epithelium. The optic nerve is inflamed and the choroid shows in its neighborhood more changes than elsewhere.

Wibaut used for first and second injections freshly sterile horse serum. After injection of this in the vitreous, a rabbit's eye shows only in the first days a slight vitreous opacity and slight hyperemia. An eye injected three days ago with 0.2 cc. horse serum shows large fluid-blebs in the epithelium of the cilary processes, the fluid contents of which are somewhat strongly stained and contain some remains of the vitreous.

The anaphylactic inflammations were produced by a first intravenous injection followed, after an incubation time of some 14 days, by one single injection in the vitreous. After 24 hours rather regularly a severe inflammation is found with much exudate in the anterior chamber, deposits on the membrane of Descemet, swelling and hyperemia of the iris, and formation of synechia. The fundus is hardly seen thru vitreous opacities. An eye enucleated 5 hours after injection shows, as the only change, blebs in and below the epithelium of the ciliary body. These are to be considered a beginning of exudation.

At 24 hours after the injection the eye showed the clinical signs of very severe iridocyclitis. The cornea was nearly normal. The anterior chamber contained polynuclear leucocytes and lymphocytes, many with pigment granules. The exudate formed also some spots on Descemet's membrane. There was the commencement of infiltration at the pupillary margin, and a little more at the irisroot. The ciliary body showed extensive inflammation. The ciliary processes were much thickened, and in all folds was formed exudate.

The thickening was partly due to infiltration, with strong hemorrhagic diapedesis, partly to edema. The infiltration contained chiefly polynuclear leucocytes, but the mononuclear elements began to show. The hemorrhagic diapedesis was so great, that at first view one thinks of an extensive hemorrhage. But tissue elements between the red blood cells diffusely dispersed, proved the contrary. The superficial as well as the pigment epithelium suffered severely in numerous places and were partly absent. The same blebs are found as in the first stages, but now filled with red blood corpuscles and exudate cells. Some few mononuclear lymphocytes in the vitreous. The choroid showed local thickenings thru

infiltration with mononuclear cells, with a small perforation of the pigment epithelium. The retina was normal. The sclera and the episclera tissues were much infiltrated; especially around the limbus, where was also a large focus with polynuclear leucocytes, and hemorrhagic diapedesis, which continued in the loose connective tissue of Tenon's capsule.

Another eye, also enucleated 24 hours after the second injection, showed a somewhat more advanced stage. An extensive exudate was in the anterior chamber, with many more mononuclear cells, and still more pronounced in the corneo-iridal angle. It comes in a stream from the pupillary space, but seems also to be formed by the anterior surface of the iris. A few Descemet spots. Hyperemia of the iris and infiltration of the pupillary margin, irisroot and in the deeper layers, where the ciliary processes originate. The ciliary body is more inflammed than in the foregoing case. The processes are filled with exudate, and also the crypts and folds. The mononuclear cells, chiefly lymphocytes, have become more numerous than the polynuclears; hemorrhagic diapedesis was found only in a few places.

The pigment epithelium had suffered seriously; in different places it was pierced by the exudate. In the surrounding tissues were found loose epithelium cells, with pigment free, pigment granular, and mononuclear lymphocytes, which have taken up pigment granules, slight exudate in the vitreous, a slight perivasculitis here and there in the retina, and some polynuclears at its surface toward the vitreous. A little exudate in the excavation of the optic nerve. A large focus was found in the choroid in the neighborhood of the ora serrata; and also in other places diffuse and focal conglomerations of mononuclear leucocytes, distributed thru the entire thickness of the choroid.

An eye enucleated three days after the anaphylactic reaction shows a picture resembling the foregoing, without polynuclears in the ciliary body. The retina was not much changed. In the excavation of the papilla there was a distinct papillitis. The choroid showed over its entire extent focal inflammations. Between the foci, the inflammation was less, or the tissue even entirely normal. Even the layers toward the sclera took part. Where the foci increase the pigment epithelium is often pierced and the leucocytes come outward. The retina is there lifted up, with damage to the cones and rods. Next the dark nuclei of the leucocytes were seen, much paler larger oval nuclei, which resembled the nuclei of the pigment epithelium.

Wibaut has shown with these specimens, that it is possible to produce inflammation along anaphylactic ways, which shows the picture of a rather clear uveitis. The focal appearance of the inflammation is rather remarkable, because a toxic agent was introduced, so that a diffuse inflammation could be expected. Wibaut thinks that Kümmel went too far, when he spoke of a great resemblance with sympathetic ophthalmia. But on the other side these pictures are very different from those of septic endophthalmitis. The second conclusion of Kümmel, that it is possible to produce a focal inflammation thru toxic means, is very important for our general pathologic thinking. Also the third conclusion will not find much opposition. A single injection of human serum in rabbit vitreous produces toxic conditions. The specimens resemble more the description of Kümmel and his critics, and indeed look very much like endophthalmitis septica.

Discussion. — Wolff would have liked to hear the name of Wessely, who first did excellent work regarding anaphylaxis of the eye.

Van den Borg asked if the neuritis must be regarded as directly anaphylactic or as secondary to the cyclitis.

Mulock Houwer asked how to explain the focal character of the inflammation.

Wibaut claimed no definite idea as to such explanation. Vessels are not always seen in the center of the foci, so they are not always perivascular infiltrates. He did not know that Wes-

sely already had done these experiments; he considered the neuritis as secondary.

Ocular Changes after Epidemic Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis.

G. TEN DOESCHATE examined 50 convalescents from meningitis. Twice he found a diminished vision 6/9 to 6/18, without fundus changes. In 8 cases paralysis of the accommodation was found, in 3 after 18, 17, and 10 months after the attack. Perhaps the accommodation disturbance depends on affection of the nasal cavities.

Spontaneous nystagmus was found in 25 of 48 patients. Some were free in the beginning, but the nystagmus appeared during the course of the rather long examination. Fatigue may have been the cause. Many of the patients, however, had labyrinthin-cerebellar changes, and other symptoms of the posterior cranial cavity lesions, so that an injury of the fourth ventricle, especially of Deiter's nucleus, may be surmised. Four times anisocoria was found and twice an irregular pupillary circumference. These and slight eye muscle changes might not depend on the meningitis. In one patient, however, an abducens paresis was found.

A distinct concentric limitation of the fields for white and colors was found in ten patients, and in four for colors alone. Three times this was combined with an enlargement of the blind spot, while in five cases fundus changes were observed. The light sense was diminished in three patients. Six times venous hyperemia and four times one sided redness of the papilla were seen. Choroidal changes were found in seven cases, mostly peripheric foci; and once a distinct atrophy of the anterior part of the choroid combined with hemeralopia. In all these choroidal affections labyrinthine changes were also found.

In four cases the papillary borders were indistinct with venous hyperemia, and once there was a greyish discoloration of the peripapillary region. Temporal atrophy with enlargement of the blind spot was seen once. Once in both eyes radial reflexes appeared around the macula lutea, while between the papilla and disc the reflexes were vertical. Vision, R. 2/60, L. 3/60. Abnormal pigmentations of the yellow spot were found twice. In one of these cases the macular reflex was a lying rectangle. In 35 patients the blind spot was mapped; with a 1 cm. object at 2 meters distance from the Bjerrum screen. Five times it was enlarged, once both, 4 times on one side. It was considered abnormal when the horizontal diameter was larger than 7 degrees.

The limits for white and colors were about the same. This may suggest an affection of some nasal sinus. With epidemic cerebrospinal meningitis, affections of the posterior nasal sinuses are found. The degeneration of the "peripapillary bundle" could then be produced by stasis or by toxins. But it could also be possible that noxious products from the cranial cavity penetrate in the intervaginal space of the optic nerve, whereby the superficial peripapillary fibers suffer the first and most. In the case where the blind spot was found enlarged in both eyes, both maculas were abnormal, while the disc margin was partly hazy. In one of the other patients the papilla was pale at the temporal side, which points to a more extensive affection of the optic nerve.

DISCUSSION.—Zeeman asked if the light sense disturbances were found with choroiditis or neuritis, and if the choroiditis and neuritis were found in the same patient.

Ten Doeschate found light sense disturbance with and without choroiditis. In the case with choroiditis and neuritis the blind spot could not be examined.

Signs of Graves' Disease.

W. P. C. ZEEMAN demonstrated a patient with remarkably distinct symptoms of Dalrymple and von Graefe, altho other symptoms of Graves' disease or of any other neurologic condition were entirely lacking.

Pulsating Exophthalmos from Multiple Myelomata.

W. P. C. Zeeman was prevented by her death a few weeks before, from presenting a patient whose clinical history he considered it worth while to relate. A 53 year old woman admitted in December, 1915, with an affection of the left optic nerve. Since a few weeks she had complained of a haze before the left eye. Wassermann positive. In spite of specific treatment her condition became worse. She returned home and was not seen again until the end of June, 1916. The eye was then blind, and had come slowly forward. The eye was proptosed to 7.5 mm., straight forward. The pupil was a little wide, and did not react to light. The disc was pale, especially at its temporal side, light was not observed. A probable diagnosis of orbital tumor was made, perhaps starting from the optic nerve.

As another antiluetic treatment was ineffective, operation was performed at the end of July after resection according to Krönlein. The exophthalmic globe was beginning to show pulsations. No souffle was to be heard with the stethoscope; the patient herself did not notice bruit. The diagnosis remained of an orbital process situated directly at the optic nerve, or an aneurism of the ophthalmic artery. The Wassermann reaction pointed toward the formation of an aneurism. It incited to special care, but could not be a reason for abstaining from operation.

Above the optic nerve a pulsating tumefaction could be felt; its form and course agreed with the location of the ophthalmic artery, and seemed to affirm that it was an aneurysm. Along the finger, a ligature was put before and behind with an aneurysm needle. The operation was done under local anesthesia. During manipulation a place of such slight resistance in the roof of the orbit was found, that an absorption thru the aneurysm seemed present.

During the first days after the operation somewhat more protrusion was present, considered as result of hemorrhage and reactive swelling. Large doses of potassium iodid were given, and after some months the protrusion had receded up to 4 mm. A radiogram showed the absorption that had been felt in the roof of the orbit. A year later she came back in bad condition; she was very weak and the protrusion had again increased. Albumin was found in the urine, and a circumscribed swelling of the left humerus was present; the diagnosis "multiple myelomata" was made. Death in the beginning of November. The autopsy showed the great extension of the myelomas. Within the cranium different ones were found, and at the roof of the orbit a large tumor-mass existed, which had eroded the bone. The vascularity of the tumor was sufficient to explain the observed pulsations.

Intermittent Exophthalmos.

Zeeman demonstrated a patient with intermittent exophthalmos, and the photographed displacements of the cornea under influence of different movements which hinder the venous flow. The cause of these orbital venous ectasias or varicoceles is yet unknown. Zeeman considers it not proven, and improbable, that the cause might be a narrowing of the jugular vein.

Cyclodialysis and Trephining in Buphthalmos.

W. P. C. Zeeman has performed 11 times cyclodialysis in five children. The first case was a decided success; but the results in the second, and third children were far less satisfactory, in spite of the fact that the operation was repeated in both eyes after a short but passing success, and of the third child the one eye was operated once and the second twice. Each of these children had important decompensation phenomena since birth, that is more than two years; and the condition was very unfavorable in spite of the use of pilocarpin since one half and one year respectively. In a fourth child the cyclodialysis made the cornea in the one eye clear and smooth; but a trephining of the sclera was necessary in the

other eye, on account of no improvement. In a fifth patient, where a trephining was done in the one eye with complete success, the other eye became decompensated in spite of two trephinings. A cyclodialysis produced at the end the wished for success, which has now lasted three years. V. = R. 1/60, L. 1/2, tension normal. In 11 cyclodialyses 3 times this result was reached. As far as clinically could be shown no damage was done by the operations.

Not satisfied with the above results, Zeeman performed trephining 11 times in 7 children. In three children the operation was done on both eyes, in the other 4 on one eye. A prolapse of the vitreous occurred during the operation twice. One was in a very large entirely blind eye, where ultimately it led to a slight decrease in size of the globe, which was an advantage cosmetically. It could perhaps have been prevented if after the small peripheral iridectomy, less handling had been done in making the toilet.

The second loss of vitreous occurred in a technically well executed case; the eye went to ruin. Twice a trephining was done in vain, both times on the same eye. This happened in a child, where one eye was operated with good success, but the operation failed on the other eye, and was repeated, also in vain. This eye had at the end normal tension after a cyclodialysis, and three years later the cornea and papilla showed that a sufficient normal equilibrium had been reached.

Eight operations (of the 11) were at first successful. In two, however, a complication has occurred. One was an 8-year-old boy, whose one eye was already long blind, and in his other only remained a small peripheric part of the visual field. Some time after the operation detachment of the retina occurred, which, altho remaining localized, had to be considered a very serious complication. The second case was a late infection, 5 years after the operation, serous hyalitis.

The retinal detachment seems to come from the continued and great lowering of the tension in the large and already old eye. As retinal detachment is known to occur frequently in old buphthalmic eyes, such a free drainage as the trephining seems undesirable in a large eyeball, and especially in older cases of buphthalmos. Zeeman thinks that operation should only be considered in very young children; and that the menacing retinal detachment alone is reason to desist from any operation in older children, and only in case of high necessity perhaps can be thought of sclerotomies after Snellen and Vincentiis.

Was the late infection preventable? Shortly after the trephining began its triumphant march, Straub modified the location of the connective tissue flap, parallel with and high above the corneal margin, which Elliot accepted in his second edition. His second modification was to prepare a thick conjunctival flap up to about 1.5 mm. above the corneal margin, and then a thin scleral flap until the corneal tissue shines thru; the conjunctival flap is thus strengthened with a thin scleral flap.

Undoubtedly, even less frequently than after Elliot's operation, a continuous drainage will be reached. But experience has shown that increase in tension is exceptional. Even if a renewed increase of tension should happen a little more often, and force another operative interference, it will be gladly accepted against the great advantage which the scleral flap gives against a late infection. The application of this principle finds difficulties in the thin buphthalmic wall, which, however, are not insurmountable. Such a flap formation of the sclera can be done after some experience in glaucoma of adults.

The vitreous prolapse could perhaps be evaded by replacing the trephining by a "scraping incision," as Professor Straub called it—an irregular cleavage of the sclera.

Some of the operated patients were shown; also two sisters suffering with buphthalmos, who had not yet been operated upon, who showed slow progress with good function; and an atrophy of the iris, which had progressed more in the older and seemed an ex-

ample of the aplasia of the iris, considered by Meller a causative factor in many cases of buphthalmos. However, in the younger child the same, but far less advanced change was found; and Zeeman believed that these are two stages of the same process, and that the iris atrophy is secondary.

Discussion.—Rochat asked why Zeeman had given up the sclerotomies of Snellen. He has a few patients, on whom he performs them from time to time, each half year, or year, a sclerotomy, and is very well satisfied.

Zeeman replied that the trials to make the trephining less dangerous had led Straub to a sort of sclerotomy, the favorable result of which was shown in one of the patients. In communications about sclerotomies after Snellen he had not found an inducement to perform this operation.

Visser inquired about the size of the trepans, and asked if many small openings would not minimize the danger connected with trephining.

Snellen corroborated the bad prognosis in older cases and considered operation indicated for younger ones. However, he points out the probability of spontaneous cure, and the impossibility to foretell this.

Zeeman considered Visser's proposition worth considering; and replied to Snellen that he had shown two children of 6 and 8 years as examples of a favorable course without operation. But such a course could not have been expected, as not only the large size of the cornea and the high pressure, but also marked symptoms of decompensation (opacities, epiphora, etc.), had constantly been present.

Dubois objected much to the repeated sclerotomies, as defended by Rochat. He also experienced therewith complications, and did two trephinings with great satisfaction.

Tresling states, that in van der Hoeve's clinic peripheral iridectomy is much valued, which is combined with the sclerotomy.

Zeeman also testified to the value of peripheral iridectomy, which had been done in all his demonstrated cases, altho it increased the danger of the operation somewhat.

Fixation for Objective Observation.

A. Verwey reminds us of the difficulty of looking at one point exactly, thru small motions of the eye and head, which are of different characters, have other sequences and must therefore be well distinguished. This is done most easily by a subjective method, described by Dodge in his excellent book "An Experimental Study of Visual Fixation." If one fixes a strongly illuminated triangle a short time to reproduce an after image, and if one then looks at a millimeter paper, it will be impossible to keep an angle of this after image on a distinct spot of the paper. Thru this "pseudonystagmus of fixation" great difficulties are encountered in the production of small after images.

The uncertainty of the fixation is clear and an objective method is necessary. The principal difficulty is to distinguish the head motions from those of the eye, or, more clearly stated, to find an objective measure for the unconscious deviations of the visual line, that is the determination of the size of the fixation field of the retina.

The cornea was looked at with Javal's ophthalmometer, when some calomel particles were on it. One can see the well known picture of the steps, and in front of it the calomel particles. As the distance between these two is 3.9 mm., a simultaneous sharp observation is impossible, so that even under the most favorable illumination it is difficult to observe a displacement of both points over one-fourth part off one step.

Verwey computed the influence of the sole eye turning, of the sole head-turning, and of the sole head displacement, as well on the rotation of the visual line, as on the displacement of the particle on the cornea, and on the parallax of this particle along the corneal image. The result was that equality of the parallax of all three sorts of motion corresponds with a rather similar size of the rotation of the visual line. On the contrary, an equal devia-

tion of the corneal point, with the three different sorts of motion, belongs to a very unequal size of this parallax, and also to very large differences in the rotation angle of the visual line. It follows, therefore, that the observation of the parallax gives a good indication for the knowledge of this rotation, and not the observation of the rotation of the corneal point.

One-fourth part of one step of Javal's picture is the minimum which can be observed, which corresponds to an angle of 17 minutes. These 17 seconds correspond with a rotation of the visual line over 540 seconds, 574 seconds, and 529 seconds. Verwey found for different people with exact fixation a parallax of ¼ to 1 step, so that a fixation nystagmus of 9 minutes to 36 minutes can be called physiologic. A photographic way of registration can refine this method, but only with complete sacrifice of the normal course of the motions and of the clinical usefulness.

The described method is also very useful for the objective observation of the movements of the visual line, while following a point in motion or following an unbroken line, or in counting points and stripes. The reflex for following a point in motion goes out from the periphery, not from the macula, according to experiments of Dodge. An interrupted movement seems only possible, when consciousness comes in play. Acording to Dodge "The real problems of psychologic optics are not so much connected with the mythical fixation point, as with the relation with each other of the surfaces with more or less distinct vision."

These conceptions have to be considered for all kinds of problems: For stereoscopic vision and the horizontal disparation, for determination of the blind spot and of scotoma, for positive induction and the irradiation, for the valuation of the localization of the retinal elements and the connection between tactile and visual space. The measuring could be of value perhaps for the practice with central scotomata, retrobulbar neuritis, and insular sclerosis.

Discussion.—Weve stated that the enlarged ophthalmoscopic picture in the upright image seems to be useful for such observation.

Rochat said, that the touching with the gaze, as is seen in fixation, also is observed during accommodation.

Verwey agreed, that the interrupted visual motions can well be observed with the ophthalmoscope, but that the instrumentarium for more exact investigation would become very complicated.

Photography of the Background of the Eye.

J. K. A. Wertheim Salomonson read a paper that will be published elsewhere.

Discussion.—Schoute asked about the normal reflexes of the eye and their disturbances. Wertheim Salomonson kept clear of these in the way first indicated by Gullstrand, by keeping clearly separated the illumination and the observation cones of light.

Wolff asked if a trial with color-photography had been made.

Wertheim Salomonson stated that this would necessitate a 40 times longer exposure and that this is not permissible.

Rochat described the method used by Hagen, where the illumination is secured thru the sclera, and which may be even simpler than the way just described.

The Smallest Differences of Direction Distinguishable with the Eye.

C. Otto Roelofs mentioned that Hering made a sharp distinction between the "resolving power" and the optical space sense. The first is determined by examination of the minimum separabile, the second by examination of the smallest differences of direction observable with the eye. Visual acuity and resolving power would mean the same. Roelofs had two objections, one of which he has published. (A. J. O., v. 1, p. 430.) He stated that the minimum separabile is a very vague conception and he considers it advisable to replace it by examination of the observation circle or the smallest observation breadth. The second objection relates to the comparison of

the visual acuity with the resolving power.

Roelofs wishes a sharp distinction between the examination for the smallest observation breadth, and that for the smallest observable difference in direction. It seems, however, very one sided to consider only the examination of the first, for the determination of the visual acuity. This alone does not determine the acuity of vision. Straub called visual acuity: The power to get acquainted with differences of direction thru the eye. Accepting this then the examination of the visual acuity involves: 1.—The examination of the observation circle and the smallest observation breadth; 2.—The examination of the optical space sense (better called direction sense).

Roelofs has investigated the optical direction sense. If two neighboring points are perceived, their direction does not coincide with the moment, when they are observed separately. It cannot be the smallest observable difference of direction, because the field between the two points is already observed in another direction from that of either point. Straub therefore considered that this smallest difference of direction was found, not when the two points are observed separately, but as soon as the points seen together impress one as a little bar. He proposed as the experimental object two squares, put together, that is, a bar twice as long as broad, as the most appropriate object for determination of the smallest observable difference of direction. The circumstances for such a determination must be as favorable as possible, and he doubted much if with such an object these were fulfilled.

He therefore used two sets of rods: (a) Bars of 1/2 mm., 2/3 mm., up to 9/10 mm. Here the relation of length to breadth decreases constantly and nears 1. (b) Rods of 1/2 mm., 1/3 mm., up to and with 1/9 mm. Here the relation of length to breadth constantly increases. The examination is done in a hall, 18 m. long with ordinary daylight with his emmetropic right eye. Someone else put up the cardboards, on which the rods were made with India ink. Approaching the test, the longest distance was sought at which he could recognize the bar as such, and could indicate its direction.

It appeared soon, that before sure recognition he could recognize with probability the direction of the rod. It seems that the observation of the bar depends on the recognition of difference between length and breadth. If the angles are measured under which the length and breadth of the rod are seen, then the difference of these angles gives under the given circumstances the just observable difference of direction. With "certainty" no mistakes were made, with "probability" the number of mistakes was about 5 per cent. A minimum for the length of the bar was found of about 80 seconds with great probability, or of about 110 seconds with certainty. A maximum for length of course does not exist. Length to breadth were in relation of 2 to 1 for the shortest rod recognizable as such. The smallest breadth which is found is 17 seconds; this, however, is not yet the minimum.

The smallest breadth of a long line drawn with India ink is 2.5 to 3 seconds. If the line is still thinner, then Roelofs sees nothing. The minimum requirements found for recognizing a rod as such with great probability are: Smallest length about 60; smallest breadth about 3, smallest difference between length and breadth about 12 seconds.

If now a rod 80 seconds long and 68 seconds broad is taken, it cannot be recognized. The explanation must be found in the difference between the true length and breadth, and the observed or apparent length. The demands for a rod to be used as an experimental object in the examination of the smallest difference observable in direction, must be that in the first place the apparent length and breadth bear the same proportion as the true length and breadth. This is not fulfilled when astigmatism exists, nor when the breadth of the rod is smaller than the diameter of the observation circle. This last one is for the em-

metropic eye about 50 seconds. All rods thinner will therefore be apparently too broad and thus unfit for this examination. The breadth of a rod influences the perception of the length. In general, the larger breadth with small rods will favor a more just appreciation of length, and also reversely a greater length will give a more just appreciation of breadth. The apparent length will be relatively too small in such a case. We may therefore expect the most accurate results by using the broader rods. More investigations were made with other objects; a cross, broken line, etc. The observation of the difference in direction depends on different factors, as the form of the object, the size of the observation circle. With objects smaller than the observation circle we will never be able to find out the smallest observable difference in direction. The light sense is undoubtedly of great influence.

According to Roelofs the examination of the visual acuity ought to be divided into an investigation of the smallest observable difference of direction. Snellen's letters and similar optotypes may satisfy clinically, they are certainly not satisfactory for physiologic investigation, and the more accurate following up of changes in some pathologic cases. The principal aim of this communication was to determine experimentally the best methods for such examination. (This paper also appeared separately in the Tydschr. v. Gen., June 15, 1918, with illustrations.)

Discussion.—Wertheim Salomonson would produce the results differently. The number of observations accidentally guessed right, probably is as large as the number of mistakes. He would put the number of right observations = 100 lessened by the double number of wrong data.

Waardenburg asked if optical illusion while looking at the rods can surmount the vertical dimension.

Roelofs accepts with pleasure Wertheim Salomonson's suggestion. Differences in vertical and horizontal position can have hardly any influence on his numbers; neither can optical illusion have disturbed them.

Wertheim Salomonson asked if observation of a long thin line with a breadth of 3 seconds, may be compared with other results, where other retinal parts come into play.

Roelofs did not consider this observation of very great importance, in this investigation.

CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Dr. Heman H. Brown, President, in the Chair.

Meeting of November 18th, 1918, postponed from October 21st, 1918, owing to the influenza epidemic.

Superficial Punctate Keratitis.

Dr. Michael Goldenburg presented a case of superficial punctate keratitis in a girl, unmarried, age 25, bookkeeper, who first came under his observation August 30th, 1916.

Previous personal history; has always been in perfect health except occasional symptoms of flatulency, and the eye trouble which started about six months ago. She does not know how this started, or what brought it on. She complained of pain in the eyes, sometimes very severe, photophobia, profuse lacrimation, and at times marked disturbance of vision so that she cannot work. Her vision at that time was right 15/50; left 15/80.

Upon examination we found slight circumcorneal injection, conjunctival sacs filled with tears, pupils equal and regular and react well to light and accommodation. With oblique illumination one could see many small grayish elevations about 1 or 2 mm. in diameter scattered over the cornea. With the Coddington lens we found, in addition to these little elevations, many small grayish dots of about the same size that were perfectly flush with the normal cornea. The epithelium thruout was intact, retained its luster and did not stain. At no time has there been a tendency for these dots or elevations to join others and form larger ones, as we sometimes see in bullous keratitis.

This case has now been under my observation for over two years. I have seen these little elevations which come

in crops, always attended with pain of more or less intensity, disappear in five to ten days, leaving behind these little grayish dots and in another five or ten days they in turn disappear, leaving no recognizable sign of their previous presence. The crops at times come before the previous ones have entirely cleared up. At times there may be so many present that one cannot count them, and again there may be only four or five visible; they may appear in one or both eyes and at times alternately. For the past year she has been able to tell a few days in advance when a new crop was about to appear.

The disturbance of vision is entirely dependent upon whether these dots or elevations are in the pupillary area and the amount of lacrimation present. It is my belief that the pain is due to the formation of these little elevations, by which I mean that a fluid or cellular infiltrate appears anterior to Bowman's membrane, forcing forward the superficial epithelium, thus producing traction upon the delicate nerve filaments or corneal end organs: for as soon as these elevations have reached the maximum height the pain ceases and only the sense of roughness remains.

Every clinical examination and laboratory test has been made by competent internists, radiologists, rhinologists and odontologists: and all have reported negative findings. Every form of treatment known or suggested has been tried, i. e., rest by atropin, bandaging, bichlorid, and atropin ointment, subconjunctival injections, dietetic starvation, deep intramuscular injection of cacodylat of sodium, etc., but still these crops come and go. It is interesting to report that for the first seven or ten days that a new form of treatment is resorted to she would show improvement, then she would drop back again. She has during all this time also been under the care of a thoroly competent internist.

Her vision with a small minus correction can be improved to 15/20 in either eye when the cornea is sufficiently clear.

My object in presenting this case is not its rarity, but its stubborn response to treatment, and in the hope that some one may cast some light on the apparent obscure etiology of this case and thus aid in its treatment.

Discussion.—Dr. Tydings asked if it took the fluorescein stain.

Dr. Goldenburg said no. In superficial punctate keratitis it never stained. In herpetic keratitis you will have some staining; that is a point of differentiation.

Dr. Tydings suggests that we eliminate every possible source, particularly sinuses or tonsils. The patient in case of sinus trouble may have blebs come on fingers or back of hands. Wherever you have septic conditons you will almost always find trouble in sinuses or tonsils.

Spontaneous Hemorrhage into the Vitreous.

Dr. H. W. Woodruff presented a case of spontaneous hemorrhage into the vitreous. The patient, G. V., age 20 years, came to the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, April 28, 1918. He claimed to have lifted about 500 pounds and about two hours after was unable to see. Vision right eye, could count fingers at one foot; left eye, 15/200. Blood pressure systolic 110. Diastolic 80. Urine analysis negative. Wassermann negative. Tubercular test negative.

Treatment: Atropin in both eyes, pressure bandage. Internally, syrup ferric iodid, 30 min. three times a day. Hot applications. Referred to Nose and Throat Dept., tonsils were removed. Also given iodid of potash three times daily.

Discharged Aug. 25, 1918. Condition improved. Vision, right eye 20/30, left eye 20/100.

On November 2nd patient was admitted to the hospital stating that on October 25th he had lost the vision in the left eye almost immediately. No history of any strain. Vision, right eye 20/20. Left eye light perception.

Treatment: Hot applications. K. I. gr. 10. Atropin 1 per cent each t. i. d. November 18th, vision right eye 20/20, left eye 3/200.

Ophthalmoscopic examination shows extensive blood in the vitreous.

These cases are not so very rare. I have seen two of them in the past year. I had hoped that Dr. Faith would present his case of retinitis proliferans, as such a condition follows these hemorrhages.

The prognosis is not good on account of these recurrences and the consequent damage done to the vitreous.

I have just had another case at the Infirmary with a specific history. Retinitis proliferans in one eye and hemorrhage into the vitreous of the other eye. Had had so many salvarsan injections that we refrained from giving him antiluetic treatment. When these hemorrhages are repeated serious damage is the result.

Discussion.—Dr. Tydings.—Did this case fail to recover?

Dr. Woodruff.—He recovered vision in the eye with the recent hemorrhage. I refer to the last case mentioned with specific etiology.

Dr. Mundt.—What was the fundus like when discharged?

Dr. Woodruff.—Retinitis proliferans in one eye. No sign of hemorrhage except some vitreous opacities, but normal vision.

Dr. Goldenburg—Where do you suppose this hemorrhage came from? I believe many of them come from the ciliary vessels.

Dr. Woodruff.—I cannot say from what vessels the hemorrhage occurred.

Dr. H. H. Brown.—The case shown tonight by Dr. Woodruff is very interesting on account of the youth of the patient (20 years), and the lack of any history that would explain the etiology. There must be, however, some constitutional cause. Dr. Woodruff has made no statement as to family history. Was there anything in the family history?

Dr. Woodruff.—The family history was negative.

Dr. Goldenburg had a similar case in a woman apparently healthy, who originally presented herself with a unilateral neuroretinitis which eventually cleared up, although the etiology was never discovered and every test and examination had been resorted to. About six months later she suddenly appeared with the statement that she had lost her vision in that eye the night before. She was taking a bath when, without any warning, everything became dark before this eye. Upon examination nothing was to be seen externally, pupil dilated, reflexes both direct and consensual present, ophthalmoscopic examination was impossible as we could produce no red reflex. The diagnosis of a hemorrhage in the vitreous chamber was made, probably from the ciliary body. A consultant concurred in diagnosis, but not in prognosis. She responded to antiluetic treatment pushed to the limit; this treatment gave the best results for her neuroretinitis previously. Vision when last seen in this eye was 20/30 with some floaters in the vitreous.

Dr. Tydings.—I do not think that the etiology of her retinitis is dependent on any other factor than toxins. I have seen it in diabetes. There are many cases which could not be diagnosed. It might be either diabetes or T. B., and yet it is not dependent on any one factor. Any toxin might give rise to hemorrhage conditions in the retina.

Dr. Von Der Heydt.—In connection with these vague, spontaneous hemorrhages I have two possibilities in mind, not as yet mentioned in this discussion. One is hemophilia, for the exclusion of which a coagulation test can be made. If in a case, the hemorrhages are monocular, one must bear in mind the possibility of malignancy.

Dr. Woodruff.—We have spontaneous hemorrhages in the conjunctiva which are exceedingly common. So far there is no explanation for this. It occurs in people with apparently perfect health. It makes a great deal of difference where the hemorrhage is. These hemorrhages in the case of the young man are quite different from those cases where you have definite symptoms of syphilis. Might it not be that whether this hemorrhage came from the ciliary body or the choroid, might there not be some congenital malformation in these vessels? Quite a number of cases have been reported. They occur

over and over again thru a period of years.

Ophthalmoscopy with the Redfree Light of Vogt.

Dr. Robert Von der Heydt read a paper on this subject. See p. 122.

Discussion.—Dr. Brown.—It is useless to say that a paper such as the one presented entails an enormous amount of work, and I know that I am voicing the sentiments of the Society when I say that we owe a great deal to the author for presenting this very interesting subject. I know that the doctor needs encouragement in this work. Are there any suggestions or questions?

Dr. Woodruff.—I have enjoyed this paper very much and have long been hoping for a light that I have always thought of as an artificial daylight. Occasionally in examining a fundus I have been able to utilize sunlight, and it is quite a revelation. There is a very different appearance of the fundus by daylight. It is important in making differential diagnosis in conditions of the nerveheads. I expect to see the day when we may have an artificial daylight.

Dr. Noble thought the Society was to be felicitated on having a member who is taking up this work. It had occurred to him that it would be a proper thing for the officers of the Society to get behind Dr. Von der Heydt and in some way aid him in perfecting it.

Dr. Mundt.—The subject discussed by Dr. Von der Heydt is very interesting and it seems that when he has finished the work we will have a diagnostic method of great value.

Regarding the subject raised by Dr. Woodruff of the desire for an artificial daylight. For well over a year I have used my perimeter in my dark room which is illuminated by a Day-Light Nitrogen lamp known as a C2 Day-Light lamp. Under this light colors are the same as in daylight and it has the one great advantage of being a constant illuminant. This lamp was introduced to the medical profession by Peter.

Dr. Smith.—Has the doctor investigated if glass manufacturers know of any reason why chemical ingredients cannot be combined in glass, so that the trouble of having chambers containing the solutions would be eliminated?

Dr. Goldenburg.—An interesting phase would be the ability to trace the nerve fibers from the nervehead to the macula. I did not know these fibers ran beyond the macula. It would be exceedingly interesting in cases of retrobulbar neuritis.

Dr. Murray.—When I was inspecting a hospital in Pisa, Italy, in 1906, my attention was called to a small hole in the wall of the dark room, communicating with the outside. The doctor explained to me that it was their means of utilizing natural daylight for ophthalmoscopic examinations. The appearance of the fundus is certainly vastly different when using this source of illumination from what we are accustomed to, and it is easy to conceive that our ideas regarding fundus findings in general may be greatly changed when such a light as Dr. Von der Heydt describes has been adapted to practical use.

Dr. Von der Heydt.—(In closing.) Dr. Goldenburg has anticipated my next paper regarding optic neuritis. In cases of retrobulbar neuritis Vogt finds that the macula papillary bundles have disappeared. Regarding Dr. Wood ruff's remarks pertaining to ophthalmoscopy by sunlight, this would be ideal for diagnosing optic nerve atrophy, as its qualities would be almost constant. With artificial light we may use one light now, and then another. Not alone may our sources of light vary in yellow, nerve heads in themselves are different—deep cuppings and plainly visible laminae cribrosa, also different degrees of capillary vascularization and tissue deposits, cause various degrees of white to yellowish normal discs. Again the lenses in our own eyes change as we grow older. Fifteen and twenty years ago a nervehead appeared whiter to us than it would today. The diagnosis of slight pallor of the disc will always remain a personal equation.

In answer to Dr. Smith, a glass cannot be constructed containing these chemical ingredients or it would have been made over there. They have been experimenting for years. The subject is quite complex. I have prepared all summer in order to be able to present this matter tonight.

ALFRED N. MURRAY, M. D.,
Secretary.

COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

DECEMBER 21, 1918

DR. C. E. WALKER, PRESIDING

October and November meetings were omitted on account of influenza epidemic.

Traumatic Staphyloma of Sclera.

H. R. STILWILL, DENVER, presented an Italian coal miner aged 23 years who, on stumbling in the dark, had fallen forward on his face, striking the right eye against the hard rubber handle of an electric machine. When seen two days later, there was hemorrhage in the anterior chamber, with crescentic bulging of the sclera above in the ciliary region. The cornea was intact, and the upper part of the iris had disappeared beneath the bulging sclera, the appearance being practically that of an iridectomy except that there were no angles to the pupil. The conjunctiva was not ruptured but was chemotic. The eyeball was soft and vision equal to light perception.

In a few days the fundus could be seen through the lens, which was not dislocated. The bulging of the sclera now measured 4 by 8 mm., with about 2 or 3 mm. of elevation. The bulging was dark blue in color, probably due to thinning of the sclera with the ciliary body and anterior portion of the choroid lying beneath. Vision with —2.00 sphere was 4/12. A moderate return of pain and redness of the eyeball, a few days previously, with slight tenderness to pressure, had been readily controlled by atropin and dionin.

DISCUSSION. Melville Black, Denver. It is interesting to speculate whether the large opening in the sclera will undergo cicatrization and closure. This eye might be regarded as an eye dangerous to its fellow. Should operative procedures be instituted, or should future developments be awaited? It is difficult to know whether to open the eyeball and suture, or to await the slow disintegration that is likely to occur, with probable ultimate removal of the eyeball. The eye is not likely to recover much usefulness as a visual organ.

Edward Jackson, Denver. The case reminds me of cases of simple extraction with prolapse of the iris. In only one of my cases was the prolapse excised; and none of the cases gave any trouble. The condition in this case is probably somewhat more dangerous than prolapse after cataract extraction; but if the vision does not go down more the danger of sympathetic inflammation is probably small.

C. A. Ringle, Greeley, believed that such cases did better if left alone.

Otis Orendorf, Canon City, had seen a case similar to this one, in which the injury was also due to a fall. There was no conjunctival wound but a scleral bulging about the size of this one, with severe reaction. The eye was retained for three or four years, but the staphyloma became so disfiguring, being also accompanied by pain, that the patient, a young woman, asked to have the eye enucleated.

E. T. Boyd, Denver, believed from the position of the wound and the engagement of the iris that there would be a chronic uveal irritation which would result in phthisis bulbi.

George F. Libby, Denver, would advise expectant treatment.

H. R. Stilwill (closing). So far as the condition of the retina of this eye was concerned the man would probably have very good vision. Like Dr. Libby, he believed the eye should be watched. If it were his own eye he would hold on to it for a while.

Thromboses of Central Retinal Vessels.

H. R. STILWILL, Denver, presented a woman aged 57 years, who had consulted him on October 24th, 1918. In the previous August she had noticed a "cloud" which came suddenly before the right eye, and since that time had been able to see very little with the eye. There was no history of injury or inflammation.

The general health had always been good, and her physician had reported a blood pressure of 135 mm. of mercury, the urine negative and no indication of arteriosclerosis or cardiac disease. The ophthalmoscopic examination showed the entire fundus dotted with hemorrhagic patches. The nerve head was not swollen, but was in large part covered by exudate. The *veins* were dilated and tortuous and in places covered with extravasated blood. Those of the arteries which could be seen were extremely small and thread-like.

William H. Crisp, Denver, reported the case of a man 32 years, who had come in an hour and a half after becoming suddenly blind in the left eye. The patient was tuberculous, and was living in a tent. He stated that he had had a similar attack two months previously, lasting only a half hour, and followed by perfect recovery of vision. When he first came in the fundus of the right eye presented the very characteristic appearance of so-called embolism of the *central retinal artery*. The vessels were thread-like, there was a puffy pallor of the general fundus, and a cherry-red circular patch at the macula. This macular patch had later given place to an irregular brown spot. There had been no recovery of vision. The lesion in this case seemed likely a thrombosis. The heart was apparently normal.

Discussion. George F. Libby, Denver, recalled a case of venous thrombosis which he had presented to the society some years previously. In this case the eye disturbances complicated a nephritis which was apparently due to a fourth of July drinking bout. This was 18 years ago and there had been no ocular or general disturbance since.

Melville Black, Denver. Dr. Stilwill's case was a beautifully typical one of what was formerly called apoplexy of the retina. These cases should not be confused with the arterial cases.

Edward Jackson, Denver, believed that he had not seen quite so many venous as arterial cases; and he had seen more venous cases involving branches than of the central vein.

Orbital Periostitis and Abscess from Trauma.

John A. McCaw, Denver, presented a boy, aged 15 years, who two years previously had been thrown from a truck, striking his nose and left eye on the cobblestones. Two weeks ago a swelling had appeared over the left eye, about midway between the internal and external canthi and a little below the upper rim of the orbit. The swelling, which was tender to touch, had varied somewhat in size, but at the time of showing the patient there was a distinct increase in volume, and fluctation could be detected. The upper margin of the orbit was tender. (Puncture of the swelling, with a hollow needle, after the date of the meeting, revealed the presence of pus, and of a disturbance of the periosteum.)

Discussion. Melville Black, Denver, suggested that it would be simple and advantageous to introduce a hypodermic needle into the swelling and aspirate some of the contents. If the condition was an inflammatory one the mass should be opened and drained. If it was a lacrimal tumor it might subside of its own accord.

W. C. Bane, Denver, described a case of multiple swellings below the right external ear and in the throat of a boy of 13 years, with involvement of the cervical glands, and subsequent appearance of a nodular mass near the outer canthus of the right eye. Examination of a gland from the neck disclosed a large-round-cell sarcoma.

H. R. Stilwill, Denver, thought that the growth in Dr. McCaw's case would probably be hard if it were malignant.

Edward Jackson, Denver, thought that there was some thickening of the periosteum around the swelling. He thought it likely that the bone was diseased as a result of the injury, even tho the swelling was not due to trouble in the frontal sinus.

Nodular Opacities of Cornea.

John A. McCaw, Denver, presented a woman aged 43 years, who had come to the clinic six weeks previously complaining of fairly recent loss of vision in the left eye. The history was negative and there was nothing to point to syphi-

lis. There was no inflammatory reaction in the eye. The examination of the cornea with the corneal microscope revealed fifteen or twenty fine white spots in the substantia propria.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver. There had at no time been any appearance of inflammation in the eye, either superficially or deeply. Under magnification, the spots had very much the appearance of the usual spots on Descemet's membrane. They were probably well forward in the substance of the cornea. The case seemed more or less of the character of nodular keratitis or nodular opacity, such as came on rather well along in life. There were no lines such as would give it the character of grill-like keratitis. The condition was more probably tuberculous than syphilitic in origin.

Optic Neuritis.

Melville Black, Denver, presented a man, aged 29 years, a barber by trade, who four weeks previously had gone suddenly blind in the left eye. The history was negative as to injury or infection. A Wassermann test was positive 4. There was a rather typical choked disc, without noticeable hemorrhages.

W. C. Bane, Denver, presented a married woman of 54 years, the vision of whose left eye had become dim one week before she was first seen on November 25th. The vision of the affected eye was reduced to 5-30ths. There had been dull pain behind this eye and a feeling of heaviness in it, and the eye appeared to project slightly beyond its fellow, altho the exophthalmometer revealed less than a millimeter of exophthalmos. The right fundus was normal. The left disc was moderately swollen and its edges indistinct. The vision of the left eye on November 27th was of the hand as an object, and on November 30th almost nil. The swelling of the disc gradually increased, reaching three diopters by December 2nd, on which date there were some linear hemorrhages, and the pain about the eye was so severe as to interfere with sleep. The urinary test and x-ray examination of the sinuses were negative. On December 12th six teeth, found to be diseased, were extracted, considerable hemorrhage following. On December 16th the pain was very much diminished and the swelling of the disc decidedly reduced. On December 21st the swelling of the disc was almost gone but the vision was nil.

George F. Libby, Denver, reported a case of binocular optic neuritis in a woman of about 40 years, apparently due to alveolar focal infection associated with nasal blocking. The patient had stated that on May 25th, 1918, there was sudden loss of vision in each eye, the right quickly recovering its sight but not the left. Dr. J. R. Arneill found the physical examinations negative. Treatment of indicanuria and a two months' rest were followed by restoration of normal vision. Then occurred an acute rhinitis, when vision dropped nearly to the low point of two months previously. With subsidence of the rhinitis the vision again became normal. Soon after this a devitalized tooth containing a bit of broken dental instrument was extracted upon Dr. Melville Black's advice, and streptococcus was found in culture. X-ray pictures of this and seven other devitalized teeth showed no suspicion of alveolar blind abscess. Dr. T. J. Gallaher found a deflection of the nasal septum to the left, with pressure contact. Dr. Libby, to whom the case was referred for ophthalmic examination on September 10th, found the disc margins obscure and the nerve heads hyperemic and slightly swollen. Vision R. was 5-5ths mostly, L. 5-5th partly. A submucous resection of the nasal septum was done by Dr. Gallaher on September 11th. On October 4th the disc margins were sharper and the hyperemia gone. The vision was 5-3rds mostly in each eye, but asthenopia still persisted, although not a previously noted scotoma. On October 19th the seven devitalized teeth were extracted and two of them showed streptococcus viridans abscesses. On December 6, 1918, the nerve heads were normal, although, like those of the patient's son and mother, not so well defined as the average disc; and the vision was still 5-3rds mostly, with tolerance of close work.

Discussion. Melville Black, Denver, thought that the blindness or almost ab-

solute blindness in the first two cases, out of proportion to the amount of swelling of the discs, suggested that the cause for obstruction of the circulation was well forward; as contrasted with cases of bilateral choking of the discs from cerebral gumma, in which the reduction of vision was often slight. In the case reported by Dr. Libby, he had unsuccessfully advised the extraction of teeth on account of the finding of streptococcus viridans in the one previously extracted.

George F. Libby, Denver, referring to an impression that Dr. Bane thought the benefit from the extraction of the teeth perhaps largely due to the bleeding, said he believed that a purely depletive benefit from bleeding was temporary, and that permanent benefit meant removal of toxins. He felt that his own case was probably one of toxic neuritis.

Edward Jackson, Denver, referred to a case recently reported in which the eye was entirely blind, and it was suggested that the nose should be operated upon. But this action was delayed, and in a few days the other eye went blind, and both eyes subsequently developed complete optic atrophy. Dr. Jackson felt that in the case referred to the patient might not have had the misfortune to become blind in both eyes if the nose had been freely opened up. Dr. Libby's patient might have had a very thin or dehiscent wall, so that congestion in the sinus would soon involve the optic nerve.

Corneal and Uveal Tuberculosis.

W. C. Bane, Denver, presented a colored woman, aged 28 years, in the lower third of the cornea of whose right eye were four "mutton fat" deposits, varying from one-third to one-half mm. in diameter. There was a similar deposit in the lower angle of the anterior chamber, and the whole cornea was moderately steamy. On November, 1919, the vision of this eye was fingers at 15 inches, that of the other 5-5ths. There was slight circumcorneal injection, the pupil measured 4 mm. in diameter and was inactive, and the tension of the eye was 28 mm. of mercury. No view of the fundus was obtainable. There was no history of tuberculosis, but the patient had come to Colorado 15 months previously and had lost weight since doing so. The Wassermann test and the complement fixation test for tuberculosis were both negative. Instillation of atropin rather rapidly produced acute glaucomatous pain and tension with complete loss of vision, and, in spite of partial relief from the use of eserin and acetylsalicylic acid the tension had remained about 52 mm. of mercury. Within the past ten days one mg. of T. R. had produced a positive reaction, and a rise in temperature to 100 degrees F. in the afternoon, but no local reaction. The high frequency current had proved soothing to the eye.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver, had seen rises of intraocular tension in connection with other cases of tuberculosis uveitis. From a somewhat limited experience of such cases he would say that there was a decided tendency in this direction. An operation in this case should not be hastily undertaken. If the original process subsided the tension was also likely to come down. The fact that there was no focal reaction rather suggested a focus of tuberculosis elsewhere.

Dr. Bane doubted the wisdom of any operative measures in the case, in the presence of probable tuberculosis.

C. E. Walker, Denver, had operated in the presence of tuberculous conditions and had seen no difference in the healing process after such operations, as compared with other cases. If no result was being obtained in bringing down the tension of the eye, he would certainly consider an iridectomy. He had done an iridectomy in several eyes which he believed to be tuberculous.

Melville Black, Denver, objected to doing either an iridectomy or a trephining in such case on account of the risk of hemorrhage.

Puncture Wounds of Crystalline Lens.

E. T. Boyd, Denver, presented two patients, each of whom had suffered a penetrating injury involving the cornea, iris, and lens. A youth of 19 years was struck in the left eye by a dressmaker's pin thrown by another youth from a distance of about ten feet. The cornea was penetrated a little outside the pupillary margin in the lower outer quadrant, the

pin passing also thru the iris into the lens. When the patient was seen one hour after the injury, the anterior chamber was full of soft lens matter and the iris was in contact with the wound. The use of atropin relieved the synechia in about two days, the lens matter was rapidly absorbed, and the eye became quiet. A man of 29 years who was driving an ax on to its handle was struck in the right eye with a splinter of wood from the timber on which he was pounding; the injury affecting the cornea, iris, and lens in much the same way and location as in the first case; and in this case also the anterior chamber was rapidly filled with soft lens matter and the iris was adherent to the wound. Here again, the synechia was relieved by the use of atropin, and, at the time of the demonstration, the lens substance was steadily being absorbed and the eye becoming quiet.

Traumatic Conical Cornea.

William H. Crisp, Denver, presented a boy, aged 12 years who, on the 11th of December had been struck on the left eye by an unknown foreign body while driving a wagon. The only two suggestions obtainable as to the source of the blow on the eye were first that something might have exploded in an ash wagon which was approaching at the time, and second that some boys not far off might have fired a toy rifle. The blow was a very severe one, and the boy was in a mild condition of shock when he came to the office one hour and a half after the injury. The epithelium of the lower inner fourth of the left cornea was much lacerated, and there was a central circular area of complete stripping of the epithelium, suggesting that the foreign body, whatever its character, might have come from the left, struck the center of the cornea and then glanced along the cornea toward the nasal side. The morning after the injury it was noticeable that the whole depth of the cornea between the nasal side and a little to this side of the centre was bulging considerably in the form of a flattened cone. There was a severe general reaction. As healing developed, the only staining was along two irregular lines roughly at right angles with one another, extending across the bulging area. No other part of the eye showed traces of the injury. Vision of this eye was 5-60ths, and no attempt had so far been made to find a correcting lens. The tension of the eye was slightly subnormal.

Discussion.—W. C. Bane, Denver, and C. E. Walker, Denver, suggested the use of a pressure bandage to reduce the bulging.

Edward Jackson, Denver, thought a pressure bandage would not do any particular good, but would tend toward softening of the tissues if it were worn for some time. He had seen a case treated with a compress for months do better after the compression was left off. After the inflammatory reaction had subsided, pilocarpin or eserin might be of some advantage.

Otis M. Orendorff, Canon City, referred to a case in which there had been apparent softening from the use of a compression bandage, and furthermore the patient would not wear the bandage on account of pain.

Dr. Crisp believed that, on account of the spherical shape of the eyeball and the hydrostatic distribution of any pressure applied to it, and further in view of the fact that it was impossible to insure a fixed position of the eyeball under the bandage, such a bandage could produce no benefit and might be harmful by producing an effect exactly opposite to that desired.

Dr. Walker argued that if a compress were used both eyes should be treated in the same way, so that motion of the eyeball would be restricted.

Postdiphtheric Paralysis.

James J. Pattee, Pueblo, reported a case of postdiphtheric paralysis in a woman of 36 years. Antitoxin had been used. The paralyses developed a little over two weeks after the onset of the diphtheria, which had continued for about ten days. There was weakness of the limbs, and definite paralysis of the soft palate and of the intrinsic muscles of the eyes. The vision improved much more rapidly than the throat condition, and she still complained of inability to force food down the lower part of the esophagus.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver, had personally experienced complete paralysis of accommodation after diphtheria. Recovery was complete within six weeks. Throat paralysis was noticeable as soon as the soreness of the throat was over, and it was two years before he could swallow fluids with complete certainty and confidence, and six months before he entirely overcame the paralysis involving the limbs.

William H. Crisp, M. D., Secretary.

ABSTRACTS

Roy, J. N., Vision among the Blacks of Africa. Ann. d'Ocul., 1918, v. 155, p. 513.

Roy examined about 5,000 negroes belonging to 22 different colonies, from an anatomic, physiologic and pathologic standpoint. He has observed that in the same individual, the vision was better in the tropics than in the temperate zones; so that normal vision in the tropics should be regarded as 7/5, rather than 5/5 or even 6/5. The Africans of the coast, especially the northern and northeastern sections, have come in contact with other races, especially the Arabs and Egyptians, and have suffered from diseases acquired thru this contact, such as variola, purulent ophthalmia, trachoma, and syphilis. From this it results that the Africans of the North show eye diseases much more frequently than those of the South, the latter having contracted them from those of the North.

The abundance of pigment in the eyes of the negro is very striking; sometimes the choroid, iris and ocular conjunctiva, especially near the outer canthus, seem to be almost saturated with it. Some negroes also show physiologic melanosis of the velum palati and gums.

The refraction is almost always emmetropic, except where pathologic changes have altered the corneal curvautre. Myopia is found in 1.5 per cent of the population and always of very low degree; never more than 4. D., and then in albinos. Albinism is very common, but it was not found that albinos intermarry. There was about the same percentage of myopic astigmatism, while hyperopia and hyperopic astigmatism were found each in about 2.5 per cent of cases, but never of a high degree. Compound astigmatism was occasionally found, especially in albinos, but never mixed or irregular astigmatism, except, of course, as the result of keratitis. The refractive errors are somewhat more numerous in the regions where schools have been established for a long time for educating the negroes.

When either the convex or concave glasses were required, a vision of 9/5 to 11/5 was often obtained. The best vision obtained in an emmetrope was 20/5, in a patient with "sleeping sickness." The average visual acuity of negro emmetropes is 12/5. They are able, when diving, to see at great depths. Changes in color sense and hemianopsias are never seen. Experiments showed the negroes see at night two to four times better than do the whites, probably due to the former's more frequently being in the dark. No anatomic basis so far as preponderance of rods, such as is found in night animals, was observed.

An interesting table is given of 50 observations, on negroes of various tribes between 13 and 30 years of age, dealing with the vision and the accommodation. The latter was anywhere from 1 D. to 3 D. greater than at the corresponding age in the white race. It would seem that with the development of the brain in the higher races goes a corresponding deterioration of the sense organs, especially those of sight and hearing, due probably to the manner of life, use of artificial lights, inherited diatheses, alimentation, study, prolonged use of the eye, etc.

C. L.

Moreau, F., Disturbances of Macular Vision Caused by Traumatic Lesions of the Occipital Region.—Ann. d'Ocul., 1918, v. 155, p. 357.

Since vision consists not only in recognition of the existence of a point or line, but also in determining its movements, distance, depth, etc., these factors should be investigated in hemianopsia as well as the determination of the losses in the field. That is, in the ordinary visual fields there are zones of orientation, distinction, and precision, in passing from the periphery to the center. By the use of a stereoscope with Haitz' or Joseph's charts these zones can be determined. Different letters of the same size are used, instead of points or squares, and the places where these are recognized are joined into a zone of "distinction." The examination must be frequently interrupted to avoid the antagonism of the visual field. The central vision is tested by means of Holmes' or Pigeon's stereoscope provided with special test objects, consisting of 6-rayed stars, either white on black background, or black on a white background. If the largest is seen complete, the area of central vision is normal. If branches or part of the nucleus is obscured, smaller ones are tried until one is found which is seen complete. Three case reports with interesting representations of the visual fields are given.

General Results of Visual Troubles in Hemianopsia with Central Lesion. (a) Reading.—There is an irregular rythm of reading by hemianopes different from the uncertainty of the amblyope. It is more difficult for them to read writing than printing, and unfamiliar than familiar texts. (b) Writing.—On unruled paper, the right hemianope has much more trouble than the left. On ruled the difference is not so great. In the former, the lines slant downward.

C. L.

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HEAT IN THE TREATMENT OF CORNEAL ULCERS.

From the first use of the actual cautery in the treatment of wounds down to the days of Pasteur and aseptic surgery, heat has been a reliable means of destroying infection. Increased knowledge of pathology and the recognition of pathogenic organisms have enabled us to apply it more exactly and effectively. But from the time when the cautery was first used to check suppuration, the problem has been to do this completely with the least damage to the invaded tissue.

Since Martinache described his use of the actual cautery to check the progress of a corneal ulcer over 45 years ago, many instruments for such application of heat to the cornea have been employed, from the steel knitting needle held in an alcohol flame, or the copper ball to hold the heat with a projecting point to touch the ulcer, to the numerous forms of galvanic cautery tip mounted on handles of varied weight and convenience.

In 1892, Lippincott reported his favorable experience in the use of hot water dropped on certain corneal ulcers. He advised heating the water to 160° F., or over, and dropping it directly on the ulcerated surface.

In 1899, Bourgeois called attention to the sterilization of corneal ulcers by blowing hot air upon them. He used a bent metal tube attached to a rubber bulb, similar to those used by dentists to dry cavities preparatory to filling. The tube is held in the flame of an alcohol lamp and the air drawn back and forth in the tube three or four times and then immediately expelled against the surface of the ulcer, which at once becomes white. The process can be repeated as often as necessary.

Eleven years later he reported, that depending wholly on this method for the sterilization of infected corneal ulcers, his results were truly remarkable. Rozet reported a similarly favorable experience with the method; but it seems not to have been widely practiced. The cauterization by live steam which has been used in the frontal sinus by Dennis, seems not to have been tried for corneal ulcers. Boiling alco-

hol and other fluids that might furnish a perfectly definite temperature are also untried.

In 1910 Weekers published his method of applying heat to the cornea by holding the cautery point as close as possible to the ulcer without actually touching it. He first used an olive shaped cautery, in the manner afterwards described by Prince under the name of Pasteurization. But Weekers soon substituted the galvanocautery tip as the source of heat, pointing out that the temperature required for sterilization was about 65° C, or 150° F.; and that the needed color and proximity of the cautery tip to develop and sustain such a heat could be readily learned by holding the tip close to the bulb of a mercurial thermometer.

Lastly Shahan worked out his thermophore by which the metal tip, heated to a known required temperature, could be held in contact with the surface of the ulcer for the necessary time, one minute; making the application of heat more exact than had heretofore been possible.

To check a corneal infection it is not necessary to boil or char the organisms. It is only essential to raise them to such a temperature as will destroy their power of multiplication; and the temperature that will effect this is one that will not in the required time do any great damage to the cornea itself. The most important service that Weekers has rendered in this matter is his experimental showing of how little damage need be done to corneal tissue, by heat that will sterilize the pathogenic organisms. (See p. 90.)

The final determination of the best means of applying the desirable degree of heat, must await a considerable experience with the different methods on the part of the profession in general. The hot air method of Bourgeois is extremely simple and easily applied and repeated. But on account of the greater penetrating power of radiant heat, the methods of Shahan, and Bourgeois seem more likely to reach and render innocuous the more deeply seated organisms.

The treatment of corneal infections by heat will become more exact and its results more satisfactory in proportion as it is carried on with a clear understanding of exactly how much heat is needed and how much is being applied.

E. J.

THE RADICAL CURE OF DACRYOCYSTITIS.

Chronic lacrimal sac disease is the *bete noir* of the Ophthalmic Surgeon, provided that he goes not at its cure by radical removal of the apparatus,—the last resort and to which nearly all cases should come.

True it is, that a certain proportion seem to recover after the nasal disease, particularly concomitant sinus affections, have been elmininated; and a few are cured by drainage with injections.

We have our choice of several radical methods of obliterating the sac:

1. The rhinolacrimal method of West and modifications, the intranasal operation; a somewhat difficult procedure largely advocated by the rhinologists.

2. Obliteration of the sac by caustics, recently resurrected by Gifford, who claims good and quick results from trichloracetic acid. The writer's small experience with nitric acid in the old days and with trichloracetic acid recently, has been that it is painful, causing edema and slow healing with prolonged after treatment.

3. Excision of the sac, preferably after the method of Meller, under local anesthesia by novocainadrenalin, when made by a master is one of the prettiest of all operations, and one in which the writer's experience gives full satisfaction.

Compensatory lessened secretion of mucous and lacrimal fluids certainly obtains after obliteration of the lacrimal canals; so that, except upon exposure to irritants as dust or smoke or winds that would make any eyes water, such patients do not generally complain of tearing, and in fact obtain relief from their watery eyes.

H. V. W.

BOOK NOTICES.

Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom, Vol. 38, 384 pp., 56 ill., 9 pl. London, J. and A. Churchill, 1918.

The striking characteristic of this volume as compared with its predecessors in the series are well set forth in the Presidential Address of E. Treacher Collins in these words:

"You will have noticed that this volume has, like so many of us as an outcome of the war, had to tighten its belt. It is considerably reduced in bulk, due to the thinness of the paper. I am, however, pleased to say it is only superfluous matter with which it has had to dispense, the number of its pages and the amount of interest in its material being well up to the average."

An evidence of the "tightening of the belt," which is to be regretted, is the absence of any colored plates such as have added much to the value of former volumes. But in the number, interest, and importance of the papers presented, this volume is one of the best that this great society has published. As in former years, the papers are grouped under their appropriate heads as "Diseases of the Cornea," "Diseases of the Uveal Tract," etc. There are two symposia, each including several important papers, one on "Contagious Diseases of the Conjunctiva," the other on "Plastic Operations of the Eyelids."

However, despite its accustomed appearance, this volume marks a change in the life of the society of tremendous importance to it, and to ophthalmologists thruout the world. On its title page appear after "Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom," these added words, "With which are affiliated the Egyptian Ophthalmological Society, Midland Ophthalmological Society, North of England Ophthalmological Society, Oxford Ophthalmological Congress." And in the appendices are included five papers read before the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress and three from the Midland Ophthalmological Society.

This reaching out to coördinate the scientific work of the ophthalmologists of the British Empire is directly in the line of progress; and for an organization whose members reside in every quarter of the globe, cannot fail to react strongly and favorably on the life of the parent organization. It is significant that among the visitors contributing to these transactions are some well known American ophthalmic writers and workers. To have place in such a volume may well be regarded as an honor; and these men have thoroly deserved it.

More than ever should these transactions be generally found in the libraries of all English reading ophthalmologists. There is no literature relating to ophthalmology of greater permanent value.

E. J.

The Surgery of Oral Diseases and Malformations; Their Diagnosis and Treatment. George van Ingen Brown, D. D. S., M. D., C. M., F. A. C. S. Third edition. 734 pages, with 570 engravings and 20 plates, and a selected list of examination questions. Lea and Febiger, Philadelphia and New York, 1918. Price $7.00.

This book contains more than indicated by the title, as it is not only a complete treatise on oral diseases, but also a work of reference touching all medical interests in their oral relations. Thus the first chaper presents an excellent discourse on anesthesia and anesthetics, general and local, their methods of administration and their dangers; on hemorrhage and its treatment; and on shock. Other chapters deal with infection, fever, tetanus, tuberculosis, syphilis, etc., considering in detail diagnostic methods and treatment, diseases of the nervous system affecting the buccal region, nasal deformities and diseases in relation to the maxillae, diseases of the maxillary sinus, of the bone, glands, tumors, etc.

The special subjects are discussed in the sections on diseases of the mucous membrane of the mouth, and on hare-

lip, cleft palate, and defects of speech. These represent the chief part of the author's life work, and their discussion is based upon his extended experience in that line. All important pathologic conditions affecting, or influenced by, the buccal cavity and its immediate surroundings are entered upon, and the operative procedures are clearly described. A great portion of the illustrations are original and representations of the author's cases.

The most important change in this new edition is the chapter on war surgery in which the author gathered representative ideas and methods published from the work of the hospitals of practically all the principal belligerent nations.

The subject matter is very well systematized, and orientation is greatly facilitated by the use of heavy type for the headings of the different paragraphs. From the broadness of conception in which this valuable book is written, it will be read with great interest and benefit by every physician.

C. Z.

BIOGRAPHIC SKETCHES

T. H. Shastid, M. D.

SUPERIOR, WISCONSIN.

Frederick Eustace Batten was a well known London ophthalmologist, especially renowned for his researches in familial diseases of the eye. Born at Plymouth, England, in 1866, third son of the late John Winterbotham Batten, K. C., he received his training in the liberal arts at Westminster and at Trinity College, Cambridge; and his medical education at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. He was a member of the Council of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom from 1904-'06 and Secretary from 1906-'09. His death occurred suddenly on July 27, 1918.

John Couper.—A celebrated London ophthalmologist, specially renowned as diagnostician and teacher, was born at Glasgow, Scotland, Nov. 7, 1835, son of John and Charlotte Tennant Couper. He received the M. D. at Glasgow in 1856, and the F. R. C. S., England (exam.), in 1861. Settling down in London, he was, for a time, assistant surgeon and demonstrator of anatomy at the London Hospital. From 1869 to 1889 he was surgeon in the same institution, as well as lecturer on surgery. He was also, for a number of years, surgeon, afterwards consulting surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital and to the Scottish Hospital. He was a Fellow of the Hunterian and Harveian Societies. Among his more



John Couper, 1838-1918

important contributions are: "The Diagnosis of Astigmatism by the Ophthalmoscope" (B. M. A. Newcastle, 1890); and "A New Magazine Ophthalmoscope" (Trans. Oph. Soc. of U. K., 1883).

Celebrated ophthalmologist as he was, Dr. Couper at no time in his life wholly gave up general surgery.

In 1868 Dr. Couper married Helen Campbell, of Otter, Argyllshire, with whom he would have celebrated his golden wedding in Oct., 1918, had not his death intervened. He died at Falmouth, England, April 30, 1918.

Regarding the personality of Dr. Couper, a friend has written in a private letter as follows: "John Couper loved his work, and the only distinction he aimed at was to do his very best in it. Those who have learned from him, and worked with him, say he was 'a born teacher'—'a fine general surgeon' as well as 'a singularly able and intelligent eye surgeon.' With 'a remarkably clear, sound mind,' he was 'simple and transparent,' absolutely unassuming, and keen to learn as well as to teach. He had a warm appreciation of other men's good work, and rejoiced in their successes and distinctions. By patients and friends he was greatly loved and respected and regretted."

The following appreciation from the pen of Sir Anderson Critchett appears in "The British Journal of Ophthalmology," Vol. II, No. 7, at p. 396: "Ophthalmoscopic work always had a great attraction for Couper, especially the estimation of errors of refraction by the direct method—retinoscopy was then unknown—and in his desire for increased power of dealing with the minutiae of such cases he armed himself with specially constructed ophthalmoscopes which contained numerous lenses. His most favorite implement finally took the shape and proportions of a carpenter's rule which, following the custom of that workman, he usually carried in his trousers pocket.

"As he was unable to emulate the example of Sir Boyle Roche's famous bird and to be in two places at one and the same time, it naturally followed that as soon as he considered his senior clinicals to be capable of dealing with the routine of the outpatients' department he entrusted them with a large share of that work. My colleagues and I took full advantage of these golden opportunities, tho we sometimes had to drag our reluctant chief from the dark room when some new case involving special knowledge and experience proved too responsible for us to essay.

"Couper was one of the first to recognize and to point out the excellent results which often followed the correction of very slight refractive errors, especially in cases of astigmatism; and he calmly pursued his way in that direction without heeding the gentle ridicule which Donders was at that time inclined to cast upon it. He made frequent use of atropin in refraction cases, and he preferred to give the full correction for myopia. I believe I am right in stating that he continued to the end to work with Paris inches; and his special box of lenses contained glasses worked in weird and complicated fractions, which would have been a terror to anybody but himself.

"Couper was an exceptionally good operator, possessing full command of very dextrous hands, and his only fault was a tendency to linger too long over the toilet of the eye after cataract extraction. In these days of cocain this might perhaps be accounted a virtue; but when anesthetics were almost always administered, the habit occasionally resulted in serious disadvantage. Like Noyes, of New York, he preferred an extremely narrow Graefe knife; and, unlike Swanzy, he made a large iridectomy."

The following, from Sir John Tweedy, appears at p. 399 of the same number of the same journal: "Altho a good surgeon and a skilled operator, his qualities were those of an ophthalmic *physician. Facile princeps* among the ophthalmoscopists of the day, he was one of the first in this country seriously and scientifically to study problems of the errors of refraction, and especially of astigmatism. His diagnostic skill and his careful method of investigation attracted a body of thoughtful pupils, not a few of whom afterwards attained to notable distinction. . . .

"His mental temperament was essentially skeptical. Not unbelief; not misbelief; but hardness of belief was his intellectual attitude to all surgical and scientific questions. He did not believe easily or lightly, but only when convinced by the force of reason and by the potency of well observed facts. This skepticism may not have been an unmixed benefit as a teacher to beginners, but it was a real advantage at a hospital like Moorfields, where many

of the pupils, assistants, and visitors were actual or potential experts. . . .

"Couper was indeed a lovable man, a true friend, a staunch and loyal colleague. To have known him and to have been so long associated with him is an abiding satisfaction, and the recollection of a friendship unclouded thruout many years is a precious possession."

Carl Calvin Culver was a well known ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist of Burlington, Kansas. Born in Woodson County, Kans., July 5, 1887, he received the medical degree in 1911 at the University of Kansas Medical School. On July 5, 1911, he married Miss Pearl Muender, and then settled as ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist in Burlington, where he practiced until his death. He joined the army service in August, 1917, with the rank of lieutenant, and died in camp, Oct. 8, 1918.

Charles Huff Davis. This well known ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist was born at Lebanon, Va., Aug. 25, 1875, son of Mr. and Mrs. John Lynch Davis. His training in the arts and sciences was received at the University of Tennessee. For a time he was a reporter on "The Knoxville Sentinel." Turning his attention to medicine, he received the medical degree at the Lincoln Memorial University, Knoxville, Tenn., in 1898.

He at once proceeded to study the eye, ear, nose and throat in Chicago, where he was appointed senior interne in the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary. But shortly afterward he returned to Knoxville, where he practiced as ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist. He was specialist for the Southern and the Louisville and Nashville railways, and for the Aluminum Company of America, at Marysville, and for The American Zinc Company of Tennessee, at Mascot. He was a Fellow of the American Medical Association, the American College of Surgeons, the American Laryngological Society, and a number of similar bodies.

Dr. Davis married, on June 25, 1900, Hortense Burton. There were no children. He was a man of high moral character and a skillful ophthalmologist. Of medium height and build, he wore no beard, had a very dark complexion, bright hazel eyes, and dark brown hair sprinkled with gray. He was gay and brisk in manner, very genial, a lover of animals, a patriotic citizen, a Mason, a member of the Methodist church.

Dr. Davis died at his home, 1404 Laurel avenue, on Oct. 21, 1918, from pneumonia following influenza.

J. Flemming. This famous Berlin ophthalmologist was widely known for his experiments on trachoma corpuscles and on the therapeutic action of radium and mesothorium. Born in 1874, the son of a preacher, he became a student in the Kaiser-Wilhelm Academy. Having received his medical degree, he soon was troop physician, later physician in chief to the "Plöner Cadet Institution." Promoted to the aerial service, he made a large number of experiments in aviation, and, in this way, was of great service to the German Government. He also thoroly studied the aerial bacteria, of which he named large numbers. From 1907-'11 he was assistant to Professor Greeff. He died of a wound in a field hospital, in his forty-fourth year.

Charles W. Haddock. A well known ophthalmologist of Beverly, Mass. Was born in Beverly, June 3, 1856, son of the late Dr. and Mrs. Charles H. Haddock. After a preliminary course of study at the Massachusetts College of Pharmacy, he attended the Harvard Medical School, where he graduated with the class of 1879. From 1880-'82 he studied at Heidelberg and Vienna, and, returning to America, practiced at Beverly with his father until the latter's death.

Then he studied the eye, ear, nose, and throat in Boston, Philadelphia, and New York; and, beginning with 1892, devoted himself for nineteen years exclusively to ophthalmology and otolaryngology at Salem and Beverly. Mass. In 1915 he retired from practice. He died Dec. 14, 1918, after a long period of ill health, survived by a widow and one son, Charles C. Had-

dock, who is in the Research Department of the Army at Washington.

Frederick Carroll Heath. A prominent ophthalmologist of Indianapolis, Ind., was born at Gardiner, Me., Jan. 19, 1857, son of Alvan M. C. and Sarah Hinckley Philbrook Heath. He received the A. B. at Amherst in 1878, the A. M. in 1886, and the M. D. at the Maine Medical College (Bowdoin) in 1884. Shortly afterward he studied the eye, ear, nose and throat, and settled in Indianapolis as a specialist on the diseases of these organs.

Dr. Heath was assistant surgeon in the U. S. Marine Hospital Service for six years, Secretary of the Indiana State Medical Society for fourteen years, eye surgeon to the Indianapolis City Hospital and Dispensary, to The German Lutheran Orphan Asylum, and The Eleanor Hospital; also professor of ophthalmology at the Indiana University Medical College from 1905 until his death.

Dr. Heath married, on June 19, 1895, Agnes Ralston Cochrane, of Indianapolis, by whom he had one dauhter, Mary. The Doctor died on Oct. 16, 1918, survived by his widow and daughter.

Isaac H. Lent. This Middletown, N. Y., ophthalmologist, of considerable local reputation, was born on a farm in the Mohawk Valley in 1846. He received in 1873 his degree in medicine at the Albany, N. Y., Medical College. For fifteen years he practiced general medicine at Valatie, N. Y., and then studied the eye, ear, nose and throat in New York and Philadelphia. Settling at Middletown, N. Y., he practiced there for the rest of his life. For a number of years he was consulting ophthalmologist to the Thrall Hospital, Middletown. His death occurred from spinal hemorrhage about Oct. 20, 1918.

Roy Richard Longino. This prominent Texas specialist on the eye, ear, nose and throat, born Dec. 17, 1888, son of Stephen Beasley and Edna Young Longino, received the medical degree at Tulane University, New Orleans, in 1911. On June 5, 1912, he married Ruth Bransford, by whom he had one child, Mary Ruth. During the year 1913 he was assistant superintendent to the State Epileptic Asylum, Abilene, Texas. Later, he practiced as ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist at Ft. Stockton.

He was a man of impressive appearance, large, strong, somewhat stout, smoothfaced and fair complexioned. He was deliberate in manner, but full of quiet energy, and very devoted to his profession. He was an Elk, a Mason, a Methodist. A friend of the Doctor writes "Perhaps no man, for his age, was more respected and loved in any community. Especially the children and the old people will greatly miss him." He died at his home, Oct. 18, 1918, from influenza and its complications.

Joseph Williams Lovibond, author of numerous works on color and the inventor of the tintometer, was born in England in 1833 and died there April, 1918. He joined the rush of gold seekers to California in 1849 but soon returned to England and became manager of a brewery. He wrote books on "Light and Color Measurements," "Color Phenomenon," and "Color Theories," and many papers with regard to color. The tintometer, a color scale for comparison, has been widely used in the arts and for blood testing.

Charles Emery Payne. An oculist and aurist of Brooklyn, N. Y. Born in Camden, Me., in 1882, he received the medical degree in 1903 at the New York Homeopathic Medical College. For fourteen years he practiced in Brooklyn. He was consulting laryngologist and rhinologist to the Jamaica and Cumberland St. Hospitals, attending physician to the Home for Consumptives, a member of the Advisory Board to the Peck Memorial Hospital, and laryngologist, rhinologist, and assistant oculist and aurist, to the Brooklyn Nursery and Infants' Hospital. He died at his home, on Nov. 18, 1918, from pneumonia.

Thomas Tounge Perkins was an eye, ear, nose and throat specialist of Cliftondale, Mass. Born in Auburn, Me., he later resided in West Durham, Me., and Lynn, Mass. He was a grad-

uate of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, of the Boston University, and, in medicine, of the Harvard Medical School, in 1901. He seems to have settled, soon after his graduation in medicine, at Cliftondale, and to have practiced there continuously. In his later years he became an ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist, as well as an expert with the microscope. He was a Universalist, a Royal Arch Mason. He died Dec. 6, 1918, from heart disease.

George Rupp Pretz, a well known ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist of Lebanon, Penna., was born at Steelton, Penna. He graduated at the Steelton High School, Gettysburg College, and, in 1909, at the Johns Hopkins University, Medical Department.

He settled, at first as general practitioner, in Lebanon; but later decided to limit his practice to the eye, ear, nose and throat. He was ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist to the Good Samaritan Hospital at Lebanon, and a Fellow of the A. M. A. He was also a prominent Mason, and an active worker in the Seventh Street Lutheran Church.

At the very beginning of America's entry into the war, he tendered his services to the War Department, was commissioned a lieutenant; and shortly afterward was called for duty at Camp Greenleaf. On Sept. 4, 1918, he wrote to a friend in Lebanon, "This is a great life. I'm in the best of health." On Sept. 20, however, he died, from pneumonia, the result of influenza.

Michael Philip Schuster was a prominent ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist of El Paso, Texas, and founder of the Providence Hospital in that city. Born in Gyor, Hungary, in 1860, he received his medical degree in 1889 at the University of Vienna, Austria. For the next three years he was chief assistant to Prof. Fuchs.

Coming to America, Dr. Schuster settled in Kansas City, where, for a time, he was chief surgeon to the American Smelting and Refining Co. He also taught for a number of years in the Kansas City College of Medicine.

Removing to El Paso, Texas, the Doctor remained chief surgeon to the American Smelting and Refining Co., a position which he held, all told, for eighteen years. In 1905 he was President of the El Paso County Medical Society. He was also a Fellow of the American College of Surgeons and a thirty-third degree Mason.

Dr. Schuster died at his home on Nov. 15, 1918, after a year or more of illness. He was survived by two daughters, and by two sons—Dr. Stephen Schuster, commander of Base Hospital 129, Camp Shelby, Hattiesburg, Miss., and Dr. Frank P. Schuster, Medical Reserve Corps, Cook County Hospital, Chicago.



Halstead Robert Wright, 1875-1918

Homer Warren Thompson was an ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist of Salem, Ohio, well known locally. Born at Salem, Dec. 8, 1859, son of Joseph Warren and Hannah Ann Thompson, he received the medical de-

gree at Pulte Medical College, Cincinnati, in 1885. He married, on April 12, 1900, Miss Cora May Owen. He was a well known aeronaut. His death occurred from angina pectoris, Feb. 8, 1918.

Halstead Robert Wright. A young American ophthalmologist of great promise. Born at Coshocton, Ohio, May 20, 1875, he removed to Columbus with his father's family in 1880. He graduated in dentistry at the University of Ohio in 1895, but after a brief period of dental practice, took up the study of medicine in the same university, where he received the medical degree in 1910.

He then located for practice in Columbus, becoming a partner with his father. He was, from 1910 till 1917, instructor in physiology and pathology at his alma mater. He invented a number of ophthalmic instruments, and contributed to "The Ophthalmic Record" a number of ophthalmic articles, among which may be mentioned the following: "The Use of the Snare as the Final Step in the Enucleation of the Eye"; "A New Method of Preparing an Eye for Microscopic Sections"; "A Rare Intraocular Tumor," and "A Rare Tubercular Condition of the Eye."

Dr. Wright was a large, robust man, smooth faced, of fair complexion, with dark brown eyes and hair. He was very serious in manner as a rule, but enjoyed an occasional joke. He was very fond of fishing. He was a Democrat, a believer in Christianity, but not a member of any church, a thirty-second degree Mason, and a Shriner. He became a captain in the Medical Service of the Army, and died at Camp Greenleaf, Georgia, Oct. 17, 1918, survived by his father, also by his wife and son.

Charles O. Zahner. An ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist of Louisville, Ky. Born in 1880, he received the medical degree in 1904 at the University of Louisville. He was also a graduate of the Louisville College of Pharmacy. He died of influenza at his home, on Oct. 11, 1918, survived by his widow, Blanche McCleary Zahner.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee, Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C.; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Claude Huston Case, Kansas City, Kansas, aged 44, died from pneumonia following influenza, October 22nd.

George A. Cubbison, Erie, Pa., aged 55, died at his home, December 21st, from pneumonia following influenza.

N. C. Macnamara, of Hertfordshire, England, died November 21st, 1918, at the age of 86.

Mitchell Mikkelsen, Wells, Minn., aged 68, died at his home from pneumonia, January 8th.

Samuel L. Oren, Lieut., M. C., U. S. A., Lewistown, Illinois, aged 39, who after a course of training at Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia, was sent overseas, died in France, October 9th, from nervous collapse presumably following ambulant typhoid fever.

Charles Henry Weintz, Captain, M. C., U. S. A., Cincinnati, aged 33, assistant chief of the nose and throat department of the base hospital, Camp Sherman, died at the Camp, October 14th, from pneumonia.

PERSONAL.

Major Vard H. Hulen, sends Christmas greetings from Bordeaux, France.

A son of Dr. H. H. Burnham, of Toronto, Canada, was killed in action in France.

Dr. John F. Rowland of Hot Springs, Arkansas, has been elected president of the Garland County Hot Springs Medical Society.

Dr. Robert H. Miller announces the removal of his offices to 711 Los Angeles Investment Building, Broadway and Eighth streets, Los Angeles, California.

King George of England has recently appointed Sir George Anderson Critchett, Surgeon Oculist in Ordinary to His Majesty; and Richard Robert Cruise, Surgeon Oculist Extraordinary.

MILITARY NOTES.

Captain Frank Brawley has been transferred from Mineola, L. I., to Millington, Tenn.

Captain C. P. Small has been assigned to duty at the government arsenal at Rock Island.

Captain J. W. Foley of Denver, Colorado, has been granted an honorable discharge from the army.

Captain F. C. Bakes of Albuquerque, New Mexico, has been granted an honorable discharge from the army.

Major George F. Suker has been transferred from Pittsburgh to the Walter Reed Hospital, Washington, D. C.

Captain G. T. Jordan has been transferred from Camp Grant to temporary duty in the Department Surgeon's office—Central Department, Chicago.

Major T. A. Woodruff has obtained his release from the service, and will reside at New London, Conn.

Dr. W. H. Roberts of Pasadena, who entered the service as a Captain, was recently promoted to the rank of Major, being stationed at Camp Lewis.

Dr. C. G. Stivers of Los Angeles, Captain in the Medical Reserve Corps, is in charge of Aviation examinations at San Francisco.

Major Burton Chance has been mustered out of service, and has resumed practice at 255 South 13th street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Captain F. L. Anderson, attached to Base Hospital, Camp Logan, has been honorably discharged and resumed his practice at Roswell, N. Mex.

Dr. George H. Kress of Los Angeles was Senior Surgeon in charge of the University of Southern California Students' Army Training Corps until the same was mustered out with the other S. A. T. C. organizations thruout the country.

Dr. William T. Shoemaker of Philadelphia has been appointed ophthalmologist to all the American hospitals in England. Dr. Shoemaker went to France in May, 1917, as ophthalmologist to the Pennsylvania Hospital unit. Two of his sons are in the service.

Major C. W. Kollock, who entered the Aviation Medical Service, U. S. A., has been discharged and is resuming his practice of ophthalmology and oto-laryngology, and his duties as Professor of Rhinology and Laryngology in the Medical College of South Carolina in Charleston, S. C.

On authority of the Office of the Surgeon General of the Army, it is said that there may be less than fifty American soldiers who suffered total blindness from wounds received in action. This is considered a remarkable record for the number of men engaged, and the intensity of the fighting in the sectors where Americans were engaged.

Sir C. Arthur Pearson, head of the British National Institute, which is devoted to the care of men who have lost their sight in the war, and himself blind, sailed for the United States and Canada, December 20th. The object of his visit is to confer with those responsible for the care of American soldiers blinded in the war and with Canadian authorities regarding the future welfare of Canadian soldiers trained at St. Dunstan's Hotel for Blinded Soldiers and Sailors, London.

When the war began Sir Arthur Pearson was president of the National Institute for the Blind in England. He organized the blind soldiers' and sailors' care committee and set about to find a suitable building where these men might be trained to be self-supporting. The selection was St. Dunstan's in Regent's park, London. Only sixteen men entered at first, but now there are close to 600 in training in the institution; 250 are in the hospital, and almost 700 trained men have left, some to take up their former work and others the new occupations they have mastered.

SOCIETIES.

The twelfth semi-annual session of the Sioux Valley Eye and Ear Academy was held in Sioux City, Iowa, on January 21st.

At a recent meeting of the Minnesota Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, the following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, J. D. Lewis of Minneapolis; vice-president, E. R. Bray of St. Paul; 2nd vice-president, A. D. McConnell of Minot, N. D.; secretary-treasurer, John Morse of Minneapolis.

The annual meeting and dinner of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society took place on January 20th, about sixty members being present. The guest of the occasion was Dr. Francis Park Lewis of Buffalo, whose address, "The Specialist, His Relation to the Profession and to the Community" was particularly apt at this time, and was enthusiastically received. One suggestion offered by Dr. Lewis which seems worthy of most thoughtful consideration is that the work of the Examining Boards, in co-operation with the Advisory Boards, by which the Government has been able to give the most skillful medical attention to our soldiers, be continued in practically the same method of operation, under federal supervision, for the benefit of the general civilian population.

The following officers of the Society were elected for the ensuing year: President, William A. Noble; vice-president, A. L. Adams of Jacksonville; secretary-treasurer, Alfred Murray was re-elected; councilor, Douglas Payne.

MISCELLANEOUS.

It has been calculated that the number of totally blinded victims of the war, among all the allied armies, is 7,000. Twenty-five or thirty per cent will probably have to be added to this figure from among the patients now undergoing treatment. The total of those who lost one eye amounts to between 30,000 and 40,000.

The quarterly report of the Illinois State Department of Public Welfare states that 2,000 blind adults are supported by county pensions in Illinois. Trachoma is declared to be the cause of the high rate of blindness in the southern part of the state.

In consequence of a world-wide shortage of spectacle lenses, frames and mountings, the War Service Committee of the Optical Industry, announces that the conservation policy adopted by the trade for the war will be continued during the reconstruction period.

As a result of the efforts made by the health authorities to eradicate trachoma from North Carolina, the State Board of Health has made this a reportable disease.

The fourth annual meeting of the National Committee for Prevention of Blindness was held in New York on November 26th. The speaker of the evening was Lieut.-Col. James Bordley who is directing the work for the blind in the Army and Navy, and is also director of the Red Cross Institute for the blind.

Mr. J. C. Gleason, who has been a music teacher in Chicago, but has been blind for twenty years, is lecturing in different parts of the country, assisted by local blind talent. He is acquainting people with the problems of re-education of the blind.

On the 22nd of November took place the ceremony of the first stone of the new Medical School of the University "Estrada Cabrera" of the Republic of Guatemala, on the same site where stood the old school that was destroyed by the earthquakes of the end of last year. The new buildings will be finished in 1921, first anniversary of independence.

The "Little Shop for the Permanent Blind Fund" in Chicago is meeting with most encouraging success. One needs to visit the shop to realize what beautiful pieces of work are being shown, most of which is the hand-work of young society women. Blanket covers made of voile and lace, boudoir and traveling caps, chiffon infant caps, negligees, washcloths and Red Cross dolls are among the articles that find ready purchasers. Everything in the shop is donated, and a number of the things are made by the wounded blind. A different committee of women are in the shop each day to take charge of the sales, the proceeds of which go to the permanent blind fund.

In the Red Cross institute for the blind offices are two blind girls, who four months ago answered an advertisement of the institute for stenographers. After four months' training they are said to be the equal of any stenographer in the city. They are being paid at the regular piece rates, and their earnings amount to from $18 to $22 a week.

The Bureau of Standards of the National Department of Commerce has prepared a tentative draft of a National Code for Head and Eye Protection which is ready for inspection and criticism. It is intended to perfect this Code so that it will be suitable for general application by industrial commissions and others having legal powers, as well as by private plants and casualty insurance companies who may wish to use it as their own standard. The Bureau will be glad to have oculists examine this at their earliest convenience and submit criticisms and suggestions for improvement in the requirements or the wording to Division I, Section 8, of the Bureau.

Extensive preparations for the swift education of blind soldiers so that they may go into the labor market on equal terms with workers who have their sight, have been completed by the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, working in conjunction with the office of the surgeon general of the United States.

Some idea of the scope of the work already completed may be gathered from the fact that a complete survey of every industry in the country has been made with a view to its applicability to blind workers. It has been found that more than a quarter of all United States industries can use the blind workers.

The methods of training have already been worked out by having the best workers in each industry do their tasks before a moving picture camera. The film is then "reviewed" by experts from the Society of Mechanical Engineers, who have donated their services to the government. These men eliminate all the waste motion in the processes and design instruments which will help the blind workman and increase his efficiency.

Already plans have been drawn by a large Eastern syndicate for a chain of "Victory stores" to be placed in all locations chosen by blind soldiers who wish to go into business. The syndicate, under the jurisdiction of the Red Cross will do all the buying for the storekeepers.

The December *News Letter* published by the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness is most interesting reading. Ophthalmologists who would like to receive it regularly need only to so notify the Committee at 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York City. This committee is doing a work which should be known and supported by every ophthalmologist in the country. Their report on "Classes for Conservation of Vision" shows a gradual extension of such classes throughout the schools of our larger cities. It is a most valuable work and the School Boards of larger cities should have their attention called to it and be urged to found such classes.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Liebermann. Simple Electric Lamp for Examination of Double Images and Reaction of Pupil. Duet. med. Woc., 1917, No. 2. Abst. Clin. Opht., v. 22, p. 681.

Standard Illumination of Snellen Test Types. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 22.

Vogt, A. Cystic Degeneration of Macula Lutea as Shown by Red-free Light. (11 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 379-392.

THERAPEUTICS.

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Frias Ornate, A. Cocain in Ophthalmic Practice. Rev. de Med. y Cirug. de la Habana, Nov. 10, 1918.

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Marin Amat, M. Substitute for Optochin. Arch. de Oft. Hisp.-Amer., v. 18, pp. 517-534.

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Moore, C. H. Procrastination in Care and Treatment of Eye. Albany Med. Annals, v. 40, pp. 1-10.

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Jackson, E. Common Changes in Regular Astigma, Causes. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 21.

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Mügge, F. Anomalies of Refraction and the Faculty of Vision. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 423-432.

Payne, S. M. Hypermetropia Responsible for Heterophoria, Astigmatism and Myopia. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 30.

Pavia, J. L. Dynamic Retinoscopy. Semana Med., v. 25, p. 2184.

Roy, J. N. Eyesight of Negros of Africa. Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, pp. 72-83.

Silberstein, L. Simplified Method of Tracing Rays through any Optical System. 37 pp. London: Longmans-Green and Co., 1918. Abst. Lancet, Dec. 14, 1918, p. 820.

Williams, E. R. Treatment of Asthenopia in Children. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 39.

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Kleijn, A de and **Tumbelaka.** Vestibular Eye Reflexes. Graefe's Archiv. f. Ophth., v. 95, p. 314.

Magath, F. B. Variation in Distribution of Abducens Nerve in Man. (2 ill., Bibl.) Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, p. 67-71.

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Sheard, C., and **Ferree, J. A.** Ocular Movements and Center of Ocular Rotation. Jour. Amer. Inst. Homeop., v. 11, pp. 771-782.

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Teal, F. F. Nuclear Paralysis. Nebraska Med. Jour., v. 3, p. 276.

CONJUNCTIVA.

Axenfeld, T. Gonorrhea, Blennorrhea and Trachoma. Duet. med. Woch., v. 53, p. 160.

Brinton, A. G. Vernal Catarrh. Med. Jour. South Africa, v. 13, pp. 142-144.

Cohen, M. Striated Keratitis. Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, p. 96.

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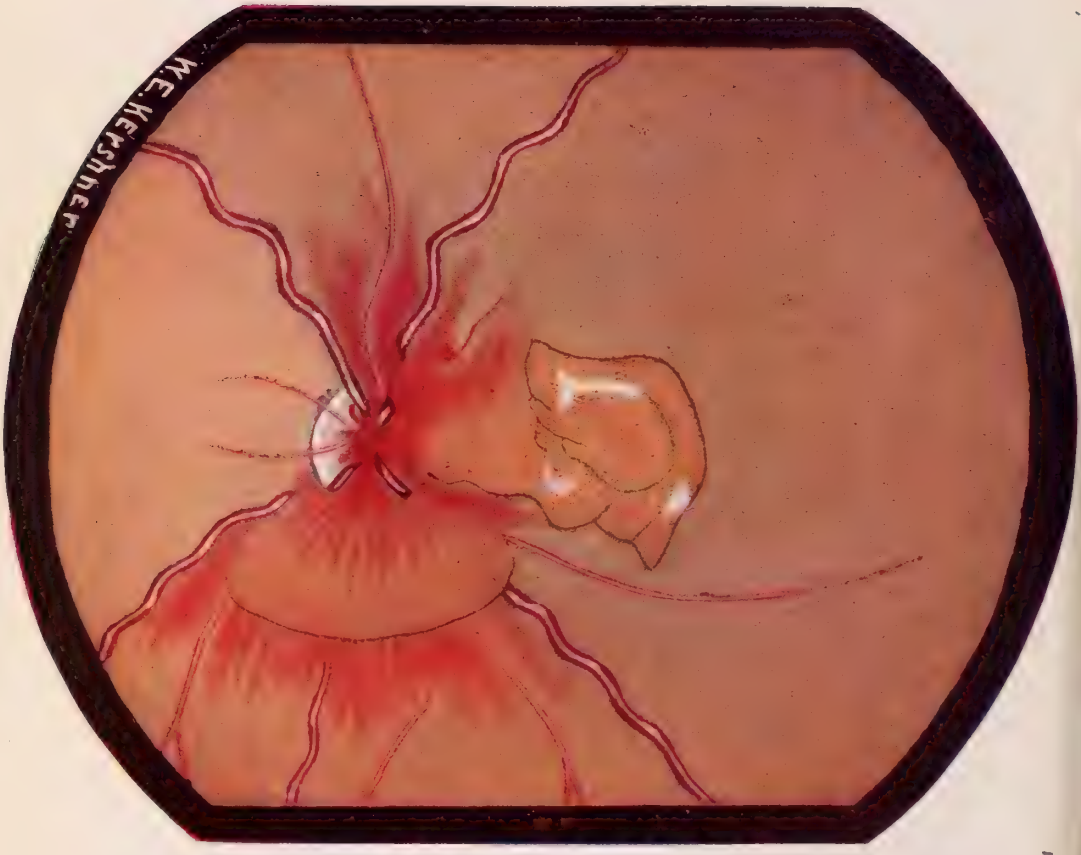
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INTRAOCULAR HEMORRHAGE IN BRIGHT'S DISEASE.
KERSHNER'S CASE.

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OCULAR INTERNAL HEMORRHAGE IN A CASE OF BRIGHT'S DISEASE.

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BATH, MAINE.

This unique case history includes an ophthalmoscopic study of the pathology of certain well known lesions of the eye ground, here asssociated in an unusual manner, and clearing up with remarkable rapidity and completeness.

The case presented here is considered of sufficient interest to report for the following reasons: First—the changes are markedly different in the two eyes, the right showing a decided optic neuritis of the third degree, or to be more exact a neuroretinitis; the left demonstrating beautifully three types of retinal hemorrhage without neuritis. Second—the above changes occur in a young man who had no increase in blood pressure, no arteriosclerosis, and no increase in the white cell count. Third — elimination was at all tests proven normal or sufficient. The phenolphthalein test was used several times; albumin was present in the urine, and also casts, which were persistent. Fourth—the cause of extensive retinal hemorrhage, of whatever type, and neuroretinitis indicates in this case a common exciting and predisposing factor. Fifth—the sudden resolution with the simultaneous clearing up of the pathologic changes in both eyes points to a definite relation between the two conditions.

It is indeed interesting to watch the rapidly changing conditions in the left eye as they progressed, and as they retrogressed.

CASE.

The subject of this report came to the outpatient Eye Clinic of one of the Base Hospitals in the United States, on February 18th, 1918. At this time he complained that he could not see as well as usual, and that he had discomfort in his eyes. The patient was a tall, slim American of the brunette type, moderately well nourished, twenty-eight years of age; and above the average of his class and type in intelligence and strength of mind, as his personal history will show.

Family and Personal History.—Two brothers died of typhoid fever, one of diphtheria, and another in infancy. A sister died in infancy, another during labor. His wife died of puerperal eclampsia. This man is a mechanic in civil life, and works in cotton mills; the duties of his job are repairing looms. He denies absolutely any alcoholic indulgence for the past seven years; during the preceding four years, however, he drank heavily and constantly; he was intoxicated two or three times each week, and often drank 250 ccs. of whiskey before breakfast during these four years.

Previous Medical History.—Our patient had a series of attacks of objective vertigo about eight years ago, which improved after the discontinuance of cigarette smoking, to which he had been addicted for some years. Very slight manifestations of this complaint have visited him from time to time since the original attack, but have been controlled by diet and attention to his bowels. About six years ago he had

nocturia for a short period; this occurred once or twice each night. Measles and mumps fifteen years ago. Denies gonorrhoea and syphilis; also malaria, scarlet fever, smallpox, rheumatism and typhoid. There is no history of edema of the extremities at any time of his life.

The present condition dates only to February 14th, 1918, previous to which he had never had attention directed to his eyes. On this date the patient experienced a toothache-like pain in both eyeballs; the pain lasted longer in the left, and became quite severe. The vision begain to fail in both eyes, and as he expressed it, "There is a cloud over my eyes all the time." He, at the time, had slight dyspnea, after sharp drills, slight headaches, but slept well and relished his food. There were no gastric symptoms, no cough, nor night sweats. There was a slight increase in the postnasal discharge.

Ocular Examination.—Inspection negative, conjunctiva normal, ocular excursions satisfactory in all directions, pupils 2 to 3 mm., react to light, accommodation and convergence promptly; anterior ocular segments of both eyes normal.

Ophthalmoscopic Examination.—Right. Media clear; periphery of the fundus was congested with large tortuous veins; the arteries appeared full but not tortuous. The macula was heavily stippled and injected, as was the whole fundus; disc margins obscured, physiologic cup filled with exudate; perivascular lymph vessels full and bulging. The refraction of the nerve head was plus 1.5 D. We found here a clear picture of optic neuritis of the third stage, with a very few minute hemorrhages along the vessels.

Left. Media clear. Periphery of the fundus normal, except for the heavy tortuous veins; macula dark in color and heavily stippled. The nerve head was partly filled with blood to the nasal side above and below; there was no blood to the temporal side, nor was there bulging of the nerve head; no full perivascular lymph vessels. Extending from the disc, and appearing to come from in the disc, and reaching to the nasal side, was a roll-like hemorrhage, somewhat clubshaped, enlarging as it went from the disc, which formed an abrupt rounded end, 2½ disc diameters from the disc. The nasal end showed three distinct major rolls or folds, and several smaller ones; the rolls extended into the eye 1 mm., 1½ mm., and 2 mm., respectively. The color of this mass was uniformly deeper than the fundus, except for three irregular grayish white areas where the folds merged into one another. The whole fundus was only slightly, if at all, congested, altho the veins were large and tortuous.

The vision at this time was: Right = 10/200. Left = 20/40.

The examination the following day showed no change in the right eye except a slight increase in the number of small paravessel hemorrhages. In the left eye we found all that was seen on the previous day, with an additional hemorrhage of the subhyaloid type, extending from the disc up, one disc diameter. This mass was elongated, being 2½ disc diameters in the horizontal meridian. It covered the superior retinal vessel, and presented a sharply defined superior border and ends, but the inferior border seemed to blend with the hemorrhage in the disc, or to be attached thereto. This new hemorrhage was heavier in color and more coarsely stippled than the first one. The vision remained the same in each eye.

At the visit on February 21st, the right eye was found to be as already described, with the addition of more edema of the macula, and the development of the typical stellate exudate about the macula. The left again showed additional changes; there were present well defined flame shaped hemorrhages down from the disc between the inferior temporal and nasal veins which all but obscured the arteries. This extended dowward nearly one disc diameter. There were also the same type of changes above and at irregular intervals all around the subhyaloid mass. The base of these new areas seemed to come from beneath the margin of the second hemorrhage, both above and to the nasal and temporal

ends as well. Smaller flames were present above and below the original roll-shaped mass. These last additions to our study increased in extent and density somewhat for two or three days, by which time an illdefined stellate grayish exudate appeared surrounding the macula which was more pronounced above than below. The vision, now under homatropin was: Right = 1/200. Left = 20/200.

The writer does not wish to convey the impression that the original hemorrhage in the left eye has been absolutely as seen the first day. While in the main it has remained so, yet from day to day the width of some of the rolls has changed slightly and the position of this mass varied somewhat; that is, higher and lower on different days. The accompanying illustration indicates the process when fully developed. See Plate V.

This condition of affairs lasted seven days with little or no change in either eye. On the morning of the eighth day there was no change in the right eye, but in the left all efforts to outline the fundus except in the extreme periphery were futile. A grayish haze, indefinite and indistinct, was all that could be seen of the disc. The fundus reflex was very pale; the central portion of the fundus was even less distinct than looking at an object thru a dense fog; only a suggestion of the fundus reflex could be obtained. This, mind you, was March 3rd, 1918, at which time the vision was: Right = 3/200. Left, hand movement at 1/2 M.

The following morning, much to our surprise, the neuritis of the right eye was decidedly improved; in the left eye the fundus was visible, with an absolutely normal disc, with an entire absence of all hemorrhages except the subhyaloid above the disc. The only indication remaining of trouble in this eye was a slightly hazy deepening of color at the site of the original hemorrhage. The tortuous veins in both eyes were gone. Vision: Right = 20/200. Left = 20/30.

An additional twenty-four hours presented us with normal fundi and with normal vessels; except for the subhyaloid mass, in the left eye, which was little if any more than half its original size. The stippling was coarser in this area and grayish white spots appeared over the surface, which had a tendency to coalesce. As indicated above, the right fundus was now normal, except for a slightly striated fullness of the disc.

By the end of the third week the right eye presented a clear disc; normal fundus and vessels. In the left, continued contraction in the subhyaloid mass. Vision was now: Right = 20/30 plus 1. Left = 20/30 minus 1.

On March 18th, just one month after coming to the clinic, the vision was: Right = 20/20 minus 1. Left = 20/20 minus 2; with normal right fundus, and the left normal but for the hemorrhage, which now was about one-half its former size.

The form fields showed nothing unusual and coincided with like fields in any case of optic neuritis, namely, decided contractions for form and colors. In the left eye the form fields were not contracted to any marked extent, but there were absolute scotomata corresponding to the fringes or ends of the flame-shaped area. With the sudden resolution or release of neuritis in the right eye there was not a correspondingly rapid widening of the form field. The first day of the decided change for the better, the fields were practically not altered; the following day about five degrees widening manifested itself, and then proceeded a slow but steady increase in the width until it was about 10 to 12 degrees under normal, when the patient was lost to us.

The physical examination by the medical service is as follows: "The patient is a fairly well nourished and well muscled individual, with no deformities. Station and gait are normal, tendon reflexes are equal and normally active. Hearing to rough test is normal; the tongue is moist, clean, tooth-marked, and coarsely tremulous. The tonsils are well atrophied and very slightly cryptic. The superficial glands are not palpable, the thyroid is slightly palpable and visible. The peripheral vessels are palpable, but do not pulsate. The chest is asymetrical, on the

nipple level; the left side measuring 17¾ inches, the right side 16 inches. Expansion is shallow, but apparently equal. The lungs are resonant to normal limits, and expand at the bases. The breath sounds are vesicular; there are no rales."

"The cardiac impulse is neither visible nor palpable. The left border of the heart is 9 cm. from the midsternal line, and the right 2 cm. The cardiac rythm is normal, 96 to the minute while standing. There is a mild sinus arythmia; at the apex there is a short, untransmitted, systolic murmur with a well accentuated second sound. At the aortic cartilage the sounds are somewhat distant with a slight ring of the second sound. At the pulmonary cartilage the first sound is lost, but the second is clear. At all areas the sounds are somewhat distant. The systolic blood pressure is 124 mm. mercury; the diastolic 90 mm. In a recumbent position the cardiac rate is 72 per minute. After an effort test there is a perfect recovery in two minutes."

"No tenderness or rigidity in the abdomen is found. The liver is just palpable on deep inspiration. The kidneys and spleen are not palpable; the skin reflexes are active."

The laboratory findings were as follows: "No leucocytosis, no malaria, no hookworm, and negative Wassermann.

Examination of the urine, 24 hour specimens showed it always acid and free from sugar.

Date	Amount	Albumin	Microscopic
2/18	2200 cc.	Present	Red blood cells, hyalin and granular casts.
2/21	2200 cc.	Present	Granular casts.
2/25	2200 cc.	Trace	Granular casts.
2/27	1800 cc.	Absent	Few granular casts.
3/10	1700 cc.	Absent	Few granular casts.

There are manifestly conditions here which are of interest. These are a close relation between neuritis and ocular hemorrhages in kidney disease, or an anatomic factor in this left eye which manifested itself by an optic neuritis in the right; and hemorrhages, multiple and massive, in the left.

THE TREATMENT OF TRACHOMA AND CHRONIC CONJUNCTIVITIS WITH NEGATIVE PRESSURE.

B. M. Howley, M. D.

NEW BRUNSWICK, N. J.

This is the account of a practical method of treating trachoma less painful and less formidable than rolling the lids or grattage, but apparently capable of achieving similar results.

It is now three years since I began this treatment and my results have been so satisfactory that I feel that I am justified in reporting them. In the earlier stages of trachoma, when squeezing is the favorite method of treatment, this still ranks high in my estimation as the best method. But negative pressure at the time of operation or later can be of great service. It is to those cases of trachoma which are not operative cases, but which are so chronic in character, that they are almost incurable, that I wish to direct attention.

The most favorite method of treatment has been blue stone, and I must say that I think it is one of the most barbaric treatments that could be devised. The pathologists state that in trachoma there is a round cell infiltration with the formation of scar tissue, and at the same time they speak of an infection that has not been positively identified. Now, I will not enter into the pathologic or bacteriologic aspect of the disease, but I would like to draw attention to the fact that negative pressure is the most positive way of abstracting the secretion and infection from the conjunctiva of the lid.

Blue stone acts by its irritating qualities and abstracts water from the tissues. Negative pressure draws the se-

cretion and the infection from the glands and causes resolution to a certain extent in the affected lid. The amount of negative pressure that the patient will allow will vary, but I have had a negative pressure of ten pounds on the upper lid and five or six pounds on the lower lid. This is not a steady pressure, as you will be guided by the sensitiveness of your patient as you sweep your applicator across the lid ready to lessen the vacuum if it becomes painful. The junction of the upper lid with the culdesac, and the culdesac, are more sensitive to negative pressure, but with perseverance you will accomplish a great deal. The lower lid, altho sensitive, will stand

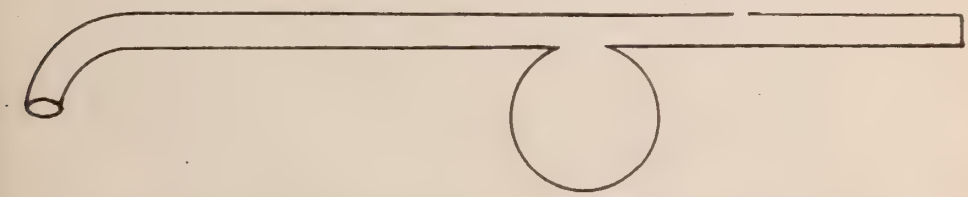


Fig. 1. Glass tube applicator of Howley. Curved tip to be applied to the conjunctiva; globe to receive secretion below, and opening in tube above by which vacuum can be controlled with tip of finger.

three or four pounds of negative pressure if you use the sweeping motions as I have advised in the upper lid. Be careful and do not pull the applicator from the tissues as it is painful and may tear the tissues. As a rule the average patient will bear six or seven pounds on the upper lid and three or four pounds on the lower lid without complaining.

At the beginning of this treatment I had a gauge which showed the amount of negative pressure, but later discarded it as I found it cumbersome and not of practical utility. The glass tubes used by me have been made by the Sorensen Pump Company, of New York, whose pump I use in my work, altho any good pump will do. They are modelled after tubes that have been made and used in nose and throat work. It is not necessary to have a vacuum gauge, as with your finger resting on the opening of the applicator you can regulate the amount of negative pressure according as your tube shows the entrance of secretion and the sensitiveness of your patient. If it is a case for scarification or scraping you will cocainize and then after scraping or scarification you will apply the negative pressure. Scraping with the aid of a small scalpel I think is one of the best ways of attacking the fine granular type of trachoma. In sensitive patients you may apply a four per cent solution of cocain to the lids, but the average person will let you treat them without it.

The conjunctiva of the upper and lower lids, also the culdesac, is cleansed with a solution of boric acid or bichlorid of mercury 1—10,000. After everting the upper lid I place the applicator on the lid and with a sweeping motion run the applicator over the conjunctival surface from the inner to the outer canthus or vice versa. Many sweeping applications can be made to the lid in this way until the tube shows secretion with some blood, if the surface is irregular or granular, and you may be amazed at the amount of secretion that comes from the lids.

The glass attachments are 120 mm. in length with a curved end 4x3 mm. that is applied to the tissues. There is a central bulb or chamber to hold the secretions that are drawn off, and 5 mm. back of the bulb is a small opening in the tube for the finger of the manipulator to make or break a vacuum as he desires.

If the trachoma is slow to yield I scarify and then use suction. Previous to scarification I wash the lids, especially the culdesac, with a solution of boric acid, and wipe with a solution of bichlorid of mercury 1-5,000. Cocain having been applied, I use a small scal-

pel or scarifier and scarify freely, wiping the blood away. I then apply negative pressure and remove the blood and infective material.

The patients who have thickened lids, and a conjunctiva of a rough, granular type, you cannot only scarify, but you can scrape with a small scalpel and then apply the suction tube. These patients, as in all cases that I have treated by this method, will invariably tell you that the eye feels better with the first treatment. In trachoma or in chronic conjunctivitis especially when it is monocular, it is always advisable to see that there is no stenosis in the nasal duct.

My results have been obtained in private practice and therefore, I have not a great number to report. I have had about twenty-five cases of trachoma, and they have varied from the mild cases to the most aggravated or severe ones. The mild cases yielded to negative pressure and if slow, a moderate scarification followed by suction yielded quick results. In these cases negative pressure is applied two or three times a week, followed by an application of bichlorid of mercury 1-5000, or argyrol 20 per cent. Scarification could be performed every two or three weeks as indicated by the progress of the case or the severity of the disease. Silver nitrat 1 per cent or 2 per cent is of great benefit in these cases. For home treatment I order hydrargyi bichlorid 1-10,000, argyrol 20 per cent, or zinc sulphat gr. 1 to 1 oz. Persistent treatment along these lines will cure some cases in three months.

The severe cases that have been progressing for years are not so amenable to treatment, owing to the marked infiltration in tissues and the formation of new connective tissues and its resulting deformity. In these cases I always begin as soon as possible with a scarification, which I make as thoro as possible, and then apply suction to the bleeding tissues. My results have been good and very satisfactory, but not as satisfactory as in the milder cases. This is due to the pathologic changes and formation of new tissue. The results have been better than from any method I know of, excepting certain cases where tarsal removal may be performed. It seems to me that the early application of negative pressure, with scarification in these thickened lids, will make tarsal removal unnecessary.

In your old trachoma cases you will clear up an infective discharge, make the eye feel much better and reduce your infiltration to a great extent, but you cannot remove connective tissue by this method.

Chronic conjunctivitis that resists treatment by the ordinary methods will speedily yield to negative pressure with local applications. Vaccines have been made from the infection obtained from the conjunctiva with negative results. Whatever is the primary cause of trachoma—the latter stages show a mixed infection.

In conclusion I wish to say that in trachoma there is no remedy in my hands that has been as beneficial as negative pressure, as it removes the infection and causes absorption to take place in the infiltrated tissue.

DETACHING OF BULBAR CONJUNCTIVA AS A TREATMENT OF TRACHOMATOUS PANNUS.

Kazuo Hiwatari, M. D.

KYOTO, JAPAN.

This method evolved from modifications of tarsectomy has something in common with the old operation of peritomy for pannus, and yields very favorable results as here reported.

There are various kinds of treatment of trachomatous pannus, among which friction with certain medicaments, cauterisation, peritomy with some modifications (Agnew's operation or Denig's transplantation, for instance), and tarsectomy are to be mentioned.

The indication for each of them must be determined, in every given case, with regard to the circumstances of the pannus itself on the one hand, and to the trachomatous changes of the lids on the other hand.

In a chronic trachoma case with a heavy hypertrophy of the tarsus, accompanied by pannus, the tarsectomy after Heisrath-Kuhnt gives usually, but not always, a good result for the pannus.

Modifications after Murakami or Mizuo of the Kuhnt's tarsectomy, which differ so far from the original method that bulbar conjunctiva is detached more widely than the latter, are also to be recommended for such cases. The reason why trachomatous pannus is so favorably influenced by the tarsectomy is an interesting problem for which many factors can be enumerated.

Above all, the absence of hypertrophied tarsus and of affected conjunctiva, which might have mechanically, or otherwise, an injurious effect upon the cornea, seems certainly to be one of them. But this factor must not be thought too much of, for the trachomatous pannus is not always parallel with the existence of hypertrophy of the tarsus or the intensity of trachomatous changes of the conjunctiva. It may be missed even in severe cases with hypertrophied tarsus; while, on the contrary, it may be met with sometimes in slight forms.

In recent years I obtained the most favorable results in the treatment of trachomatous pannus with hypertrophy of tarsus, by the modification after Mizuo of the Kuhnt's tarsectomy, in which the detaching of bulbar conjunctiva is carried out more widely than in the original method. Consequently it occurred to me that the most important factor which may exert a good influence upon the tarsectomized case of trachomatous pannus might be probably the detaching of the bulbar conjunctiva, performed during the course of operation.

From that point of view I tried in the following years the detaching of bulbar conjunctiva only as a treatment of trachomatous pannus, with or without hypertrophy of the tarsus, and especially in the former cases when the tarsectomy was out of question owing to diminution of the fornix, or when the pannus was clinically the essential disturbance, the conjunctiva having been almost restored from the trachomatous changes. The results were so excellent that I was pressed to describe my own method shortly in the following lines.

After disinfection of the eyelids and the conjunctiva, under general precautions 0.5 or 1.0 ccm. of 1 per cent cocain solution is injected subconjunctivally upon the fornix or upon the bulbar conjunctiva close to the latter. By this, insensitiveness and looseness of the conjunctiva may be achieved.

Then a flat incision is made by means of a thin and sharp knife parallel with the upper margin of the tarsus from the

inner to the outer canthus, thru the fornix or the bulbar conjunctiva.

Three suture threads are introduced thru the lower lip of the conjunctival wound, in the form of loops; and given to an assistant, who helps further the detaching of bulbar conjunctiva from the underlying tissue, by moderate traction of them.

The detaching of conjunctiva bulbi towards the cornea is achieved usually very easily with less bleeding by the help of Graefe's linear knife. Upon the limbus only, where the conjunctiva is intimately adherent to the subjacent corneal tissue, it needs a little more powerful procedure.

The detaching must be extended also towards median and lateral sides of the cornea, if the blood vessels run into the pannus from those sides.

The incision wound of the conjunctiva is sutured continuously towards inner and outer canthi by means of the middle loop. Fixation of each end of the suture thread on the skin of inner and outer canthus is made with adhesive plaster, and a bandage.

As after-treatment daily washing of the culdesac with a weak disinfecting solution is recommended, and if a strong irritation is caused, instillation of atropin is naturally required. Removal of the suture is done after four days.

If necessary, mechanical or medicamental measures must be further continued against the trachomatous changes upon the conjunctiva and fornix, after complete healing of the wounds.

I have twenty cases of trachomatous pannus in 13 patients thus operated, which have been observed long enough to determine the effect of my operation.

The blood vessels in pannus diminished gradually in all cases after this operation, and in the cases where one or one-half year has already elapsed they can be no more found even by means of a loupe. More or less corneal opacity in irregular form remains as residuum of the pannus.

Altho I am agreed with Prof. Onishi that there are some cases of trachomatous pannus, if few, where remissions spontaneously occur, I never saw a full disappearance of the blood vessels from the pannus in such cases. So the complete disappearance of the blood vessels in my operated cases must be ascribed to the favorable effect of the operation. No recurrence has been observed in any of my cases.

Recovery of the visual acuity after operation was as follows:

Visual acuity before operation	After one year
0.5	1.0 in 6 cases
0.3	0.7 in 5 cases
0.7	1.0 in 2 cases
Hand movement 1 m.	0.3 in 3 cases
After one and a half years	
0.5	0.9 in 2 cases
0.2	0.5 in 2 cases

Altho the cases are not very numerous, the result of my operation is to be mentioned as satisfactory; and I can conclude with safety, from my own experiences, that my method is not inferior, at least, to tarsectomy.

The favorable effect of my operation upon the trachomatous pannus is now recognized by other ophthalmologists of our country. Nagano has recently reported on his 21 cases of trachomatous pannus, which he had treated after my method with good results.

In the ophthalmologic clinic of the imperial university of Kyoto the detaching of bulbar conjunctiva is now recommended in the treatment of trachomatous pannus.

I suppose further that the detaching of the bulbar conjunctiva may be applied perhaps also as prophylaxis in cases where invasion of pannus can be expected; by destroying pathologic tissue already existing in and around the limbus; or, if not yet affected, by producing cicatricial tissue in the subconjunctiva, which prevents further advance of the trachomatous infiltration towards cornea.

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DIFFRACTION IN THE HUMAN EYE AND THE PHENOMENA OF COLORED RINGS SURROUNDING LUMINOUS SOURCES.

CHARLES SHEARD, PH. D.

COLUMBUS, OHIO.

This paper from the Department of Applied Optics in the Ohio State University explains certain entoptic appearances; likely to be observed by the patient who may inquire with regard to their occurrence and significance.

Quite recently we have read a paper by Dr. R. Brudenell Carter,[1] of England, on "The Appearance of Color Spectra to the Aged." He describes in some detail the phenomena seen when looking steadily "at an ordinary electric filament light, about ten feet distant from the eyes." The light then appears to be surrounded by a vivid color circle of about two feet diameter, with the red border external, the blue internal, while the yellow and green are intermediate. "This band appears to be about six inches in width, so as to be clear of the light itself, from which its inner margin appears to be about six inches distant." If a lighted match is held at arm's length "the color circle around the flame appears to be about as large as a florin, while that around the full moon is very large and of very brilliant colors."

Dr. Carter concludes that the optical (refractive) condition of his eyes has nothing to do with the phenomena. He says, however, that if a strong light is brought sufficiently near his eyes the color circle disappears, but comes into existence again as the pupils expand when the light is carried away from the eyes. The color circles are also obliterated when looking thru a pin-hole opening. He concludes that the cause of the color phenomena is *"the diminishing refractive power of some of the ocular media."* After ruling out the vitreous humor, "atmospheric, secretory or compressive changes" the conclusion is reached that "the crystalline lenses are themselves the immediate causes of the phenomenon," and that these phenomena do not indicate diminution of or loss of lenticular transparency. In conclusion, Carter regards the color rings merely as an *"accidental result of unimportant lenticular conditions."* Since this paper was written, an excellent résumé of recent comments on this topic is given by Major Chance[3] in the "Digest of Ophthalmic Literaature."

The writer of this paper has been interested in these subjective phenomena of color rings surrounding luminous sources for some time, and has carried out some experimentation thereon. He has also included in his work on "Physiological Optics"[2] some of the essential facts which various authorities have been able to discover relative to the phenomena under discussion.

With such of Dr. Carter's statements as relate to the appearance, order of colors and so forth, we are in accord. However, we cannot agree with those statements which attribute the color

phenomena to diminished refracting power of some of the ocular media (presumably the crystalline lens according to Dr. Carter); nor again to the final conclusion that these rings are mainly the accidental results of unimportant lenticular conditions; for we shall present evidence to show that they are due to the superficial cells of the epithelium of the cornea or to the endothelium of the Descemet's membrane.

COLORED RINGS MAY NOT BE SEEN BY ALL OBSERVERS.

Likewise, the title of Dr. Carter's article—"The Appearance of Color Spectra to the Aged"—is, in our judgment, a misnomer; since age has, in and of itself, nothing to do with the phenomena, as we hope to show in succeeding paragraphs. These colored rings are not commonly observed because, as a general rule, the light source makes the surroundings too luminous. Or, in other words, there is not sufficient contrast between the light and its environment, such as is obtainable, for example, by striking a match in an otherwise darkened room. And for the further reason that these phenomena are not observed to exist, just as is true in the case of physiologic diplopia, unless the attention of the observer is directed to them. Furthermore, from the explanations which follow, it will be found that the intensity of illumination of the rings is only about two one-hundredths of that of the corresponding intensity of the first maximum (i. e., the original light source), hence, these rings falling upon portions of the retina external to the macula and having low intensity may not be visible in some cases and will not be observed in many others unless first described and then looked for.

The writer has observed these colored rings under favorable conditions for over ten years; and being still under forty years of age, these effects cannot be attributed, in his case at least, to the effects of age *per se* upon the crystalline lens, or other portions of the ocular mechanism. During this period of time his refractive correction has changed from +1.25 D. S. ⌒ +0.50 cyl. ax 90°, to +4.25 D. S. ⌒ +0.50 cyl. ax. 90°.

The attention of many students coming under the instruction of the writer, and of others coming under his observation, has been directed to these phenomena of colored rings; and with but few exceptions they have been readily observed. This has been true irrespective of the refractive condition, whether myopic, hyperopic or astigmatic, and irrespective of whether or not correcting lenses were worn. Hyperopic conditions apparently tend to make the phenomena (with respect to ring No. 1: see later discussion), more readily seen, however. This we believe to be due to the concentration of light, or sharpness of retinal image obtained by virtue of the small pupils, generally accompanying hyperopia; and the nature of the distribution of light upon the retina as affected conjointly by the condition of refraction and chromatic aberration. The size of the pupil, unless extremely and abnormally small, has no effect upon the phenomena. By this we mean that the phenomena are observable alike to those with large or small pupils.

They are also readily observed with ciliary and sphincter muscles relaxed, when viewing sources of light at large distances; or, again, when both are innervated, as in accommodating for such a source at close points. We are in agreement with Carter that these rings are not seen when the light is approached too closely, i. e., within a few inches of the face. The reasons are apparent: First, the contraction of the ring upon the approach of the source, and secondly, the submerging of the ring in the general central illumination surrounding the source. Also, these rings will not be seen when looking thru a small aperture, such as a narrow stenopaic slit. But the corona and striae radiating out from the light source will be found to be crossed at right angles by a series of parallel colored fringes, which arise from the diffraction effects observable thru any narrow slit. In this case the physical phenomena of interference and diffrac-

tion of light enter into the effects produced.

METHODS OF EXPERIMENTATION AND RESULTS.

One of the most serviceable and convenient sources of light to be used in observing the phenomena under discussion is the small lamp of a self-luminous retinoscope or ophthalmoscope. This light source is steady, small and brilliant when viewed in a darkened room.

If this, or a similar, luminous source is viewed at any convenient distance,

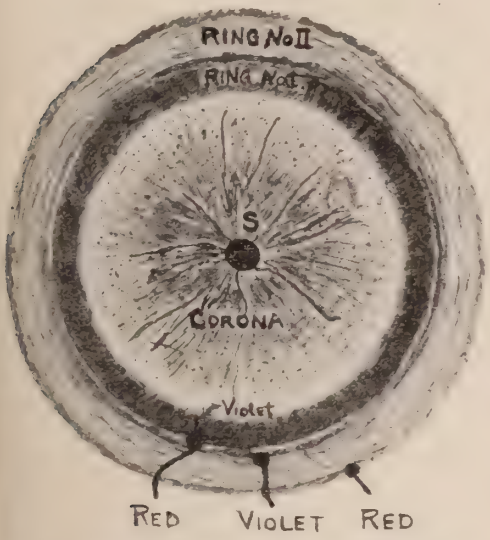


Fig. 1. Diagram illustrating relations of light source S, ciliary corona, and rings I and II.

the arrangement of colored rings and ciliary corona, so called, will be somewhat as roughly diagramed in Fig. 1.

The Ciliary Corona.—Surrounding the whole of the luminous source is a general luminous glow, with several prominent striae or rays shooting out in various directions from the central light. This phenomena is very striking if the light source is brilliant. The name of ciliary corona has been attached thereto. (Tscherning[4].) This ciliary corona is composed of an infinity of very fine, and ofttimes many colored radiations, which cross thru the whole of the luminous area. Its extent depends upon the intensity of the light source, or the luminous flux entering the observer's eye. Using an arc lamp, or the image of the sun reflected from a convex mirror, there will be found a diameter of the corona which may reach 8 degrees. An examination of these phenomena with monochromatic light causes some minor changes in their character. Under these conditions the corona presents the form of a luminous dust, crossed by few radial striae. Druault[5] says that, under such conditions, there may be seen quite near the luminous area one or two fine black rings, due to diffraction by the border of the pupil. That portion of the luminous "dust" or haze close to the light source appears to have a constant motion of the nature of contractions and dilatations, which probably correspond to changes of the pupil (Druault). However, we suggest that, if the corona is produced by crystalline lens fibers, these fluctuations may be due to small variations in the action of the accommodative apparatus.

Ring No. I.—Surrounding the ciliary corona will be seen the vividly colored ring (marked No. 1 in Fig. 1), presenting the colors from blue to red from the center to the periphery of the ring. If the luminous source is not very bright this ring forms the limit of the corona, but if its intensity is high the diameter of the corona may attain a value double that of the ring. Furthermore, these phenomena appear to be universal. Nearly anyone walking along a street lighted by gas or electric lights may observe them.

Ring No. II.—In addition, under conditions to be further discussed, there may be seen a second ring (marked Ring No. II in Fig. 1); somewhat fainter than ring No. I and closely bounding it, with colors arranged in a similar order. The writer has observed both of these rings simultaneously on a few occasions, when the light source was rather powerful and the pupil in a sufficiently dilated condition. The artificial dilatation of the pupil by cocain makes more probable the appearance of this second ring; but in addition it is generally necessary that the light source be brilliant, small and close at

hand. Otherwise the intensity of illumination of the ring by virtue of its size and the position and character of the retinal illumination are too low to make it visible. Upon the basis on which we shall attempt to explain these phenomena, namely *diffraction of light,* it will be shown that the intensity of this second maximum is only about one-third of that of the first maximum (i. e., the first ring), or about one two-hundredth of that of the original

data relative to our own eyes, since we are certain of fair accuracy in this case at least. The determinations of the diameters of the various portions of the colored ring No. 1 were made by the use of the small ophthalmoscopic lamp, held at distance of distinct vision, and observing (or marking) as nearly as possible the points cut by the various colors as seen upon a celluloid millimeter rule mounted just back of the lamp. No great accuracy in these

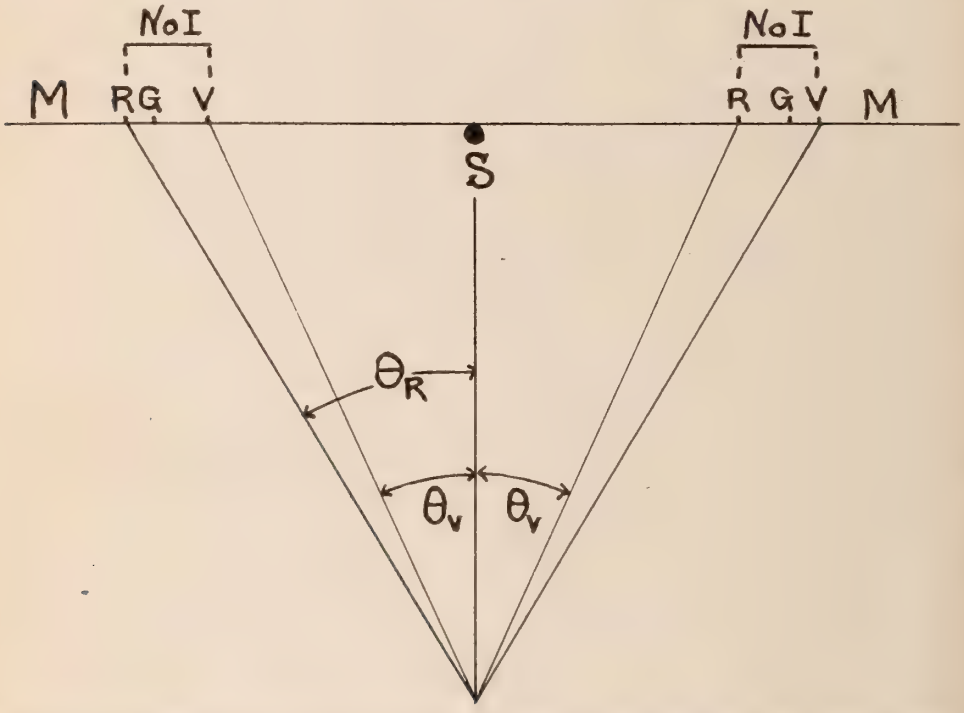


Fig. 2. Diagram illustrating the relation of the angles which determine the rings of the various colors, and their distance from the source of light. See text.

source. We have also to consider the fact that the situation of the retinal image is more peripheral in the case of the second ring, hence making its mental reception and interpretation less likely. The presence of a large pupil would, therefore, be conducive to greater flux of light and hence greater intensity of retinal stimulation.

DATA ON DIAMETERS OF THE RINGS.

We have made several sets of observations and obtained data given by several subjects, but prefer to tabulate the measurements can be claimed, i. e., within ten per cent probably, and yet the results were very concordant. Knowing, therefore, the diameters of the portions of the colored rings and the distance of observation, the angle, (θ), subtended at the nodal point of the eye by each of the colors could be found by calculation. The method is graphically illustrated in Fig. 2, in which S represents the source of light, $M\ M$ the millimeter scale, $V\ V$, $G\ G$ and $R\ R$ the diameters of various portions of ring No. I. The data for ring No. II

were obtained in a similar manner altho with less likelihood of accuracy.

A résumé of the experimental data is as follows:

TABLE I.

Ring	Angle (θ). Red λ=6500	Green-Blue λ=5000	Violet λ=4000
I	3° 40′	2° 40′	2°
II	8°	5° 40′	4° 20′

THEORY OF THE DIFFRACTION OF LIGHT BY CIRCULAR APERTURES AND CIRCULAR OPAQUE DISCS.

It is not our purpose in this paper to recopy the details of various mathematic proofs relative to the relations between slit width or space between particles, angle of diffraction θ and wavelength λ; but rather to take the final formulæ calculated in treatises on physical optics and apply them, with some explanations, to the subject under discussion. We shall also point out how the phenomena of interference of light enter into this problem. It is to be hoped that some digression will be pardoned in the interest of those who are not as familiar with the phenomena of diffraction and interference of light, as are physicists and those who are specialists in pure optics.

When light, diverging from a luminous point, passes by the edges of an opaque obstacle, systems of colored fringes are formed parallel to the edges of the shadows. Or if, for example, a knife-edge slit is cut in a piece of cardboard and a luminous source viewed thru the slit, there will be observed a series of parallel colored fringes, separated by dark strips, if a white light source is used. If a monochromatic source is used, then the fringes will be of one color and parallel to the lengthwise dimension of the slit. In the case of a circular disc or circular aperture, the fringes form a system of concentric circular rings. If we have a large number of irregularly distributed small equal apertures in an opaque screen it can be shown mathematically and experimentally that the diffraction pattern is the same as that produced by a single disc or aperture multiplied, in intensity, by the number of apertures (or discs).

By the principle of Babinet as applied to diffraction screens which are complementary, by which we mean a pair of screens in which the transparent portions of one are replaced by opaque portions in the other and *vice versa*,—it is found that the diffraction patterns are the same in the two cases. Hence circular discs or apertures are interchangeable in our theories.

Fraunhofer found that these colored rings could be produced artificially by looking at a source of light thru a plate of glass covered with fine particles of condensed vapor or with lycopodium dust. The condition necessarily imposed is that the globules shall be of sensibly uniform size. He also obtained these rings with a large number of small metallic discs of equal size, placed between two plates of glass; and found that the diameters of the rings varied directly as the wave length and inversely as the diameters of the discs. Further classical experiments by Verdet, Young and others give modified proofs supporting such conclusions. Hence we may conclude that any system of regularly spaced slits or obstacles, apertures or discs will give diffraction effects. Furthermore, in the case of diffraction by a large number of irregularly arranged circular apertures or discs, the phases between the parallel disturbances from homologous points vary in an irregular manner, and we have as much reinforcement as destructive interference in any given direction. The illumination at any point is the same as that produced by a single aperture multiplied by the number of apertures.

We have used the terms phase, interference and reinforcement in the foregoing sentences. Two particles, for example, are said to be in the same phase of motion when their displacements and directions of motion are the same; and two particles in the same phase are separated by a complete wave length, or by any whole number of wave lengths. Light of a certain wave length will be reinforced by light

of a similar wave length if they are in phase. If in opposite phase — that is, if one is executing a motion diametrically opposed to the other—they will interfere with or tend to annul each other. As a simple illustration of interference and diffraction, assume two narrow slits, A and B, as shown in Fig. 3, behind which is placed a source of light O, and consider the illumination at various points on the screen $M N$. Take the point Q directly opposite the middle of the slits; then light diffracted at A

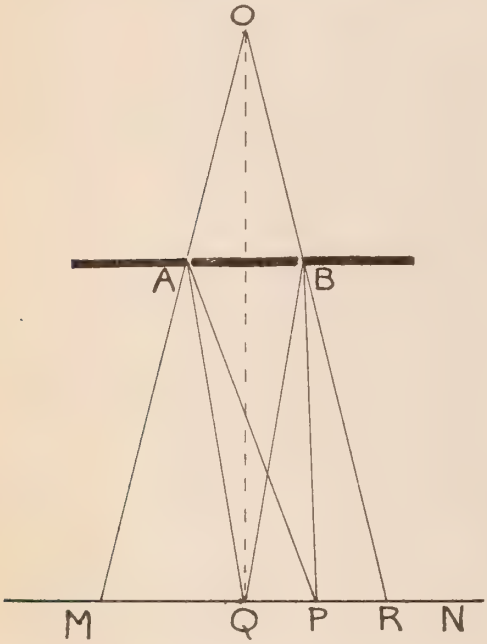


Fig. 3. Diagram illustrating formation of diffraction bands by two slits. See text.

(in such a direction as to reach the point Q, since light when diffracted by an aperture is not limited to one definite direction), and at B, meeting at Q, will be in phase, since the distances $A Q$ and $B Q$ are equal and contain an equal number of wave lengths or fractions thereof. Hence Q will be *luminous*. If we take the point P, for illustration, such that the difference between $A P$ and $B P$ is an odd number of half wave lengths (such as $\lambda/2$, $3\lambda/2$, etc.), then the wave motions reaching P will be in opposite phases and will interfere, producing darkness or a minimum of illumination. Again, if the point R is so situated that the difference between $A R$ and $B R$ is any number of wave lengths (such λ, 2λ, 3λ, etc.). there will then be a *luminous point* or *maximum of* illumination. Hence alternate bright and dark fringes are due to phenomena of diffraction and interference.

Let us now consider the case of diffraction of parallel beams of white light by a series of particles as diagrammed in Fig. 4. Let *a, b, c,* etc., represent the equal sized and equally spaced discs. The components of white light will then be diffracted or bent at the edges of the discs, the blue being diffracted the least and the red the most. The blue rays are represented by the longest lines, the yellow by the medium and the red by the shortest lines. The series of diffracted rays of each color will be mutually parallel.

Next consider the effect of a convex lens placed behind such a system of diffracting corpuscles. In cross-sectional diagram, then, each condition of focus of color with respect to the image, S_1, of the center source S is as diagrammed in Figs. 5, 6 and 7, in which S_R, S_Y and S_B represent the images for red, yellow and blue respectively. The amount of diffraction (θ), or bending of light increases proportionately with the wave length of light used. Figs. 5, 6 and 7 represent the point images obtained for definite wave lengths of light in one plane only. Hence, to complete the true representation of effects as they would actually appear in space, we have only to conceive of such planes (cross-sections), taken at every conceivable angle or to mechanically rotate the Figs. 5, 6 and 7 about $S S_1$ as an axis to obtain a condition of affairs precisely the duplicate of Fig. 1, in which there is shown a central source (or image in space) S surrounded by colored rings of varying angular widths depending upon the wave length (color) taken. The necessary elements for these diffraction effects we believe can be shown to exist in the eye; for we shall show that corpuscles of the proper diameters exist in the cornea, while the crystalline lens plays the part of the lens presented in the physical considerations of the statements relative to Figs. 5, 6 and 7.

To return, then, to the mathematics of diffraction of light by circular apertures or discs, we find that theory (see Preston's *"Theory of Light"*[6] and Wood's *"Physical Optics"*[7]) gives for the relation between the wave length λ, the angle of diffraction θ, the radius of the aperture or disc R, the order of the spectrum m (i. e., whether the first, second, etc., colored band), the equation

$$\sin \theta = \frac{m\lambda}{\pi R}$$

$$\text{or } m\lambda = \pi R \sin \theta.$$

This equation has the same form as that for diffraction due to parallel slits, such as is found in a plane diffraction grating, namely $m\lambda = d \sin \theta$. A comparison of the equations shows that d, the slit width, corresponds to πR, R being the radius of the aperture or disc.

Verdet[8] calculated the subjoined table for values of m/π corresponding to the first few maxima and minima.

TABLE II.

	m/π	Intensity
1st Max.	0	1
1st Min.	0.61	0
2nd Max.	0.81	.0174
2nd Min.	1.116	0
3rd Max.	1.333	.0041
3rd Min.	1.619	0

APPLICATIONS OF DIFFRACTION THEORY TO THE PHENOMENA OF COLORED RINGS.

Since we have the evidence of diffraction rings produced by some medium of the eye, and since θ and γ are known experimentally and m/π is obtainable from the above table, let us calculate the value of R, the radius of the disc or particle causing the phenomenon and see if there is any anatomic evidence of cells or structures of the eye fulfilling the conditions necessary for such diffraction effects. One or two specific examples are carried out somewhat in detail and the remainder tabulated as Table III.

Ring I. Blue-green. $\theta = 2° 40'$. $\sin \theta = .0465$. $\lambda = 5{,}000 \times 10^{-8}$ cm. (approximate blue) $= 0.5\ \mu$. $m/\pi = 1.333$. Hence from $R = m\lambda/\pi \sin \theta$, we find that $R = 0.0009$ cm. or $R = 9\mu$.

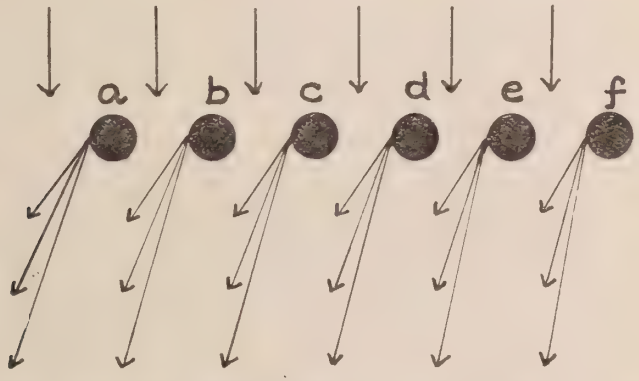


Fig. 4. Diagram of diffraction of light by a series of particles, separated by equal spaces. See page 190.

Ring II. Blue-green. $\theta = 5° 40'$. $\sin \theta = .098$. $\lambda = 5{,}000 \times 10^{-8}$ cm. (approximate blue) $= 0.5\mu$. $m\pi = 1.333$. Hence, substituting in $R = m\lambda//\pi \sin \theta$, we have $R = 0.00066$ cm. or $R = 6.6\mu$.

It is to be remarked at this point that the sets of readings and hence calculations upon ring I are much more likely correct than in the case of Ring II, in which difficulties of low intensity (S) make the determination of the angles (θ) less certain.

If, therefore, we accept the experimental data and results as being reasonably accurate and the applications of the theory of diffraction by circular apertures or discs as being permissible in the case under discussion, we arrive at the conclusion from the calculations tabulated above that Ring II is not a second order effect of which Ring I is the first order effect, but that it is due to a set of

TABLE III.

Set	θ	$\lambda \times 10^{-8}$ cm.	m/π	$R = \frac{m\lambda}{\pi \sin \theta}$	D = diameter of particle	Ring
A	2°	4000	.82	10μ	20μ	I
A	2° 40′	5000	.82	9	18	I
A	3° 40′	6500	.82	8.5	17	I
				Av. = 9.2μ	Av. = 18.4μ	
B	4° 20′	4000	1.33	6.8μ	13.6μ	II
B	5° 40′	5000	1.33	6.7	13.4	II
B	8°	6500	1.33	6.4	12.8	II
				Av. = 6.6μ	Av. = 13.2μ	
C	4° 20′	4000	.82	4.4μ	8.8μ	II
C	5° 40′	5000	.82	4.1	8.2	II
C	8°	6500	.82	3.9	7.8	II
				Av. = 4.2μ	Av. = 8.3μ	

particles or apertures of much smaller diameter as shown in set C, Table III. We conclude, therefore, that the apertures or particles giving rise to Ring I have an average diameter of 0.00184 cm. or 18.4μ and, in turn, those producing Ring II an average diameter of 8.3μ, unless this ring is due to second order diffraction effects of the same corpuscles, when calculation gives the average diameter of the particles as 0.00132 or 13.2μ.

Ring No. I.—We turn, therefore, to anatomic investigations to see if there is evidence of cells or fibres having diameters of the approximate amounts specified above. Schiötz[9] measured the dimensions of the *superficial cells* of the *epithelium* of the *cornea* and found sizes varying from 25μ to 40μ. He furthermore found that on exposing the cornea to the action of distilled water for some time he observed a beautiful system of rings of which the first corresponded practically to the Ring I. He remarks that it is a little smaller however, which is readily accounted for by the action of water upon the cells and apertures. These results of Schiötz are in close experimental agreement with the values of the diameters of the particles obtained by Druault in 1899. This latter writer found a value of $\theta = 2° 12'$ for sodium light of 5,900 t. m., which gives a value of D (diameter of the particles as an average), equal to 0.0025 cm. or 25μ. And again, Druault found, on looking through a dead cornea, a ring the dimensions of which differed but little from those of Ring I and which he claims was undoubtedly due to the *endothelium* of *Descemet's membrane,* for he could remove the entire epithelium of the anterior corneal surface without producing any effect, but the ring disappeared as soon as the endothelial layer was touched.

Ring No. II—The ring No. II Druault attributes to the crystalline fibers which are arranged in the form of a network or grating. The size of the openings or slits between these fibers can be calculated from the formula for a series of parallel rulings (i. e., plane grating), which states that $m\lambda = d \sin \theta$, where d is the slit width. If such is done, using Druault's data, we find that

$$d = \frac{m\lambda}{\sin \theta} = \frac{0.59}{\sin 3° 33'} = 9.5\mu$$

Anatomists[9] (see Norris and Oliver[10]), tell us that the superficial lens fibres measure from 0.0010 cm. to 0.0012 cm. or 10μ to 12μ. Hence, if these lens fibers were, in the main, parallel each to each, giving a series of parallel slits, it

would be justifiable to apply the formula given above for diffraction by parallel slits. However, we know that the lens fibers are parallel only in so far as the major portion of those forming any one sector of the "lens-star" may be considered parallel. Likewise, if these fibers were in the main parallel we should obtain the phenomenon of diffraction by parallel slits; which shows a linear spectrum and not circular as in the case of apertures or discs. Such a linear spectrum is not experimentally found. Hence the use of the above formula for parallel slits does not seem to be in order.

Druault says that ring No. I disappears completely if one part of the pupil is covered. In the case of ring No. II, however, such a procedure causes only the corresponding part of the ring to disappear, and the other part to become much more regular. Careful observations made by the writer on his own eyes, and the answers made by two or three competent observers, have evidenced the fact that Ring I does not disappear in toto as the pupil is covered; but that, instead, the luminosity of the whole ring is diminished and that the edge of the ring nearest the light source which is being cut off by a straight-edge shoved in front of the eye is made invisible first of all, if indeed any such effect actually takes place. There is theoretically no reason why the covering up of a portion of the pupil by a screen should produce different effects upon the diffraction phenomena, whether these phenomena be due to parallel slits, apertures, discs or what not; hence there is no good reason that we know of why Druault should have observed such widely different effects in the two rings. He reports that he succeeded in reproducing the phenomena with dead crystalline lenses.

If we grant that the lens fibers are not parallel in toto but by sectors, and that these sectors vary in position as we pass into the crystalline, then the total effect would be that due to meshes similar in form to fine meshed wire netting and we should expect the same general type of phenomenon as would be exhibited by such fine meshes. These we do not find experimentally. Moreover, if this second ring (No. II) is due to the

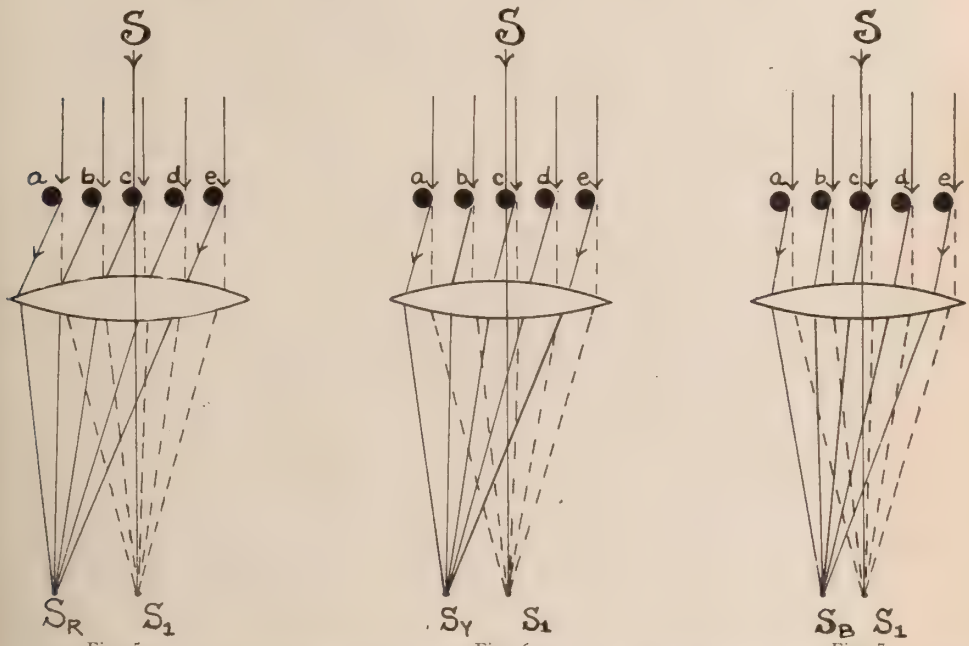


Fig. 5 Fig. 6 Fig. 7

Figs. 5, 6 and 7; diagrams showing formation of images of different colors from the light diffracted at three different angles. See p. 190.

crystalline lens fibers it is peculiar that this ring does not ordinarily appear without dilatation of the pupil. Furthermore, if the second ring is due to lens fibers, then it is presumably the first order spectrum and should have an intensity of about 1/20 (see Wood's *Optics* or Preston's *Light*) of the original light source; whereas ring No. I, having an intensity not in excess of 1/50 of the original light source, is readily seen. Hence ring No. II should be brighter and more readily seen if Druault's explanation is correct. Of course, there may be argued against this the fact of the difference in the retinal distribution of light in the two rings. However, the blue of the second ring lies very close to the red of the first one, hence such disparity would not be expected. The writer of this paper believes that the most logical source of the second ring is the layer or layers of deeper epithelium lying close to the anterior limiting membrane.

We have too little data upon the points taken up in the discussion of the preceding paragraph to draw any definite conclusions with respect to ring No. II. The writer is in hopes of interesting a colleague, who is a skilled anatomist, in this subject with the view to carrying out an extensive and joint series of investigations upon the seat (or seats) of these diffraction effects.

THE CILIARY CORONA.

The ciliary corona, with its luminous dust and striae, is without doubt due to the lens fibers in part and again in part to the lens star. These fibers and lens star are known to exist subjectively as the result of unequal refraction of light by the various sectors into which the crystalline lens is roughly divided. The pronounced criss-crossing of sectors of lens fibers in different layers, and the fine mesh appearance developed, serve admirably to account for the appearance or character of the luminosity immediately surrounding the light source.

Glaucomatous patients may see rings which resemble those described in the preceding paragraphs. In cases of glaucoma, however, these rings are larger and assume an angular diameter of 10° to 12°. Since the size of the ring increases as the distance between corpuscles or cells producing them decreases, Schiötz[11] attributes the origin of the glaucomatous rings to the deepest layer of the corneal epithelium. Experiments on pigs' corneae, so arranged that salt water could be forced into them, showed that a large circle of diffraction was produced when the liquid penetrated into the deeper epithelial layers.

CONCLUSIONS.

In résumé of the results detailed in this paper we note:

(1) The universality of colored rings and coronae surrounding luminous sources under fairly favorable conditions of observation.

(2) These rings are due to the diffraction of light by the constituent parts of one (or more) of the ocular media.

(3) The results of experimentation, based on the theory of diffraction of circular particles or discs, when compared with anatomic data indicate that the *first* (which is commonly the only one seen) ring is due to diffraction by the cells of the anterior epithelial layer of the cornea or possibly to the endothelium of Descemet's membrane (Druault).

(4) The *second* ring is evidently due to diffraction by particles of a smaller size than those which produce the first ring. The writer suggests the inner layers of the anterior epithelial portion of the cornea. This ring has been attributed by Druault to the lens fibers, but reasons are advanced indicating that such a view is not probable.

(5) The *ciliary corona* is without doubt due to the lens fibers and the *striae* to the lens star.

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A TENDON TUCKER

Wesley Bishop, M. D.

MINNEAPOLIS.

This is a description of an instrument devised for rendering the tucking operation easier and more exact, and which can be used to measure the amount of advancement required. With illustration of results.

The correction of strabismus by a tucking operation has appealed to me but certain disadvantages apparent while using the various forms of tucker have provoked an attempt to modify the procedure by supplying an instrument which, while simplifying the operation, promises accuracy in the attempt to procure parallelism of the eyes.



Fig. 1. Tendon tucker, front and side view.

The performance of this operation under general anesthesia must of necessity entail more or less haphazard guesswork as to the result. To procure parallelism, the coöperation of the patient becomes an important factor; and to this end the operation should be performed under local anesthesia. It is here that we have met with our greatest trial, the pain caused by the traction on the muscle during the formation of the tuck being sufficient to seriously interfere with the patient's attempt at fixation. Again: The placing of sutures, with the muscle tightly stretched against the eyeball, is not without difficulties, especially when using certain forms of tucker.

The instrument herein described and illustrated (Fig. 1), I have found useful in shortening the externus; in shortening the internus, however, it will be found, like other tuckers, not so easy to handle on account of the lack of working space.

It is simple in construction, easy of application, and eliminates the objec-

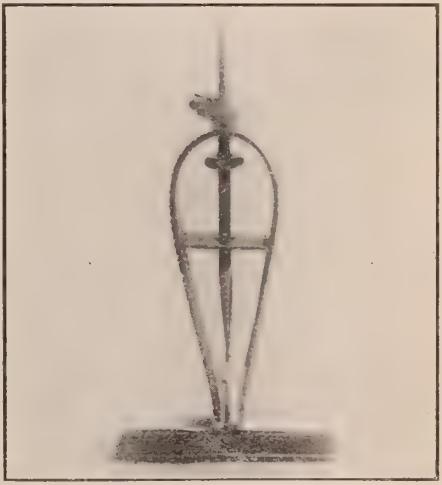


Fig. 2. Tendon tucker, showing raised loop of muscle.



Fig. Case before operation.

tions mentioned. Briefly it consists of a double standard, each leg of which terminates in a cross-bar base; to form the support for a flat hook, which operates between the standards, being raised or lowered by means of a thumbscrew.

OPERATION.

A few drops of four per cent cocain adrenalin solution are instilled at one minute intervals. As usual the conjunctival and capsular flaps are dissected back, exposing fully the muscle to be shortened, and upon this a drop of ten per cent cocain solution is now dropped.

The instrument is held perpendicular to the muscle, with the cross-bars forming its base squarely at right angles to the edge of the muscle, the hook being under it. To form the tuck the hook is raised by means of the thumbscrew, carrying upon it the muscle, as illustrated, thus raising a loop of muscle between the two standards.

With the patient looking straight ahead, the hook is raised until parallelism of the eyes is obtained, then a 00 pyoktanin catgut (20 day), suture is passed thru each side of the tuck at its base in the angle formed by the upright of each standard with its cross-bar base. The width of the standards separates the sutures and incidentally protects the central blood supply of the muscle. By reversing the thumbscrew the hook is now lowered and the instrument removed, the flaps are then sutured in place and the toilet of the wound completed.

It is astonishing, after noting the discomfort produced ordinarily by the tucking operation, to watch the formation of the tuck proceeding with absolutely no complaint from the patient. This we believe is due to the fact that during the formation of the tuck with this instrument, the traction on the muscle is in one direction; whereas with other instruments this traction is in two opposite directions, thus causing more pressure on the muscle fibers.

The placing of sutures is easy and accurate, as the upright standards offer no obstruction and the angle formed by each with its cross-bar base provides the determining point of suture.

When one prefers not to perform the tucking operation, the instrument may



Fig. 4. Case after operation.

be used to predetermine the position of sutures in making an advancement. In such case the instrument is placed with one standard directly over the insertion of the tendon and a tuck formed until parallelism of the eyes is obtained. A suture is then passed thru the base of the tuck, but going thru only that side of the tuck farthest from the tendon insertion. The instrument is then removed, allowing the tendon to flatten out again. The distance between tendon insertion and the suture measures the amount of shortening required.

The accompanying photographs, Figs. 3 and 4, illustrate an extreme case of convergent strabismus in which the left externus was shortened seven-eighths of an inch with absolutely no discomfort to the patient.

TRANSPLANTATION OF PORTIONS OF VERTICAL RECTI FOR ABDUCENS PARALYSIS WITH SUCCESSFUL RESULT.

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OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA.

This paper records a case operated upon with a partly new technic giving the final result obtained, and an explanation regarding the outward rotation secured.

E. C., age 8, seen first July 29, 1916. Right eye squinting inwards, approximately 35° arc. Mother certain that this condition had existed since her second year, possibly longer.

Repeated examinations and trials failed to demonstrate an outward rotation, even to the primary position. This was not contrariness as she would rotate the other eye outward freely in following a test light.

There is no doubt therefore that the case was one of complete paralysis of the right external rectus; and she was con-

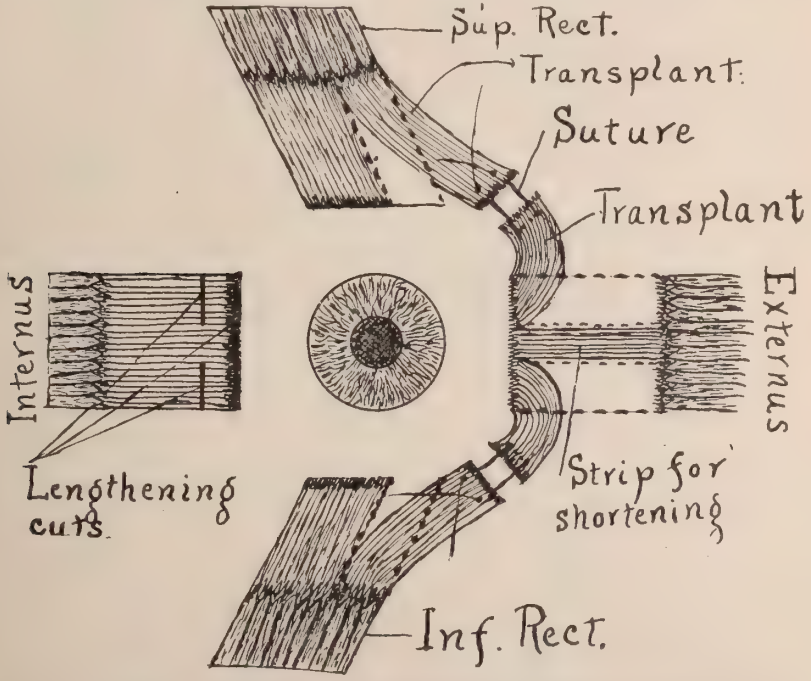


Fig. 1. The suture when tied draws the bared externus transplant well under the transplant from its respective vertical rectus.

sidered a suitable case for the transplantation operation. This was done on August 4, 1916, under general anesthesia. In as much as the technic differed in two points from that employed by others in similar cases, I deem it worth while to go into detail and to try to show it in a sketch projected to a common vertical plane. Fig. 1.

The externus and outer portions of the vertical recti were exposed thru a long incision concentric with the cornea and about 1 c.m. distant therefrom.

The outer third of each vertical rectus tendon was isolated with its superimposed capsule of Tenon, split far back, and shaved off the sclera. This I consider a very important point because in this way the fibrous attachment is included which will hold a stitch from slipping out. If the cut is made back of this point, the stitch will slip out along the parallel tendon fibers, unless tied so tightly as to cut itself out by necrosis.

The externus tendon was next isolated freely, *bared of its capsule* and divided lengthwise into three portions of equal width. The two lateral ones were then cut out free, well within the fibrous portion of their junction with the muscle tissue, for exactly the same reason that the vertical recti were shaved from the sclera.

The object of the above procedures was to permit a good overlap with the vertical recti slips, without undue tension on the stitches.

The central tongue of the externus was then shortened by my double hitch method as described in my paper before the ophthalmologic section of the A. M. A. at Detroit in 1916. This was done in hopes of relieving some of the tension on the sutures, as well as partially correcting, in itself, some of the squint.

The upper section of the externus was then united to the transplant from superior rectus, by a mattress suture inserted as shown in the sketch. Then the lower section to inferior rectus was similiarly united to the transplant from the inferior rectus. Conjunctiva then sutured.

The internus was not touched because I wished to prove positively that anything

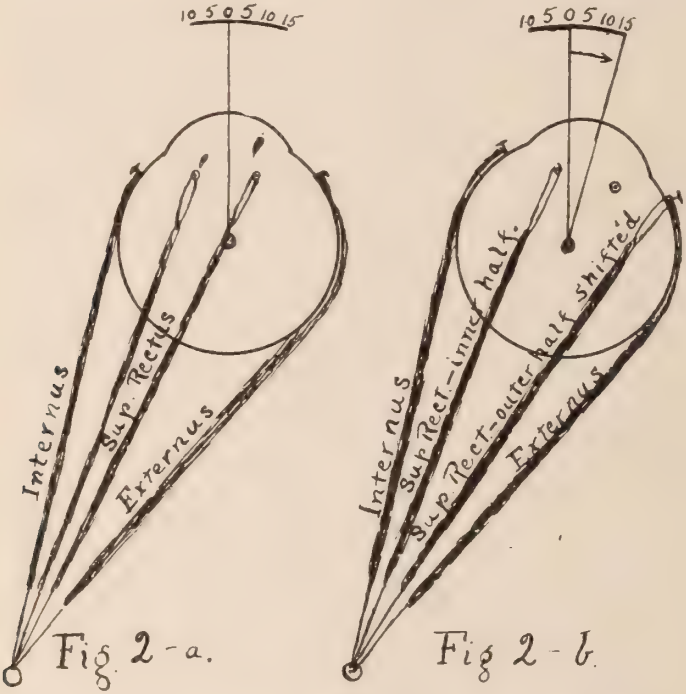


Fig. 2. Diagram showing influence of superior rectus (a) with normal attachment (b) after attaching external fibers to externus.

gained in position or outward rotation was due entirely to the transplant.

August 7th. Wound healing nicely. Marked improvement in position. Rotation not tested.

August 9th. A slight outward rotation now present in spite of swelling.

August 21st. Outward rotation now up to 25°. About 10° of remaining convergence. On this date therefore the internus was lengthened by my multiple cut method (similar to Verhoeff's.) See Fig. 1 lengthening cuts.

August 23rd. Eyes parallel. Outward rotation 35°.

August 25th. As on 23rd. Right rotation practically parallel except at extreme limit of motion.

August 28th. Outward rotation 45° on perimeter by reflection test. Wound healed and dressing omitted.

September 12, 1916. As on August 28th.

February 2, 1917. Rotation and appearance as on September 12, 1916.

April 27, 1917. As on February 2, 1917.

August 16, 1918. Esophoria 1° in primary position. R. rotates outward 35° easily. No diplopia within limits of glasses. So there is a perfect cosmetic result and for all positions near the primary, practically a perfect functional result.

When this case was presented before the eye section of the San Francisco County Medical Society, the general request was to explain the outward rotation. My idea on this point is as follows: It is well known that the vertical recti act as secondary abductors at all positions beyond 27° arc from the primary. This being so when we alter the mechanics of their attachments (1) by broadening, (2) lowering to a point closer to the equator we markedly increase the leverage in the outward direction so that rotation, by their action, will occur before the 27° position is reached. Figure 2 is a diagrammatic sketch of a model I constructed to explain the result.

Figure 2 (a) shows all muscles in balance for primary position, the muscles being thread rubber and the superior rectus made up of two threads, for diagrammatic purposes only.

Figure 2 (b) shows that a shift of the outer half of the superior rectus to the externus, without changing tension of any other bands, will abduct the anterior pole thru a 15° arc.

Another experiment balancing the muscles for a 10° convergent position, the best outward rotation possible in abducens paralysis, and then making the shift of outer half of the superior rectus, brings the anterior pole to primary position.

I think when we did add the power of a functional innervation to help the mechanical alterations, we had a sufficient explanation for the occurrence of outward rotation.

In another case done under a local anesthetic on an extremely unruly patient, I was not so successful, obtaining only 15° outward rotation. In this case because of his behavior the technics were not completed to my own satisfaction, as I was unable to secure wide enough transplants or to split them far enough back to allow of easy overlapping with sections from the externus.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

CASE OF DOUBLE RETINAL SEPARATION IN TRENCH NEPHRITIS.

Lt.-Col. George S. Derby, M. C., A. E. F.

Authority to publish granted by Board of Publication, Surgeon General's Office.

Binocular retinal separation in nephritis is a comparatively rare condition and seldom, if ever, in civil life, does the disease terminate in the recovery of the patient. Furthermore, this condition has been seldom seen in so-called trench nephritis. It seems, therefore, worth while to put the following case on record:

W. S. 97 M. G. C., 19 years of age, entered 13 General Hospital, B. E. F. on January 2nd, 1918. He was placed

under the care of Captains Thompson and Keith of the R. A. M. C., who were doing special work on trench nephritis, and who, I believe, have reported this case, from the standpoint of nephritis, elsewhere. Patient had a severe bronchitis in December, 1916, and had rheumatism since. December 20th, 1917, he began to cough and had feelings of general malaise. Edema of the face appeared on December 25th, dyspnea on December 26th with pains in his legs and feet.

began to improve. A note from Captain Thompson states that at the beginning of his illness he had a marked edema of the conjunctiva which later disappeared.

On March 29th Captain Thompson asked me to see the case. Examination right and left showed a very marked neuroretinitis with some swelling of the disc and hemorrhages and areas of pigmentation thruout the fundus, together with whitish areas of degeneration. Changes were more marked

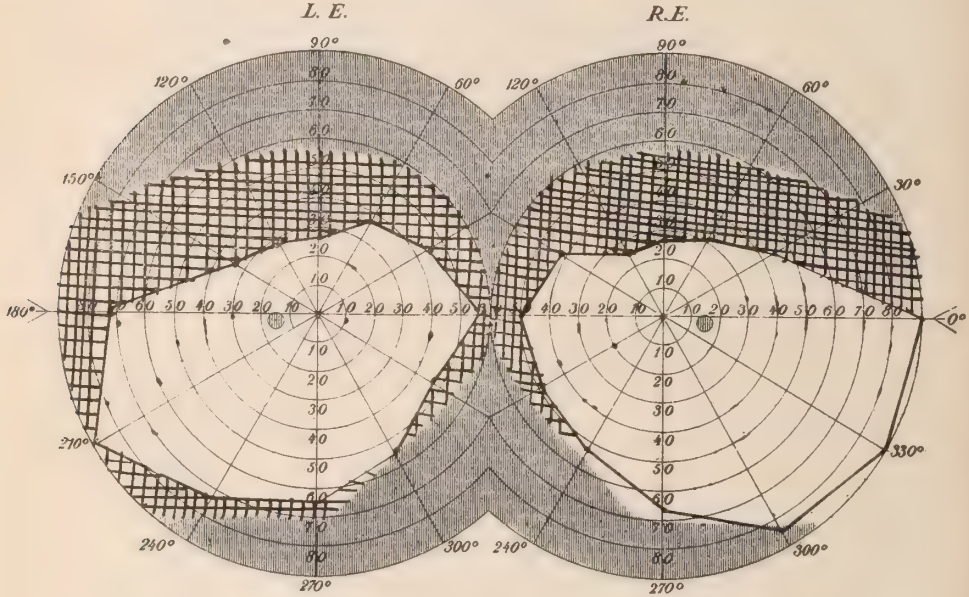


Fig. 1. Fields of vision in retinal detachment after improvement had begun.

Physical examination showed in brief; marked edema of face, limbs, and trunk, tonsils large, systolic murmur third intercostal space. Second sound plus. Dullness in posterior bases but no rales. Blood pressure of 145/85. Urine showed unmistakable evidence of acute nephritis and he ran a very severe course. For a considerable period, he was on the dangerously ill list.

On February 25th his eye grounds were examined by Captain Keith and obscuring of the disc margins was observed, otherwise nothing. About this time his sight began to get poorer and on March 16th he could not see much of anything. Subsequently his sight

in the left eye. In both the right and left eyes were found marked separation of the retina downward, reaching almost up to the macula region and the disc. Vitreous opacities were present in both eyes.

At this time the patient was markedly improved in general condition and he stated that his eyesight was considerably better. V. R. = 6/18, V. L. = 6/26. The fields showed contraction as indicated on the chart. At the time the patient was seen he was considered to be convalescent and ready to be returned to England. His urine had practically cleared up. I, however, prevailed on Captain Thompson

to keep him for three weeks longer and let me watch his eyes during that period.

During the next three weeks a diminution in the separation of the retina in each eye was observed and a continuous, tho small, improvement in the field of vision was noted. On April 23rd, a few fresh hemorrhages were present in the fundi, but the separation had disappeared in each eye. The limits of the field had practically enlarged to normal, being 42 degrees upward in the right eye and 46 degrees in the left. His vision at that time was, right 6/12 minus, and left 6/18 minus. A month after his arrival in England he was heard from and was apparently progressing well.

BILATERAL TUBERCULOMA OF THE ORBITAL LACRIMAL GLANDS.

HARRY VANDERBILT WÜRDEMANN,
CAPT. M. C.,

BASE HOSPITAL, CAMP LEWIS, WASHINGTON.

Without present access to the literature I can not recall to mind any cases of tuberculosis of the lacrimal glands; but surely such have occurred and have been noted.

Mrs. M. W., aged 40, colored, May 27, 1918, referred by Dr. Gates, of Seattle, complained of pressure upon eyeballs, headaches, poor sight and her unsightly appearance from protruding eyes, which had come on within two years.

Had syphilis four years ago with + + Wassermann, three years treatment, no present symptoms. No treatment for nearly a year. A well developed adult, negro-indian descent. Family history negative, except one sister had died of phthisis pulmonalis. Physical examination negative, except for chloasma of face and the condition of eyes.

Bilateral nodular tumors of both orbits in site of lacrimal glands, causing an apparent exophthalmus with "frog face."

V. R. 6/xx, L. 6/xx, R. + 1.50, ⌒ + 0.62. cy. ax. 90° = 6/xx. L. + 2.00, ⌒ + 0.62 cy. ax. 90° = 6/xx. No diplopia or muscular error, no fundus lesions, no real exophthalmus. Nose, throat and lymphatics normal. Wassermann negative, urine and blood negative.

The history practically excluding luetic gumma or osteoid changes, a tentative diagnosis of tumors of the orbit, possibly of the lacrimal glands, was made; and advice given of observation for a month or two before probable operation.

September 9, 1918. Minor Hospital, Seattle. Dr. C. R. Rion, ether anesthesia. Typical excision thru eyebrow incision on right side, of a very large, hard, nodulated orbital lacrimal gland in its entirety. September 17, 1918. Minor Hospital. Excision of a like tumorous gland from the left side; Dr. Fredk. Adams assisting, Dr. C. R. Rion, anesthesia. On neither side was the palpebral gland found involved, and on both sides the glands were shelled out by blunt dissection with but little difficulty. On the right side immediate union was found on first dressing on the fourth day; but one week later, altho the site of the operative area healed, a sulcus of about 3 cm. formed above the eyebrow which after two weeks showed no signs of healing, but was rather progressing, dissecting up the periosteum of the forehead. Then the report of the pathologist had come in showing unsuspected tuberculosis of the gland. The patient was then given 15 Tb. injections by Dr. Gates. Under these, together with diamzon ointment locally, healing was completed within eight weeks.

The left side, however, healed by first intention and no dressings were necessary after the 10th day.

REPORT OF PATHOLOGIST.

Macroscopic.—Gland 3x2x1 cm. in size. Markedly indurated but smooth and of even contour. Cross section discloses homogeniety of tissue resembling sarcoma.

Microscopic. — Connective tissue hyperplasia has widely separated the gland acini, until it has an adenomatous appear-

ance. Thruout is more or less dense small, round, cell infiltration. Here and there thruout entire section are remains and portions of ideal microscopic tubercles, consisting of epitheliod cells, giant cells and small cell infiltration.

More rarely an ideal microscopic tubercle is seen.

Diagnosis.—Tuberculosis of the lacrimal gland.

Date, September 19, 1918.

Examined by O. J. West, M. D.

REMARKS ON LACRIMATION AFTER REMOVAL OF THE LACRIMAL GLANDS.

There are two lacrimal glands for either eye, the major or orbital, the minor or palpebral. Removal of the latter almost totally restricts the formation of the lacrimal fluid, even in weeping, for the ducts are abated and the communication with the superior or orbital gland cut off, which then goes on to more or less atrophy.

Removal of the orbital gland but partially diminishes the lacrimal secretion, tho it is lower than the physiologic normal. Even true weeping occurs from grief or irritant stimulation.

Removal of both orbital and palpebral portions, or the palpebral gland alone, gives a dry eye for ten days or so; but soon compensation occurs, enough watery fluids being secreted to fully lubricate the conjunctiva.

SPASM OF ACCOMMODATION WITH DISTURBANCE OF OCULAR MOVEMENTS OF DENTAL ORIGIN.

GILBERT D. MURRAY.

SCRANTON, PA.

M. J.—Machinist, age 50 presented himself at the office on October 22nd, wearing an axious look, and said he had been obliged for the last week to quit work on account of his eyes. Patient complained that every time he looked away from the median line, either to the right, left, up or down he would become so dizzy as to almost fall. This dizziness was accompanied by severe pain in the eyes and temples. He could see his work without any difficulty when looking directly at it.

Vision was 20/20 each eye; presbyopic, one diopter. Exophoria, with plus 2 spherical, he could see one meter type to 12 or 13 inches. This type could not be seen beyond and within this range. While looking at a pencil held in different parts of the field he would almost fall off the chair from dizziness. Physically he was well nourished, though pale. Blood pressure 120. Urine, pupils, and fundus negative. Teeth had all been removed, except six incisors which were badly worn but looked so sound that the doctor who made the X-ray thought it a useless proceedure. Locomotion and hearing negative. Headaches for three weeks preceded the dizziness which brought him to the office. Both eyes showed incipient cataracts.

The skiagrams made of the teeth showed three large abscesses at the apices and one unerupted tooth immediately beneath the abscess. Both unerupted tooth and abscessed teeth were removed, and the man's headaches and dizziness were completely and promptly relieved. Plus spherical 2 D. lenses were ordered for near work. One meter type read then 8 to 22 inches.

It is not unusual to have iritis, eczema of lids, pain in eyeballs, etc., directly traceable to apical abscesses of the teeth, but this is the first case of spasm of accommodation noticed by the writer. The patient has been working one month and has had no return of the trouble.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY, COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA.

November 21, 1918.

DR. S. LEWIS ZIEGLER, Acting Chairman.

Retraction of the Globe in Adduction.

DR. WM. ZENTMAYER presented a male, aged five years. At the age of seven months the mother noticed that the left eye "rolled about in the head," and says that this has persisted. With eyes in primary position there was a very slight narrowing of the palpebral fissure on the left side. The right was normal. See. Fig. 1.

In looking to the left, Fig. 2 (p. 204), the outward rotation of the left eye was limited. In looking to the right the left eye became retracted, a distinct space could be seen between the inner surface of the lower lid and the globe, and the palpebral fissure became distinctly narrowed. If the fixation was a little higher than the horizontal plane instead of the eyeball rotating strongly inward in adduction, when it reached a point just to the inner side of the middle line the eye shot strongly up. Fig. 3 (p. 204). If fixation to the right was a little below the horizontal plane the adduction was increased, but no supraduction occurred.

The fundus was normal and the refraction error was a low H. + As., against the rule. Turk's theory probably best explains this symptom-complex. His view is that the retraction is due to inflexibility of the external rectus muscle of the eye, showing the phenomena. The oblique movements of the globe Duane attributes to spasmodic contracture of the inferior oblique. Parker attributes the closure of the fissure to some peculiar associated movement produced by synergic action of the facial and oculomotor nerves.

The fact that in this case the upward shoot of the eye, while occurring at times when the eye is rotated directly to the right, manifests itself always and more strongly if the fixation is slightly above the horizontal plane suggest that this contraction of the inferior oblique may be due to a slight paresis of the superior rectus muscle of the opposite eye.



Fig. 1. Showing eyes in ordinary position.

Unilateral Vertical Nystagmus.

DR. ZENTMAYER showed a girl, aged fifteen years. She had measles at three years of age, complicated with otitis media purulenta on the left side, and esotropia of the left eye. Two years ago glasses were prescribed and the esotropia disappeared. The eyes are now stationary under cover. The left eye presented a vertical nystagmus. The movements were rather slow. The right eye by naked eye examination seems to be without nystagmic movements. Nor could they be detected with the ophthalmoscope until the pupil was enlarged and the optic papilla



Fig. 2. Showing retraction of L. E. in adduction. Note narrowing of fissure. P. 203.

closely watched when very slight vertical motion was detected.

Most of the cases of so-called unilateral nystagmus prove on careful study to be really anisonystagmic.

Pigmentation of the Excavation of the Papilla.

Dr. Zentmayer exhibited a colored woman, aged twenty-seven years, who came to Wills Hospital because of asthenopia, right-sided pain in the head and recurrent styes on the left side. In R. E. there was a small vacuole in the lens. The papilla was oval axis 95° and presented an unusually large excavation involving four-fifths of its surface. It was of the undermined type. Within the limits of the excavation on the temporal side there was a dark-gray crescent. The pigment seemed to be on the outer wall of the excavation. Contiguous with this, outside of the excavation, which extended up to the scleral ring, there was a conus of pigment of much the same tint. In the L. E. the appearances were identical. The refraction error is a low H. As.

Tuberculoma of the Iris.

Dr. Zentmayer showed a colored girl, aged six years, the history of whose case had not been unsatisfactory. The L. E. had been inflamed several weeks, attributed to a finger-nail scratch. There was a yellow-white oval mass 4x5 mm. occupying the angle of the anterior chamber and pressing upon the cornea. The cornea was very hazy and the epithelium shagreened. The pupil dilated on the temporal side. No detailed view of the fundus. T-n. Moderate ciliary congestion. Upper incisors slightly notched. Wassermann negative. von Pirquet positive. After the inoculation a small gray focus of infiltration appeared in the cornea. Animal inoculation will be performed to confirm the diagnosis.

Successful Extraction of an Opaque and Dislocated Lens.

Dr. Howard E. Hansell presented a woman, aged forty-five years, who



Fig. 3. Showing occasional upward shoot of L. E. in adduction. P. 203.

complained of gradually increasing loss of vision for ten or more years. A diffuse uniform opacity involved the entire lens of each eye. She had frequently sought surgical aid but had been refused.

A preliminary iridectomy on each eye was performed. A slight escape of vitreous followed in each eye, drawing attention for the first time to the dislocation of the lenses. The wounds



Fig. 4. Case II. Showing retraction of left eye in adduction. Note narrowing of fissure. P. 203.

healed promptly altho final recovery was slow.

The left lens was extracted a few weeks later by the wire loop with the loss of an insignificant amount of vitreous. Recovery uneventful. Final vision with correcting glass = 20/20.

The success of the operation was due in great part, if not altogether, to the large conjunctival flap, prepared before making the limbus incision, and drawn completely over the wound after the lens was extracted.

Dr. Krauss recalled the case of an aged man, who dislocated a cataractous lens into the anterior chamber, by slipping in taking a bath. The eye became painful. The lens was successfully removed with a loop with splendid visual results.

Acne Rosacea Keratitis.

Dr. J. Milton Griscom exhibited a patient who had complained of sore eyes during the past eight months. She was forty-seven years old, a heavy eater and suffered from chronic constipation. For the past two years she had suffered from a typical acne rosacea involving her nose, chin and cheeks, which appeared at about the time her menopause first manifested itself. When first seen the bulbar conjunctiva of both eyes showed numerous pinhead sized elevations adjacent to the cornea resembling phlyctenules with marked injection. On the corneæ near the limbus were several areas of superficial infiltration about 2 mm. in diameter surmounted by whitish necrotic tissue the size of a large pinhead. There was a band of superficial bloodvessels running from the limbus on both nasal and temporal sides. The remainder of the cornea was clear and the other ocular structures were free from disease.

Probable Intraocular Growth.

Dr. G. Oram Ring presented a preliminary report of an interesting case which involved a "Question of Diagnosis," as between malignant disease of the retina, and the other pathologic conditions, with which it can be confounded.

The patient, E. B., aged eleven months, has been under observation for two weeks only. The child had enjoyed perfect health from birth, until one month before being seen by Dr. Ring, when without the slightest premonition she had a convulsion. Two days previously, the patient swallowed a very hard cough drop, which was passed in forty-eight hours. During the same period the mother was suffering with influenza (temperature 102°), and had regularly nursed the child. With the onset of the convulsion, the child was immediately weaned.

Tuberculosis and syphilis were excluded, as was malignant disease in the family history. Barring the ocular con-

dition, the child was in all respects normal. The morning following the convulsion, the eyelids of the right eye were greatly swollen, and remained so for one week, at which time a "white skin" over the sight was observed by the mother.

At the initial hospital examination there was a moderate lid swelling and a general pericorneal and conjunctival flush. The cornea was slightly hazy, the anterior chamber quite shallow, the periphery of the iris retracted into a definite sulcus, especially down and out, the pupillary edge being pushed forward to the posterior corneal surface, the iris thus forming an almost right-angled curve. The pupil was vertically oval, the lens slightly hazy, irregularly swollen and pushed forward, especially in the center and to the temporal side. The reflex was pinkish white and proceeded from the anterior part of the vitreous. Across this mass ran a large and dilated bloodvessel. The tension was definitely minus, and transillumination gave only a faint reflex up and in.

Dr. Ring reviewed the points in differential diagnosis, of simple, retinal detachment, tubercular choroiditis, cysticerci, congenital anomalies, metastatic choroiditis, retinitis with massive exudation, retinitis circinata, and dropsical degeneration of the rod and cone visual cells (de Schweinitz and Shumway), and leaned to the diagnosis of retinal glioma, expressing the possibility that a metastatic influenzal toxemia may have played a minor role in inducing the ocular picture presented.

Dr. S. D. Risley said that Dr. Ring had kindly given him the opportunity to study the case in consultation. He had rarely seen any example of disease which gave wider opportunity for differences of opinion as to its essential character. Dr. Ring's careful and elaborate analysis had left little opportunity for additional comment. The sudden onset of convulsions with subsequent expulsion of a foreign body from the bowel, followed by the inflammatory conditions in the eye with loss of vision, due to an extensive detachment of the retina accompanied by objective signs of an underlying neoplasm opaque to transillumination, is certainly an unusual history. While there is the possibility that the intestinal conditions leading to the convulsions had caused a general toxemia which found local expression in the eye as a general retinal or subretinal edema; or possibly a choroidal hemorrhage which would be opaque to transillumination, nevertheless, careful study of the eye left the positive impression of the presence of a new growth.

In the presence of the extensive detachment of the retina, he did not feel that the diminished tension of the ball necessarily contraindicated the presence of a new growth, as he had many times seen examples of detachment of the retina, where subsequent enucleation had demonstrated the presence of a sarcoma, but which had nevertheless presented normal or diminished tension as part of the clinical picture. Notwithstanding this somewhat definite statement of opinion, he nevertheless felt that the questionable diagnosis could be rendered definite only by the laboratory study of the eye, and he hoped that Dr. Ring would at a subsequent meeting of the Section inform the Fellows as to the pathologic finding.

Dr. Zentmayer said there were two statements in Dr. Ring's paper which were open to discussion. Dr. Ring states that detachment of the retina could be excluded because of the absence of trauma and of a refraction error of sufficient degree to cause it. These, however, were not all of the causes of detachment and there was one pertinent to the diagnosis in his case. Nettleship first described the condition, and there have been several since reported, one by Dr. Zentmayer in which the picture of glioma was due to detachment of the retina the result of the subretinal presence of a serous fluid containing cholesterin, the probable remnants of an extension hemorrhage. These cases have usually a history of a preceding exanthem, commonly measles. As to the value of the intraocular T. in diagnosis Dr. Zent-

mayer's personal experience was at variance with that of many clinicians. He had never met with minus T. in an eye with a well-defined intraocular tumor, unless, perforation of the coats of the eye had occurred or an iridocyclitis had developed. He had, however, met with plus T. in pseudoglioma. Personally, therefore, he would consider a decided plus T. to strongly favor a diagnosis of glioma and a decidedly minus T. to almost surely exclude this diagnosis.

Dr. Hansell said the careful clinical analysis of the pathologic changes so graphically depicted by Dr. Ring point to but one interpretation, namely, glioma of the retina. He examined the patient at Dr. Ring's request upon two occasions at an interval of a few days. During that time the disease had perceptibly advanced. The vitreous body was completely filled by a white mass, the lens pushed forward until the anterior chamber was almost annihilated. The rapid growth, the characteristically white appearance of the tumor, the absence of history of any of the usual causes of pseudoglioma, made the diagnosis almost certain.

J. Milton Griscom, M. D.,
Clerk.

JOINT MEETING OF THE CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL AND CHICAGO MEDICAL SOCIETIES.

December 18, 1918.

Fourteen Points Concerning Ophthalmia Neonatorum.

Dr. Frank Allport had endeavored to formulate fourteen points which he considered especially important in connection with this subject.

First: Ophthalmia neonatorum is responsible for about 20 per cent of the blind in the United States, and for about 25 per cent of inmates of blind asylums.

Second: It costs about $30.00 a year to educate an ordinary child, and about $400.00 a year to educate and care for a blind child.

Third: There are about fifty blind schools in the United States, costing about $2,000,000 a year to maintain.

Fourth: Ophthalmia neonatorum costs the United States about $7,000,000 per annum in actual money.

Fifth: Next to optic nerve atrophy, ophthalmia neonatorum is the most prolific cause of blindness in the United States.

Sixth: The Credé treatment for all new-born children would almost entirely eliminate this disease and its dreadful consequences from the world.

Seventh: The use of this evidently necessary treatment is by no means universal, and its omission is not confined to midwives. In order to accomplish its purpose the use of this treatment should be invariable. It should be understood that gonorrhea is not the only condition that will produce this disease, but that it may occur from other and nondisgraceful causes.

Eighth: Midwives are a financial and sociologic necessity. Fully one-half of the confinements are attended by midwives. If it were not for these midwives most of these cases would be merely looked after by friends and relatives. Midwives should be educated, examined, licensed and inspected, and should always call in medical assistance in complicated cases.

Ninth: Births should be compulsorily reported within a few hours. The ocular condition should be reported, and the physician should state whether or not he has used the prophylactic treatment.

Tenth: Suitable laws should be passed in each state providing for the invariable use of Credé prophylaxis in all newly born children, and proper penalties should be imposed for the nonobservance of such instruction. Every legitimate method of educating and enlightening the people, the midwives and the doctors should be encouraged.

Eleventh: While not prophesying as to what the future may produce in the way of prophylaxis, it is reasonably certain that at present there is no remedy that can take the place of nitrat of silver. It alone has stood the test of time. In order to provide free and re-

liable silver solutions some states and cities prepare and distribute fresh and carefully compounded solutions to doctors and midwives on application.

Twelfth: One almost insurmountable difficulty in the way of proper treatment of ophthalmia neonatorum is the paucity of resources in combatting the disease. A small hospital should be established in every large city for the prompt reception of such cases. Or it should be clearly understood by health officers, doctors, midwives, visiting nurses, etc., that certain hospitals will receive such patients, in special wards, at any time, day or night, and undertake to provide expert medical attendance and proper care.

Thirteenth: Health departments in the larger cities should employ an experienced eye nurse to search out and follow up cases of ophthalmia neonatorum, and to see that immediate action is taken when cases are found.

Fourteenth: I believe that great benefit can be accomplished by the free and frequent distribution of brief and pointed pamphlets, printed in several languages, by some central organization, such as the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness.

The paper contained a sample of what Dr. Allport believed should be covered in such a leaflet.

Discussion.—Dr. Richard J. Tivnen emphasized some of the points brought out by Dr. Allport and thought the outstanding feature of this disease was that it could be prevented. This meant that 25 per cent of the blindness among children could be eliminated, and it was a reflection that even one of these cases, in the light of modern treatment, should have been blind. At one time our Committee on the Prevention of Blindness thought that the best way to prevent ophthalmia neonatorum was thru legislation, but it was soon found that this was a very discouraging and unsatisfactory way of meeting the problem. We then turned to what we afterwards found to be the best plan—education. This "education" should come from within the profession as well as from without.

The one thing that had proved most effective in preventing this disease was the so-called Credé method of prophylaxis, which was very simple and could be carried out with some simple instruction by anybody. It simply meant the instillation in the infant's eye, following birth, of a drop of 2 per cent solution of nitrat of silver. Many of the obstetric textbooks, however, were lax in their instructions about carrying out this procedure. They failed to say that the only time the solution should be *dropped* in the eye of the infant was immediately after birth and if it required further treatments it was applied to the lids. He knew of one case where it had been dropped in the eyes four or five times a day for a considerable period with disastrous results.

The Credé preventive was the accepted treatment for the prevention of infection, and if the profession would adopt it universally it would be a long step forward in the elimination of blindness due to ophthalmia neonatorum. Education might also with advantage take the form of a more intimate coöperation between the specialists in diseases of the eye and the general practitioner in the handling of these cases, and in the early recognition of the disease. It was idle to talk of preventing blindness if the cases were not recognized and treated early.

The ulcer of the cornea which was so destructive seldom appeared for several days, and was usually preceded by redness, edema and discharge. It could be said that a reddened, discharging eye with a swollen eyelid in the baby at birth was more than suspicious, and should always be investigated and treated. Every eye-man on the staff of every general hospital should insist that he be granted the opportunity to deliver a course of lectures on this subject to the nurses, and public lectures with stereopticon slides which would particularly appeal to the people would have a wonderful effect in bringing about the recognition and dangers of this disease.

Dr. N. C. Nelson reported on the treatment used in this class of cases at the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary. He stated that they saw

many cases that had been treated with the Credé method, and yet developed ophthalmia neonatorum. This was due to one of two things, either the improper application of the silver nitrat solution, or the eyes were infected postpartum by the person delegated to care for the mother and babe. In more than 70 per cent of their cases the infection began from two to ten days after birth, about 50 per cent occurring on the third or fourth day and the other 20 per cent from two weeks to two months after birth.

Owing to their cases coming to the hospital so long after infection began, the percentage in which both eyes were involved was very high, 84 per cent, as compared with only 6 per cent R. E. and 10 per cent L. E. This proved how important it was to have the treatment early. Nearly all cases with only one eye involved came for treatment within the first week and of those only 2 per cent developed infection in the other eye.

In the very acute cases ice was used to the eyes from two to three hours, repeated every four hours for the first twenty-four to thirty-six hours. He did not consider it good policy to keep the ice on constantly as it lowered the vitality of the cornea and thus defeated its purpose. The mother was instructed how to bathe the eyelids with pledgets of cotton soaked in warm boric acid solution every fifteen minutes. The eye was irrigated with great care every two hours in the beginning and later every four hours, every possible precaution being taken to prevent injury of the cornea. A one-half per cent solution of atropin was used three times daily to cure the iritis or prevent its development.

Some form of silver was usually dropped in the eye three or four times daily without everting the lids. As soon as three negative smears were obtained the patient was dismissed and given a mild solution of zinc and boric acid to be used at home several times daily, returning twice a week for four weeks. In treating ulcers of the cornea they generally used alcohol or tincture of iodin and seldom the thermic cautery.

He thought it made little difference what was used. The important factors were to get the cases early, keep them clean, and handle the lids carefully during treatment. If this was done the majority of cases would recover without complications.

Dr. A. A. Hayden endorsed everything Dr. Allport had said. Dr. Agnew, of New York, a long time ago devised a fairly permanent solution of silver nitrat, containing to the ounce one dram of sweet spirits of niter, which kept the solution stable for a number of months. He believed it was not necessary to evert the lids if a lid elevator was used thru which the irrigation could be made. This elevator contained a canal with two or three openings in the margin of the end which was placed under the upper lid, and allowed free irrigation. The accumulation of pus could be decreased by frequently anointing the lids with a 1:5000 bichlorid solution. Specific instruction should be given in works on obstetrics not to irrigate the eye with salt solution before using the silver nitrat, as was often done.

In his opinion ice should not be applied for more than ten or fifteen minutes at a time, application being made as often as every two or three hours. The thing that gave most relief after the lids became enormously swollen was an early canthotomy. Nurses and doctors should use every possible preventive measure to avoid personal contamination. Large glasses should be worn in the treatment of these cases, as was done in various operations for pus tubes or other operations in which the gonococcus might be present, and the hands should be most carefully washed before and after the treatment.

Dr. Henry Mundt was convinced that education was a very important factor in the prevention of gonorrheal ophthalmia. Where education failed the fear of God placed in a man's heart might be of some value. He cited a case against a hospital in this city in which argyrol was used in place of silver nitrat in which the hospital and

physicians were assessed in the neighborhood of $14,000. Men who formerly believed that a substitute for the Credé method could be used were now convinced that this should not be attempted. In a great many hospitals if physicians wanted anything else used it was necessary to give a written order to that effect, and most men would think twice before doing this. He agreed with Dr. Hayden that an external canthotomy was one of the most helpful things in preventing, also in the treatment of corneal ulcer.

Dr. John M. Lipson stated that in fifteen years' experience only one child had developed ophthalmia neonatorum. All of his cases were treated exactly alike by means of the Credé method and he did not understand why this child developed the disease, unless it was the only one in which the gonococcus was present. It was his opinion that the cases that did not develop the ophthalmia neonatorum did not have the gonococcus.

Dr. Thomas O. Edgar, Dixon, Illinois, reported an unusual case seen by him during the past year and a half. A two-months-old baby was brought for examination with a history of having what was presumed to be two per cent silver nitrat dropped into its eyes six or eight hours after birth by a practical nurse. The baby, previously quiet, cried severely during the night. About 4 A. M., eight hours after the use of the silver nitrat, the right eyelids began to bleed and continued to do so all that day, becoming much worse in the second evening, and, in spite of the employment by a second doctor, who had been summoned, of various means to stop the hemorrhage, including the use of cotton packed under the lid and the injection of some kind of serum into its leg, the bleeding ceased only after a grave loss of blood during the next twenty-four hours.

Three days later, the right eye bled again for several hours. During this time the eyelids of the right eye were much swollen. When first seen by Edgar at the age of two months the upper eyelid of the right eye was slightly congested and showed a tendency to invert, while the cornea exhibited a central whitish opacification, superficial but also extending into the deeper layers. This area in its densest portion was approximately round in shape, about five millimeters in diameter and showed several pin point brownish areas, probably due to argyrol. The left cornea was clear. A bacteriologic smear from the conjunctival sac in each eye proved negative. The eyelashes for a definite portion of the border of the right upper lid extending eight millimeters temporalward from the center of the lid border continued during the next year, at times, especially when the baby cried, to rub the cornea and even caused a faint pannus in the upper peripheral portion.

The question of hemophiliac diathesis having arisen in this case, the test of the coagulation time and hemoglobin was more than once taken during its first year; and together with a general physical examination by a competent internist proved normal. There was no history of hemophilia in the family. When the child was fourteen months old the parents consented to a modified Hotz operation for the circumscribed entropion, with an excellent cosmetic and therapeutic result. When seen four months later, the cornea had become much clearer. According to the history as given it is not certain that there was any bleeding from the left eye; if present, it must have been insignificant; in explanation of which it is possible that none or little of the medicine was gotten into the second eye.

It was thought by some of the parties concerned that there was the possibility of an error in the strength of the silver nitrat. The pathogenesis is not, then, satisfactorily established. This case is not cited against the use of the Credé prophylaxis for ophthalmia neonatorum, but to show that, like any other procedure, it must be used correctly and with all due precaution.

Dr. Charles H. Long said that when in general work he had taken care of some 1,500 obstetric cases, and all of them were treated with a 1 per cent

solution of nitrat of silver. He never had a case of ophthalmia neonatorum. The cases of this disease which he saw were from the practice of midwives and he thought education among midwives should be brought about. Most of them knew nothing of antiseptics and were strangers to what should be done to prevent ophthalmia neonatorum. In his opinion it would be an excellent plan for health officers and medical societies to appoint one meeting a year to discuss this subject and invite midwives and nurses to be present. In this way much could be done toward educating them along this line. It seemed necessary to have midwives, for without them many cases would have no care at all.

Dr. Clarence Loeb stated that oculists objected to the licensing of optometrists because they did not possess sufficient skill and knowledge to do their work properly, and he believed the same thing should hold true of obstetricians and midwives. The profession of midwifery should not be tolerated in this day of charitable physicians and so many free dispensaries and hospitals. In many states it was obligatory to report all sore eyes of infants and then the health department saw that the cases were properly treated. The Credé method was all right as far as it went, but all cases should be reported with a statement of the kind of treatment used.

As to discussing the subject, this had been tried in Missouri a couple of years ago, but they had great difficulty in getting the members of the medical societies to provide a place for such discussions, and the meetings were not well attended. The profession and public were lukewarm. Those who did attend probably learned a great deal, but the majority of them forgot it very speedily. If proper pamphlets could be given to the women at the psychologic moment, shortly before the birth of the child, they would probably be impressed and insist upon proper treatment. In his opinion the best plan of education was to teach this subject in the medical schools in a more complete manner, including the prophylaxis. This should be one of the questions on examination day and the men would know, at least at graduation, how to treat and how to prevent it.

Dr. Allport, in closing, said that in most of the laws which had been enacted in the different states it had been specifically stated that all cases of red eyes should be assumed to be ophthalmia neonatorum and so taken care of. His paper dealt with the prophylaxis and not the treatment of ophthalmia neonatorum, which was a large and entirely different subject. He did not wish to be understood as stating that the only thing to be done to prevent this disease was to use nitrat of silver. He believed that was at the present time the only drug to be used, but many other things should be taken into consideration, as shown in the leaflet which he had compiled for distribution.

Prevention begins before birth and the vagina should be properly cleansed so as to provide as clean a passage as possible for the child and other precautions taken. There are various reasons why nitrat of silver did not always prevent ophthalmia neonatorum. It must be properly used; in many cases where the treatment failed the solution did not reach the conjunctiva at all. The solution must be absolutely reliable. He did not know what produced the unfortunate results in the case reported by Dr. Edgar, but it was not due to the nitrat of silver if it was in proper condition when it was used. Dr. Nelson spoke of the late invasion of ophthalmia neonatorum, but in his opinion if this occurred more than three or four days after birth it was due to something that happened after birth and was not a true ophthalmia neonatorum.

As to midwives, Dr. Loeb thought they should be classed with optometrists and he sympathized with that. Theoretically midwives should be abolished; they are not competent to take care of children at birth, but children are being born at a great rate each year and the doctors are not able to take care of them all even if called, and poor people do not indulge in doctors very much, anyway. In his opinion it was not

practical to attempt to abolish them, and as a practical matter they must be educated and retained. The best way to get along with the subject is to try to make the midwives better and educate them as much as possible. With this object in view it might be a good plan to invite them to attend meetings at which this subject is discussed.

In the matter of education, legislation went a long way and was very helpful, but people in general must be educated to understand about these things. He was for a number of years general chairman of the Committee for the Prevention of Blindness in connection with the A. M. A. At that time they had local chairmen in every state in the Union except three, and there was an organization for the promulgation of knowledge concerning the conservation of vision. Meetings were held to educate the people about the care of their eyes and a series of twenty leaflets were published and distributed throughout the states; lectures were given to nearly 2,000,000 people and in the neighborhood of 200,000 pamphlets were given out. It was his opinion that this campaign did a great deal of good. It was too much to expect perfection, but we should keep hammering and hammering away and be satisfied with doing all the good we can.

Trachoma.

Dr. Clarence Loeb stated that this disease had been endemic in Europe since antiquity, although it had been believed that it first appeared in Europe at the beginning of the nineteenth century. It was an interesting commentary on the improvement in prophylaxis and hygiene since that time to note the rarity of the disease in the armies engaged in the present war. With the possible exception of the negro, no race and no land is free from trachoma, but certain areas seem to be more infected with it than others.

In the United States it was especially prevalent among the Indians, in the mountains of Kentucky, and in the eastern centers of immigrant population. This wide dissemination of the disease was important for two reasons: first, because its destructive effect upon the eyesight was daily adding to the quota of the blind of every nation; and, second, because its infectious character made even a single case a source of danger to the community in which it existed. It had been estimated that 9.4 per cent of all blindness was due to trachoma, and that this disease could be classed among the preventable causes of blindness.

It was a disease primarily of the conjunctiva, although its influence in causing blindness was exerted through the complications affecting the cornea. Its pathologic anatomy consists in numerous inflammatory infiltrations of the conjunctival tissue. These enlarge and form the "granulations" which are characteristic of the disease. These may be present as isolated follicles, more or less hidden by the hypertrophied conjunctiva which takes on a papillary character, or the follicles themselves may be so numerous as to be the predominant feature of the disease. Finally, there may be any stage of gradation between these two forms.

As to etiology, little could be definitely stated. The disease is highly contagious, but its transference is brought about only by actual contact of the nonaffected eye with some article contaminated by the secretions of the affected eye. While not contagious in the same sense as influenza and similar diseases, it is probably caused by some microorganism, the nature of which has not been satisfactorily settled.

The symptoms of trachoma vary with the stage of its development; in the beginning the patient may be very little inconvenienced or there may be fulminating symptoms. The cicatricial stage is marked by the appearance in the conjunctiva of fine, white lines, which increase in length and width, forming a network in whose interstices the remnants of conjunctiva appear as red islands. The amount of scar tissue depends on the age of the process, the severity of the disease and the lack of treatment or its improper character.

As the scar tissue contracts the cul-de-sacs are obliterated, adhesions between the ocular and palpebral conjunctiva develop and the whole conjunc-

tival sac shrinks, drawing the lids close together, limiting their movements and narrowing the palpebral orifice. Eventually the margins and lower parts of the lids will be curved inwards against the eyeball, a condition called entropion. The constant rubbing of the cornea by the eyelashes causes, subjectively, intense pain; and objectively abrasion of the corneal epithelium with opacification of the cornea from a traumatic keratitis, or the formation of ulcers. Whether the result of the trichiasis and entropion is corneal opacity or staphyloma, or both, the net result is the same—complete or almost complete loss of sight.

The treatment of trachoma consisted of three parts, prophylactic, medicinal and surgical, the first of which was the most important. The prevention and ultimate total eradication of this disease depended upon the ability to isolate the affected individual completely. Places where large numbers of people are in more or less intimate contact should be kept under medical inspection repeated at frequent intervals. As to medical treatment, each physician used the treatment which had proved most successful for him. One of the best remedies was a 1 per cent solution of silver nitrat, especially where there was profuse discharge or corneal ulcers.

Dr. Loeb found that the best results were obtained in all stages by the use of the copper sulphat pencil, applied to the upper fold of transmission once a day so long as any granulations were present. When these were gone it was replaced by 2 per cent zinc sulphat, one drop daily. Throughout the disease the eyes must be cleansed frequently with a saturated solution of boracic acid, which was applied with pledgets of cotton well moistened. If iritis or ulcers develop the use of atropin is indicated, together with smoked glasses, which are also of benefit where there is much photophobia.

In the surgical treatment, in the beginning of the disease some form of expression of the granulations is to be employed, followed by the usual medicinal treatment. In the cicatricial stage the surgical treatment is to be directed against the effect of the trichiasis and entropion. Sometimes a simple canthoplasty is sufficient, but usually it is necessary either to move the lashes further away from the lid margin, or to create a new lid margin, or even to remove the tarsus. An optical iridectomy may be of service in cases of corneal opacities.

Discussion.—Dr. H. W. Woodruff, Joliet, Illinois, believed that in the beginning of trachoma, when the typical granulations were present, there was a very definite indication for the operation of expression; and the results were so marked that there was no question about its value. After reaching the cicatricial stage with deformities of the lid there were certain definite conditions to deal with. The narrowed palpebral fissure was dealt with by canthotomy. The ingrown eyelashes were dealt with by the well known Hotz operation or by skin grafting or by marginal mucous grafts. The operation of tarsectomy he considered the greatest triumph of the surgery of trachoma.

The one characteristic feature of trachoma was its tendency to relapse. One theory was that pannus was due to the rubbing of the lid on the cornea and another that it was due to trachomatous disease on the cornea, but there was no question that the rubbing of the scar tissue of the lid was a very prominent factor and the operation of tarsectomy was indicated in these cases in which relapses occurred where there was not too great an atrophy of the conjunctiva of the cul-de-sac. The operation was so comparatively simple and the results so certain that it seemed as though anyone who had had experience with trachoma cases and their relapses would be a strong advocate for it. It was important that it be done with great care in order to preserve the muscular tissue; and nothing be removed except the tarsus and overlying conjunctiva. In removing the tarsus it was important that it be removed near the lid border as possible. At least near enough to take in the longitudinal scar which corre-

sponded to the sulcus subtarsalis, because that was the particular point where the deformity began and where there was nearly always a linear scar.

ALFRED N. MURRAY, M. D.,
Secretary.

COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

January 18, 1919.

DR. JOHN A. MCCAW, Presiding.

Corneal and Uveal Tuberculosis.

W. C. BANE, Denver, again presented a case of corneal and uveal tuberculosis exhibited at the previous meeting of the society. At that meeting the tension of the patient's right eye was 54 mm. of mercury, and the tension subsequently increased to about 60 mm. of mercury. On December 31 a scleral puncture was made in the lower outer quadrant, and the tension fell to 20 mm. of mercury; but in three days had risen to 43 mm. of mercury, and in five days to 60 mm. There was also by this time severe pain in the eye. On January 11 sclerocorneal trephining was done, using the Fox flap. After a few hours the eye was comfortable, and there had been no return of pain. The tension was still subnormal; the vision at times of the hand as an object.

DISCUSSION.—J. A. Patterson, Colorado Springs, referred to a case of uveitis in which on account of increase of tension he had done two trephinings, with temporary improvement each time, but permanent gain was apparently interfered with by a large store of whisky which was concealed in the patient's residence.

Edward Jackson, Denver, referred to a case of trephining in which the large cystoid scar of irregular shape persisted after the operation, the trephine opening being visible as a dark circle through the cyst.

D. H. Coover, Denver, who had done about an equal number of trephine operations with the Elliot flap and with the Fox flap, felt that with the Elliot flap one was much more likely to get a cystoid cicatrix than with the heavier flap. He thought that the reason there were so many cases reported of infection after the Elliot operation was that the conjunctiva became so thin that there was more danger of germs penetrating than through the heavier flap. If this flap were seen several months later it would be very much thinner, but it would not be so thin as with the Elliot technic.

C. E. Walker, Denver, referring to the fact that in Dr. Bane's case the use of atropin had apparently greatly increased the tension before operation, suggested that in any case where atropin seemed to be indicated but its use involved some risk, it was better to use homatropin on account of the fact that the action of the latter was much briefer and much more easily controlled.

J. A. Patterson, Colorado Springs. It is often difficult to get sufficient dilatation with homatropin. I inject dionin, holocain, and a drop of the ordinary 4 per cent solution of atropin under the conjunctiva, with excellent results. The dionin greatly hastens complete action of the atropin.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs. We have not sufficiently realized the value of cocain in these cases. I have had much better results from using cocain in conjunction with the mydriatics than where they were used by themselves. By this process adhesions break down much more rapidly. The cycloplegics all cause a relaxation of the circular muscles, whereas cocain contracts the straight muscle fibers.

W. H. Crisp, Denver, stated that he had on several occasions, with great advantage to the patient, changed from the use of eserin to that of atropin, after satisfactorily testing the patient's reaction to the use of homatropin.

J. A. Patterson, Colorado Springs. In the case of an eye struck by a ricocheted bullet, where the patient was uncomfortable under either atropin or eserin, the eye became quiet and comfortable under the use of a prescription containing a small amount of cocain a small amount of holocain, and some hyoscin.

Dr. Bane (closing). The opinion was freely expressed at the last meeting that trephining would be undesirable in my case; but the operation has so far proved beneficial and has not given rise to any trouble whatever.

Iridectomy for Glaucoma; Communicating Vein on Disc.

Edward Jackson, Denver, showed a man of 65 years upon both of whose eyes an iridectomy had been done for glaucoma by Dr. E. V. L. Brown of Chicago. Before the operation vision had been failing rapidly, and each disc was cupped 5 or 6 diopters. Now, eight months after the operation, the eyes were quiet, tension right 28 and left 20 mm., and vision was improving slightly (right vision of moving objects, left 2-100ths). In the left eye a communicating vein, as large as the superior and inferior branches, formed an irregular circle two-thirds the diameter of the disc, starting from the superior vein close to where it emerged, passing around the temporal side of the glaucoma cup, and ending in the inferior branch. It was quite tortuous, and seemed to give off no small branches in its course.

Discussion.—W. H. Crisp, Denver, had seen this man several times before he went to Chicago for his operation, the last time being about two weeks before the operation. At the first visit, the tension had been right 45, left 55 mm.; which after two instillations of eserin 1 to 360 had fallen to right 32, left 42; the vision of the left eye at the same time rising from 2/15ths mostly to 5/8ths partly. The patient was irregular in his use of eserin and in his attendance at the office; and although warned that an operation would be necessary to save vision, insisted on postponing action. The last that was heard of him was that he was going to a Chicago surgeon at the expense of the Pullman Company, whose employee he was.

Optic Neuritis.

Dr. W. C. Bane again presented the case of neuroretinitis in a woman of 54 years which was exhibited at the previous meeting. The vision of the affected left eye was on the previous occasion nil. Vision began to return in this eye on December 28, the first evidence being ability to see flashes of light. The vision was now 1/240th. The disc was slightly pale yet some of the nutrient vessels were present. The patient had been taking 1/30th of a grain of strychnin three times daily, and the high frequency current had been used about every third day.

Discussion.—E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, suggested that if the disc had been growing whiter during the past month and the vision had at the same time shown improvement, further improvement was fairly likely.

D. H. Coover, Denver, recalled a case which he had exhibited some years previously, of a little Jewish girl who had a retrobulbar neuritis apparently due to ethmoid inflammation. Immediately after the ethmoids were opened and free bleeding began the vision started to improve. In this case the improvement of vision was coincident with whitening of the discs.

Edward Jackson, Denver. As a rule, in retrobulbar neuritis the disc is left somewhat white, and you cannot tell from the disc what the vision is. The majority of these cases show some whitening of the nerve head even with full vision.

Magnet Extraction of Steel.

William F. Matson, Denver, presented a man of 52 years whose left eye was penetrated on August 15, 1918, by a chip of steel from the drive rod of an engine. The fragment, 0.5 by 5 mm., passed through the cornea and iris midway between the pupil and the sclero-corneal margin. There was very slight hemorrhage in the anterior chamber and no opacity developed in the lens. The foreign body, which was shown by X-ray to lie on the floor of the eye in the vitreous, was removed through a scleral opening between the external and inferior recti muscles, by means of a small tip which was attached to Dr. C. E. Walker's giant magnet. With a plus 2.25 cylinder axis 30 degrees the patient had 20-20ths vision in this eye. The other eye had

been blind since boyhood from traumatic cataract. The eye was kept thoroughly under control with atropin for six weeks after the injury.

Discussion.—C. E. Walker, Denver. The decision to enter through the sclera posterior to the ciliary region was due to the fact that there was no opacification of the lens. After separating a small flap of conjunctiva, the sclera was punctured with a Graefe knife. The small tips which can be applied to the giant magnet make it equally if not more efficient than the hand magnet.

W. C. Bane, Denver, referred to a recent case in which from the X-ray it was uncertain whether the foreign body was within the back of the eye or not, and the giant and hand magnets both failed to move the foreign body. But, it being necessary to enucleate the eye on account of extreme mutilation, the foreign body was found to be embedded in the sclera.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, had had several cases in which the eye had gone to the bad later, sometimes several years after the removal of a foreign body with seemingly perfect results. On the other hand, he recalled a case in which a piece of bottle glass had passed through the vitreous and made its exit at the temporal edge of the disc, and yet the eye had healed without incident, and vision was as good as that of the other eye.

F. E. Wallace, Pueblo, had seen a case in which a piece of steel was embedded just above the optic disc, but the outcome had justified a waiting policy. The danger zone of the eye had not been injured.

Proliferating Retinitis (?), Dating from Infancy.

Edward Jackson and C. O. Eigler, Denver, presented a case, in a girl aged 12 years, of fundus disturbance dating from infancy. Along the lower temporal vessels of the right eye there was a white area and nearby some small black pigment spots. Some white streaks connected the white area with the vessels. The principal area was perhaps in advance of the level of the retina. The condition was apparently an old one, and the etiology was questionable. From the streaks on the vessels and the apparent connection of these with the white area, Dr. Jackson was disposed to think that it had originated in a hemorrhage, possibly a hemorrhage at birth. The fact that some of the streaks ran up to the disc suggested that the case might be reckoned as one of proliferating retinitis.

Wm. H. Crisp,
Secretary.

OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SECTION.

Baltimore City Medical Society.

Meeting of January 22nd, 1919, held by invitation at General Hospital, No. 7, Evergreen Junior.

Dr. J. W. Downey, Jr., Presiding.

In the absence of Colonel Bordley, Major Ardan gave a talk, briefly going into the history of the founding and development of the Hospital and School for the reeducation of the blind.

The patients after being admitted are given a physical examination by the different members of the staff to determine their suitability for hospital training, and are then put to school work. The course is divided into four periods of two months each.

When the patients enter they are, as a rule, very much depressed, and for the first period are given a large amount of entertainment and physical exercise in the recreation building, with a short period of manual training in weaving and other arts which develop their tactile sensation. An interesting fact is that those men who have been used to manual work, and therefore have thickened cuticle on their finger tips are more apt than those who have less hardened epidermis.

In the second period the hand work is continued, the recreation and entertainment is lessened with instruction in vocational training, which varies with the aptitude of the individual. The third period is arranged with still more vocational work and less amount

of entertainment and recreation, while the fourth period consists largely of specialized vocational work.

In this course the man is not alone taught how to use his hands, but is also taught how to conduct a business for himself, and, as a rule, a man's near relative, either sister, brother or fiancee is invited to the instructions and receives training along with the soldier: so that on leaving the school they will be in a position to support the scholar both morally and in a business way. The hand work being taught thruout the four periods.

Lieutenant Campbell showed several very interesting cases that had returned from the front; consisting of gas cases, cases for plastic work, simple chronic glaucoma in a boy of twenty-one, and a case of conical cornea; after which a tour of inspection was made of the buildings and the work accomplished.

Mr. Campbell, assistant director of the institution, then gave a very instructive discourse upon the advanced methods used in the teaching of the blind, after which the meeting adjourned.

C. A. Clapp,
Secretary.

ABSTRACTS

Koster, W.—Removal of Small Foreign Bodies from the Anterior Chamber.—Tidjdschr. v. Geneesk. 1917, v. 1, p. 802.

Every ophthalmologist with experience will agree that the removal of foreign bodies from the anterior chamber is not easy. Even when the foreign body is of iron or steel, its removal may be difficult. The surgeon who does not proceed systematically may not succeed at all, and the eye be lost.

Bodies larger than 2 mg. of iron or steel give the least difficulty. One attempts removal with the giant magnet thru the opening in cornea or sclera, if the trauma is recent. In each case the presence and the location of the piece has been determined with the sideroscope. Mostly, however, the corneal wound is small and closed, so that the anterior chamber has reformed. The particle brought thru the pupil with the magnet, strikes the cornea, often against the closed wound, thru which it passes if presenting its shortest diameter. These are the easy cases.

It is not so easy, if the splinter is very fine and the wound already closed, as happens with very small corneal traumas. Then a new opening must be made at the periphery of the chamber, where the piece drops, when the magnet stops attracting it. The particle is entirely invisible, being behind the limbus. One must now enter the anterior chamber, as peripherally as possible, where one knows the particle to be, with a fine Graefe knife directed radially, and then make an incision along the corneal margin, a little longer than the foreign body, or at least to 6 mm. With the pole of the hand magnet the scleral side of the wound is pressed slightly, when the foreign body presents itself.

The mistake mostly made is that the incision is too much in the cornea, or that the opening is made with the triangular keratome, at the place where the particle is. The piece of metal lies then in the chamber angle, behind the scleral wound lip, and is held by the iris tissue as soon as the aqueous has escaped. And even a strong magnet is incapable, with the pole in the wound, to extract it, as it becomes pressed in the iris tissue. If one tries to move the particle the next day, when the chamber has reformed, one will not succeed as exudate will fix it in the root of the iris.

If Koster has to treat failed extractions, he locates the splinter with the sideroscope as accurately as possible; and at that spot he makes a scleral angular incision with one line in the limbus and the other radial in the sclera. The chamber angle, with the root of the iris and ciliary body is then ex-

posed, the point of the flap is pulled outward with a fine sharp hook, and the giant magnet brings forward the particle. One incision along the limbus is insufficient. The flap is replaced with a superficial suture.

Too little attention is paid to the minuteness of the attractive force of the strongest magnet on the very small particles. When the anterior chamber is absent they are easily retained by folds of iris. It is not advisable with a very fine splinter kept against the back of the cornea by the magnet, to perforate the cornea at that place with a bistoury, which the magnet does not attract. These knives are never very sharp; and those small splinters move so often in the anterior chamber that they can be at another place, when the paracentesis has been done. They cannot then be moved and one must wait some hours until the chamber is restored.

Nonmagnetic bodies are mostly lead shot, or pieces of copper, more rarely pieces of glass and stone, a few times pieces of reed or wood. The Roentgenogram is of the first importance for the diagnosis of lead or copper in the chamber angle. Pieces of glass remain mostly in the neighborhood of the cornea, penetrating or hung on it. Thru explosion of glass vessels glass can go deep in the eye. If a piece of the glass is at hand it should be examined for its penetration by Roentgen rays. A glass splinter in the anterior chamber is often seen better than expected thru the totally reflecting borders at the planes of fractures.

One should not try to remove such foreign bodies thru a straight line wounds, and no surgical forceps should be used. A good access must be made toward the foreign body by lengthening if necessary, the wound opening, so that a flap is formed, which can be lifted with a sharp hook. It is preferable to make in the cornea a fresh incision at right angles, with a Graefe knife alone or with a pair of blunt, strong scissors. If necessary a third incision is made, so that a square flap is formed, the base of which is made, if possible, toward the limbus. If the foreign body is thus well exposed it should be grasped with a strong anatomic forceps. One or two fine superficial silk sutures may be used, or, if necessary, cover with a conjunctival flap.

In an eye, where the original wound has well closed, the keratome can be used sometimes, but with the narrow knife the chance is greater for the incision to be perpendicular thru the cornea, which gives more room, and a contact can be more easily prevented with the knife than with the keratome. For foreign bodies in the chamber angle first a radial incision next the object is made, as peripherally as possible, with the sharp edge of the knife outward; and the cut along the limbus with blunt scissors in the direction of the body. Or one plunges the knife first at one side of the object peripherally in the limbus, goes around first at one side of the object and comes out at its other side again thru the limbus. After an incision is thus made thru the limbus, one makes with scissors at one or both ends radial incisions in the cornea, and lifts this flap firmly with a sharp hook. The hemorrhage is here of no consequence. If, however, one enters with iris forceps thru a keratome incision, and while the iris lies against the cornea, wishes to grasp with surgical teeth a hooky or globe-like object, a hemorrhage will start and obscure sight of the object. If one keeps on trying, the foreign body moves the deeper.

Koster describes a case where, after a failure in extraction, he succeeded. Enucleations should not be hastily resorted to. Thru explosion a piece of glass entered the anterior chamber, lying at the temporal side of the iris. The glass was partly in the pupillary space. The next morning the piece was below in the anterior chamber. The ophthalmologist made an incision below with the keratome, and tried to grasp the glass with iris forceps. Hemorrhage started, and after some vain trials the foreign body could not be seen. Two days later the patient came under Koster's care. There was still some blood there, and the pupil was

filled with opaque lens substance. However, a parallelogram-shaped piece of glass, probably 3 to 5 mm., was seen lying in the pupillary space, with tension a little too low.

Next morning, at the upper margin of the pupil, somewhat to the nasal side, an incision 8 mm. long was made perpendicularly thru the cornea, with a very fine Graefe knife. With curved tenotomy scissors a second incision 6 mm. long was made toward the nose downward in the cornea perpendicular to the first. The angle of these two was lifted with a very fine sharp hook; the lens substance with the foreign body and also a bead of vitreous pushed a little into the opening. Koster was able to grasp the piece of glass with strong, fine anatomic forceps. Lens substance was partly removed. The wound closed well. No sutures in the cornea. Conjunctiva a little loosened nasally and upward, and after pushing it over the end of the corneal wound it was sutured. Slight compressive bandage and bed rest. Two years later the eye can be corrected to vision of nearly 6/6.

E. E. B.

Stephenson, Sydney.—Orbital Suppuration from Acute Anterior Ethmoiditis in Young Subjects. (British Journal of Ophthalmology, Aug. 1918, p. 416.)

The writer has found the form of orbital suppuration described in this communication tolerably common in young children, altho the essential nature of the condition is not always recognized. It is not rare to see a young child suffering from general malaise with swelling of the lids of one eye, which is more or less prominent, in which orbital suppuration is unrecognized. Many of the milder cases get well under simple treatment, or without treatment, with or without a discharge of pus from the nostrils, or into the nasopharynx.

But a certain number of the cases return later with signs of so-called "orbital cellulitis" or "orbital suppuration"; presenting tenderness, edema, redness, chemosis, protrusion, downward or downward and outward, and impaired motility of the eyeball, together with general symptoms such as malaise, elevation of temperature, headache and vomiting. The condition is always unilateral, and there is an absence of history of coryza.

Stephenson is convinced, from his clinical observations, that these cases deserve to be classed as a separate entity, and that they are explained by an acute inflammation of the anterior ethmoidal cells (in severe cases inflammation of the posterior ethmoidal cells can not be excluded). The condition is not accompanied by any ophthalmoscopic signs, is not followed by optic nerve atrophy; and these patients do not die from intracranial complications.

Many get well under the simplest treatment—a cathartic, and locally a continuous dressing of six per cent alcohol or hot applications of boric acid. When symptoms are severe, or the general condition of the patient is threatening, surgical measures must be adopted.

The usual procedure is to make an incision into the orbit over any spot which seems to indicate the presence of underlying pus. If nothing escapes, the dressing forceps, with closed blades, are introduced into the depths of the wound, and the blades of the instruments are then separated more or less widely. In some instances of this operative procedure there is no escape of pus until two or three days later.

Several experiences of this sort led the writer to adopt a somewhat different procedure. Under general anesthesia, a curved incision down to the bone was made over the inner angle of the orbit extending from the root of the nose to the inner end of the eyebrow; a small raspatory was then introduced beneath the periosteum over the region of the anterior ethmoidal cells and pus usually escaped. Or, if the simpler orbital incision is preferred, in the absence of distant indications to the contrary, it is advised that the opening be made over the region of the anterior ethmoidal cells. The paper concludes with details of ten cases selected from a larger number.

C. H. M.

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DISEASES OF THE EYE DURING THE CIVIL WAR.

As the time has arrived for collecting material for and the actual writing of the Medical and Surgical History of American participation in the Great War, it is of interest to ophthalmologists to inquire into the subject of ocular affections as they drew the attention of military surgeons during our Civil War. Practically the only record is that preserved in the third medical volume of the impressive Medical and Surgical History dealing with the medico-military activities of 1861-1865.

The section "Diseases of the Eye" was made a separate order of "Local Diseases, Order II," instead of being included with "Diseases of the Nervous System," as was done by Farr, the British statistician.

In this classification were included amaurosis; cataract; inflammation of the iris; night blindness; ophthalmia; inflammation of the retina; other diseases of this order; inflammation of the conjunctiva; not a very elaborate or distinctive list, surely, but one, nevertheless, that mirrored ophthalmic knowledge (or the lack of it) in the early sixties.

In Medical Volume III, p. 849, we are told, under "Ophthalmia," the inflammations of the eye were reported prior to January 30, 1862, under the headings *Ophthalmia* and *Iritis;* subsequent to that date the term *Conjunctivitis* was substituted for the former.

During the five and one-sixth years covered by the medico-military service, 8,904 cases of ophthalmia and 65,739 of conjunctivitis were reported among white troops, making a total of 74,643 cases. Included among these were probably many cases of corneal infection, as 1,463 cases—1.96 per cent. of the whole number, or one out of every fifty-one cases—were discharged as unfit for military service; the average annual sick-rate being 33.4 cases per thousand men.

These inflammations of the eye were somewhat less frequent among the colored troops, the whole number having amounted to 5,153 cases, or to an average annual rate of 28.1 per thousand. This exceptional infrequency of disease among colored troops is explained by two considerations: "ophthalmia" was not occasioned in a notable degree by the ordinary exposures to cold and wet incident to camp life and active service; but was the

result of special causative conditions existing in certain localities, perhaps trachoma, of which the negro is wonderfully free. Moreover, these localities were held by a larger proportion of white than of black troops.

Ophthalmia prevailed to a much greater extent among the troops serving on the Gulf Coast than among those operating against Richmond. During the year ending June 30, 1865, 1,198 cases of conjunctivitis were reported among the 80,982 white troops constituting the Army of the Potomac, while 2,158 cases are said to have occurred among the 45,629 white soldiers serving in the Department of the Gulf. The prevalence in the latter area was attributed to sunglare, to dust and to sandy particles in the air of stations on the coast line. Colored troops operated in this department, but the majority of those that contributed to the statistics held the line of the Mississippi River and were protected from the exposure to which the ophthalmia was attributed.

The record further shows that during the four years, July 1, 1861, to June 30, 1865, the average annual rate of prevalence of ophthalmia among white troops was, in the Army of the Potomac, 17.5 per thousand strength, in the Department of the Gulf 37.0, in the Department of New Mexico 47.5, and in the Department of the Northwest 85.0—the rate for the whole army having been, as already stated, 33.4 per thousand. In the northwest the glare from snow was regarded as an etiologic factor, taking the place of the sand-glare of other regions.

It was also contended that the persistence of ophthalmia in individual cases occasionally depended on a rheumatic or a syphilitic taint. Its prevalence or persistence in a command was sometimes ascribed to influences affecting the constitution. These were generally malarial; and as proof it was noted that some of the worse cases were cured in a short time after resorting to quinin. Eye inflammations that prevailed in two Ohio regiments were attributed to the existence of the scorbutic taint.

No specific mention was made of trachoma, nor of any form of contagious conjunctivitis, as such.

It is easy to point out that the Civil War History furnished the most meager and insufficient accounts of those ophthalmic diseases that prevailed during the war period, and in view of the probability that they did not much differ from those encountered by medical officers during the present war, is additional evidence of the ineffectiveness of the service from the ophthalmic standpoint.

On the other hand, when one considers that modern ophthalmic surgery was then only in its infancy, that definite information regarding the eye diseases was not accessible or nonexistent, the explanation is easy. Let us hope that the History now in preparation will deal completely with all the phases of military ophthalmology and compare favorably with the reports on the other branches of war medicine and surgery.

C. A. W.

A WORLD CONGRESS OF OPHTHALMOLOGY.

When war was forced on Europe in August, 1914, it immediately destroyed any possibility of the Twelfth International Ophthalmological Congress which was arranged to meet in "St. Petersburg" on the 14th of that month. Some of the papers to be presented to the Congress were already printed, and American Ophthalmologists, some of whom had already entered Russia and other countries that were first precipitated into war, will remember their experiences in escaping from the war zone as among the most strenuous and alarming of their lives.

The world has traveled far since 1914; new nations and new issues have risen, and the dream of permanent peace has drawn to the study of its problems the rulers, diplomats, and even the military authorities of the world. In the future international channels of communication and international gatherings must assume an importance greater than they ever had before; and among these channels of communication scientific journals and scientific congresses should show a most striking development.

It will be ten years in April since the Eleventh International Ophthalmological Congress met in Naples. Fully another

year must elapse before the arrangements for another such gathering can be completed. It is high time that a movement looking to preparation for it should be started. At the Naples meeting the United States was the chief rival of Russia as a claimant for the privilege of entertaining the Ophthalmologists of the world; and now Russia is impossible for such a gathering and must be so for years to come.

In the welter of world war, revolution and anarchy, the members of the local committee who organized for the Twelfth International Congress have disappeared, probably many of them are dead.

The initiative for a new gathering must come from a new source. Because of the terrific strain to which the leading civilizations of Europe have been subjected, the United States of America is by far the best place for the assembling and entertaining of such a Congress in the early future. We suggest that at the national meetings to be held in Atlantic City in June the necessary committees be formed to extend the invitation for such a Congress.

Some one of the Eastern cities that has been proved a good meeting place for our national medical organizations should be chosen for the holding of the Congress. It is nearer than London or Paris, not only for the United States, Canada, the West Indies, and Latin America, but also for Australia, Asia, and Japan; and equally near for South Africa.

When the Tenth International Ophthalmological Congress met in Lucerne, the majority of those who were contributing to the science and literature of ophthalmology lived within five hundred miles of that place; and few beyond a thousand miles except in the Eastern United States. Now, with important centers of scientific activity in Argentina, Egypt, India, Australia, and Japan, we have a whole round world to consider in choosing a meeting place. On the surface of a sphere one point is as near the center as another.

In planning for such a World Congress, certain departures should be made from the plans that have been followed in the past. In the first place, the Congress should meet once in three years. But few would attend each successive Congress although there have been American ophthalmologists who planned to spend each summer vacation in Europe. The majority of those attending any particular meeting will be residents of the quarter of the globe in which it is held.

The Congress will not reach its full usefulness and development unless the opportunity for such attendance is afforded the ophthalmic workers in all quarters of the globe. If the opportunity is to come once in ten years to North Americans, or once in twenty years to India or Australia, meetings must be held more frequently. The few who travel widely will want at least a few opportunities to visit remote portions of the globe.

In a series of gatherings each composed largely of a different personnel, there is need for a more permanent executive body or organization. This must almost of necessity be based on the different national organizations of Ophthalmologists. Representatives from each of these can constitute the business commission of the Congress; by which the local committees for arrangements can be named and the publication of the transactions and such matters provided for.

Such a Congress, working along broad lines, can do much to secure a general hearing for scientific observations relating to ophthalmology wherever these be made. Its influence would be felt not only thru its own transactions; but still more thru a more general acquaintance with the persons and publications concerned with ophthalmic science and art thruout the world. E. J.

BOOK NOTICES.

MIRRORS, PRISMS, AND LENSES. A Text-book of Geometrical Optics. By **James P. C. Southall**, Associate Professor of Physics, Columbia University, New York. 8vo, 600 pages, 247 illustrations. New York. The Macmillan Co.

For the ophthalmologist who seeks a really broad educational foundation in optics, this work will be of interest and value. Thoro fundamental training in optics is too often neglected in preparation for ophthalmic practice; and the text-books that would help to give it, published in English, have been few and not always well written. Even for the student of ophthalmology who may never master it; a careful inspection of what this book contains will furnish a broader view of what the optical study for his specialty should imply.

The work is divided into fifteen chapters, and the reading of the headings of these gives an idea of the extent of the subject. They are: Lights and Shadows; Reflection of Light; Plane Mirrors; Refraction of Light; Refraction at a Plane Surface and also thru a Plate with Plane Parallel Faces; Refraction thru a Prism; Reflection and Refraction of Paraxial Rays at a Spherical Surface; Refraction of Paraxial Rays thru an Infinitely Thin Lens; Change of Curvature of the Wave-front in Reflection and Refraction. Dioptry System; Astigmatic Lenses; Geometrical Theory of the Symmetrical Optical Instrument; Compound Systems. Thick Lenses and Combinations of Lenses and Mirrors; Aperture and Field of Optical System; Optical System of the Eye. Magnifying Power of Optical Instruments; Dispersion and Achromatism, and Rays of Finite Slope; Spherical Aberration, Astigmatism of Oblique Bundles, etc.

The reflection of light which takes up the second chapter is mathematically simple as compared with refraction; and forms an excellent introduction to the more complex phenomena of the latter. It is too much neglected in works written for medical students and practitioners. The chapter and sections here devoted to it, could be read with interest by one who knows little of elementary mathematics.

With regard to the chapters on refraction it is different. Altho this work by its large number of diagrams properly emphasizes the geometric side of optics, there are many algebraic formulas in it, the development of which requires close study even from one who has made himself familiar with the symbols used, and sets himself carefully and seriously to working out these formulas.

A notable feature are the problems appended to each chapter. By these the reader or student, who takes up the study without an instructor, can test his progress, or the thoroness of his grasp of the principles and methods he is studying. Some of these problems have quite a practical bearing on ophthalmic optics.

For the teacher of advanced optics, or the writer who wishes to get a broad view of this subject, this book will be highly valued as a book of reference. It appears to have been carefully prepared and proof-read for the elimination of errors. The diagrams are well proportioned and for the most part clearly lettered. It will be found the more suggestive because it is written from a point of view different from that of the practicing ophthalmologist. E. J.

TEXT-BOOK OF OPHTHALMOLOGY. By **Ernest Fuchs** and **Alexander Duane.** Fifth Edition. Octavo. 1067 pages, with 462 illustrations. Philadelphia and London. J. B. Lippincott Co.

The American Edition of Fuch's monumental work is described by Alexander Duane, the American editor, as "In several senses a new work." Yes, we may say it is a new work, and it may be perhaps permitted to say that the modesty of the American editor has been somewhat stretched in calling himself the translator. Really the work has been written by Fuchs and Duane, the former furnishing the skeleton and the latter the body and the habiliments. Some of the subjects have been so elaborated, or the manner of discussion has been so changed, that it were difficult indeed to ascribe the ideas to the Viennese author.

This fifth edition is very little like those which have appeared in the German language; if it were not for the old familiar illustrations it would be hard to recognize this as Fuch's text-book, then too, the illustrations have been amplified. Recent changes from the former American editions are in particular the chapters of Glaucoma, The Retina, Disturbances of Motility, and the sections on Refraction and Operations. Many of the newer methods, descriptions and even theories are included in this fifth edition, "Largely made on the editor's own responsibility."

The familiar appeal to the general practitioner in the preface is hardly applicable. Neither this nor any of the editions of the work were ever quite adapted to the common variety of doctor, or even to the beginner in ophthalmology. This is a book that is of primary use to the practicing ophthalmologist, and to him largely as a store house of information. The beginner would be appalled by the vastness of the subject and even by the size of the book, which now reaches one thousand and sixty-seven pages. He should first read text-books of less pretensions.

The reviewer's advice to the progressive oculist is, to buy this edition and shelve the older ones. H. V. W.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE AMERICAN OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY. Volume 16. Fifty-fourth Annual Meeting, 1918. 8vo, 412 pages, 23 ils., 1 col. plate, 19 other plates. Published by the Society, Thomas B. Holloway, Secretary, Philadelphia.

This volume contains the papers, discussions, and proceedings of the last annual meeting of the society, with sketches of two of its deceased members; and the candidates' theses of the nine associate members elected at the annual meeting.

The latter occupy over 160 pages; and add greatly to the scientific value of the volume. They abundantly justify the practice of requiring candidates to show their ability to contribute to the proceedings of the society. The requirement that they should do so has stimulated the production of some valuable papers. Some of these have already been published in this journal; and others will be brought before our readers in subsequent issues.

The volume is better illustrated than its predecessors. There are 23 cuts and diagrams in the text, and 19 insert plates and one in colors. The introduction of illustrations adds substantially to the value of almost any clinical report. It is a poor picture, indeed, that does not tell more about a clinical case than the text that would occupy an equal space. But there is as much to be learned of expression thru pictures, as of expression thru phrases and sentences.

Again the reader is urged to have these transactions in his library if possible. The early volumes may not be obtainable, but the current volumes can readily be procured thru the Secretary of the Society. E. J.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MUSCLE OPERATIONS.

To the Editor:—

Allow me to send you a few reflections suggested by the two letters dealing with operations for squint, in the November number of the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY, pp. 806-807.

A discussion between two medical men is never a disagreement between two persons, but between two opinions; a third person may therefore intervene, especially if he hopes to demonstrate that the divergence originates merely in an insufficient precision of the words used, and that the two colleagues are not speaking exactly of the same thing.

In the present case the word that lacks precision is "operation." If Dr. Loeb had written: "The position that all cases of convergent strabismus should be *tenotomised* is not a tenable one," I am certain that Dr. O'Connor would have been entirely satisfied. He might perhaps even have emphasized on the sentence, saying —as I say myself, after such personal experience I may have gained, and especially after all I have seen of my father's work for so many years—"The position that hardly any case of convergent strabismus should be tenotomised, is the only tenable." If, on the contrary, Dr. Loeb was speaking of advancement,

our two colleagues agree again, since Dr. O'Connor writes: "Few of us who operate, do so until we have eliminated the cases that are cured by glasses and visual training."

In fact, I doubt that this latter was the meaning of the word operation in Dr. Loeb's mind, for he would not have said that some operations result in strabismus of the opposite character, this being an inconvenience special to tenotomy.

Dr. Loeb advocates the nonoperative treatment, which gives him 40% correct positions of the eyes: the percentage is very good and does much credit to the author's skill and patience. He will, however, admit that the difficulty increases with the degree of the squint and the amblyopia of the deviated eye. Again, the amblyopia gets worse as time passes away, and the contractility of the externi gets weaker and weaker; this is a fact well known to any one who takes the trouble of measuring the excursion of the eyes.

If, then, a method—be it an operative one—enables us to reduce considerably the angle of squint, and, on the other hand, if by increasing the power of the externi, without impairing the strength of the interni, it gives the eyes a far better mobility, without any risk of divergent squint, there is no doubt that in the hands of so skillful an orthoptist as Dr. Loeb, such a method may give a still better percentage of correct positions. It may additionally enable to secure binocular vision, even if that has not been asked for, and, with the patient satisfy also the oculist.

The muscular advancement is the method I mean. With all its advantages it may be performed on very young children, when the amblyopia is not inveterate and the chances of subsequently restoring binocular vision are the very best possible.

Of course, there is no question of operating all cases before having thoroly tried the nonoperative treatment; in case of failure it is the best preparation to the postoperative training of the binocular vision.

In short, I believe that if in the pending discussion the word operation means tenotomy, Dr. O'Connor will agree with Dr. Loeb, and if it means advancement, Dr. Loeb cannot but agree with Dr. O'Connor.

Begging both our colleagues pardon for my intervention—our readers for my hesitating English—I am,

Respectfully yours,

Dr. Marc Landolt.

Paris, France.

OPHTHALMIC JURISPRUDENCE.

By Thomas Hall Shastid, M.D., LL.B.

SUPERIOR, WIS.

Recent Law Decisions of Special Interest to Ophthalmologists.

People v. Griffith. (Supreme Court of Illinois, June 21, 1917, 117 N. W., 195.) A. B. Griffith, convicted in the Municipal Court of Chicago of practicing optometry without a license, brought the record by writ of error to the Supreme Court. The essential question involved was whether or not the Optometry Act of Illinois was valid, i. e., constitutional. *Held:* It was not. The judgment was therefore reversed. Reasons: (1) The act exempted from examination those who had practiced three years, entirely regardless of moral character, temperate habits, age, skill, knowledge, or competency to practice optometry. (2) It prescribed no subjects for examination.

The importance of this decision is very great.

Martin v. Commonwealth. (Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia, Sept. 20, 1917, 93 S. E. 623.) J. Harry Martin, convicted of practicing medicine in the City of Roanoke, Va., without first having procured a certificate from the Board of Medical Examiners of Virginia, brought a writ of error to the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia. Dr. Martin was a nonitinerant optician, who displayed on the front door and window of his place of business the following legends, "Dr. J. Harry Martin, Incorporated, Eyes Exclusively" and "Dr. J. Harry Martin, Incorporated, Optometrist." The conviction was had on section 12 of the Medical Practice Act of Virginia, which runs as follows: "Any person shall be regarded as practicing medicine within the meaning of this act

. . . who shall use in connection with his name the words or letters 'Dr.,' 'Doctor,' 'Professor,' 'M. D.,' or 'Healer,'" etc. But the judgment was reversed on the strength of section 11 of the same act, which exempts "any noniterant person or manufacturer who mechanically fits or sells lenses, artificial eyes . . . or is engaged in the mechanical examination of eyes for the purpose of adjusting spectacles, eye-glasses or lenses."

Routt v. Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. (Supreme Court of Nebraska, Nov. 3, 1917; 165 N. W., 141.) The plaintiff sued the Brotherhood in the District Court of Douglas Co., Nebraska, on a benefit certificate held in the defendant company, Rule 68 of the company having provided that "Any beneficiary member in good standing who shall . . . suffer the complete and permanent loss of sight of both eyes, shall be considered totally and permanently disabled and shall thereby be entitled to receive . . . the full amount of his beneficiary certificate." The plaintiff had become unable to distinguish the colors red and green. The vision for no other color was affected, and the visual acuity remained substantially unchanged. Judgment below was given for plaintiff, and defendant company appealed to the Supreme Court. There the judgment was affirmed. the court declaring that "Complete and permanent loss of the sight of both eyes means loss of the use of the sight of both eyes for the purposes of the insured's avocation."

The opinion is plainly in accordance with prior law (e. g., Kan. v. C. B. & Q. Ry. Co., 90 Neb., 1112, v. B .R. T., 75 Neb. 183, and of Sneck v. Traveller's Insurance Co., 88 Hun, 94) but a strong dissenting opinion appears in this case.

Fring v. Pierce-Arrow Motor Car Co. (169 N. Y. Supp., 309.) *Held*, in this case, that the loss of the lens of an eye is not the "loss of an eye." True the loss of coordination of the two images prevents the simultaneous employment of both eyes, but, still, the injured eye would be a reserve of sight in case of an accident to, or the destruction of, the other eye. [Cf. Magnus and Wurdemann's "Visual Economics," Wurdemann's "Injuries of the Eye," and "Legal Relations of Ophthalmology" in "Am. Enc. of Oph.," p. 7042.]

Beardsley v. Ewing et al. (Supreme Court of North Dakota, Aug. 10, 1918, 168 N. W., 791.) From the viewpoint of a physician, one of the most important cases ever decided in this country. In fact no doctor, either general practitioner or specialist, can read this newly decided case without a feeling of intense dismay.

The facts are as follows: The plaintiff, a railway engineer, got a cinder in one of his eyes on Dec. 19, 1914. After various ineffectual attempts to remove the cinder himself, he went on the following morning (Dec. 20) to the offices of the defendants. There the cinder was removed. No bandage was applied, but the plaintiff was offered a prescription for a solution of boric acid—which, however, he refused. On Dec. 21, this time with a very painful eye, he went once more to the offices of the Drs. Ewing. On this occasion a bandage was applied, and a prescription was given for an argyrol solution. On the day following, Dec. 22, the plaintiff appeared once more at the offices of the defendants, this time with a well developed ulcer, and then (only two days after his first appearance in these offices) was referred to the head eye surgeon of the Soo Ry. Co. in Minneapolis, Dr. George E. Benson. An operation was performed by Dr. Benson, the eye was saved but the sight was lost.

At the trial, eight expert medical witnesses declared, under oath as a matter of course, that the treatment of the eye, as given by the Drs. Ewing, was absolutely all that could be desired. As far as the official records show, there was little or nothing in the testimony of Dr. Benson, who had been subpoenaed by the plaintiff, on which a judgment for the plaintiff could rationally be based. Moreover, the plaintiff and his wife were permitted to testify "to the size of the abscess on the eye on the 22nd of December. Certain improper questions were also asked of one of the defendants, on cross-examination, as follows: (1) Whether or not said defendant was insured against loss in malpractice cases, (2) whether or

not his brother, the other defendant in the case, was similarly insured. A witness, Dr. Grogan, was also asked (1) whether or not his expenses were met by the Northwestern Medical Association, (2) whether or not counsel for defendants were employed by the Northwestern Medical Association. An alleged improper suggestion was "made by plaintiff's wherein he said that 'the manner in which these physicians stand together is disgraceful.'"

Judgment was given for the plaintiff in the sum of $7,933.50.

Defendants appealed to the Supreme Court, which, however, sustained the judgment, holding (1) a question of negligence is one of fact for the determination of the jury, (2) a layman is competent to testify to the size of an abscess which can be observed with the naked eye. [The fact that a layman would not know an abscess from a bit of tenacious mucus is not adverted to. A layman would, in fact not know whether an abscess of one size or another was or was not present.] (3) The improper questions asked and improper suggestions made by the counsel for the plaintiff, are not reversible errors.

Once more the writer can only observe that any doctor, whether a general practitioner or a specialist in ophthalmology, can only read the decision in the case of Beardsley v. Ewing et al. with consternation and dismay. Howsoever right the treatment by a given doctor in a given case may be, and howsoever numerous and trustworthy may be the expert witnesses who testify in his behalf, and howsoever slight the testimony may be which is given against his treatment, the doctor, as it seems, may yet be mulcted in heavy damages. There is, however, a single dissenting opinion in this report, that of Justice Robinson, which exhibits a perfect comprehension of the case in its medical, as well as its legal, aspects. The justice, at the close of his opinion, in fact declared: "Clearly the judgment should be reversed, and the action dismissed, because from the record it appears that there can be no evidence to sustain a verdict for the plaintiff."

NEWS ITEMS

DEATHS.

Dr. Clarence John Blake, Boston, aged seventy-five, died at his home, January 29th. Dr. Blake was so close to the ophthalmologist by virtue of his allied specialty that we note with deep regret that he has passed away.

Dr. Thomas Buzzard, of London, died January 1st, aged 88 years.

Dr. William F. Mittendorf, who began the practice of ophthalmology in New York City more than thirty years ago, died on February 14th, 1919, in his seventy-fourth year, and was buried in Sleepy Hollow Cemetery at Tarrytown.

Dr. Richard A. Reeve, Professor of Ophthalmology and Dean of the Medical Faculty of the University of Toronto, and Ex-President of the British Medical Association, died suddenly in Toronto, Canada, on January 27th, aged 77 years.

Dr. Abraham Sachs, of San Antonio, Texas, died January 19th.

MILITARY.

Capt. H. K. Fleckenstein, of Baltimore, is now at the head of the service at Camp Meade.

Capt. Charles P. Small, of Chicago, has been sent to take charge of the Post Hospital at the Rock Island, Illinois, Arsenal, U. S. Army.

Lieut.-Col. Greenwood and Lieut.-Col. Derby have just returned from long service overseas. It is reported that they will both soon be discharged from service.

Major A. C. Magruder and Capt. E. M. Marbourg of Colorado Springs have been honorably discharged from the service and have resumed their practices at home. Major Magruder saw almost eighteen months of service, a large part of which was as Commanding Officer of the base hospital at Fort Sill.

Lieut.-Col. George E. de Schweinitz of Philadelphia presided at a recent meeting, which was held in the American Academy of Music, upon which occasion Sir Arthur Pearson of St. Dunstan's, London, made a most illuminating address upon the education of the blind soldier. Col. de Schweinitz preceded the address by some appropriate reference to Sir Arthur's work, based upon his recent visit to St. Dunstan's.

Lieut.-Col. Casey A. Wood is spending a few months at Stanford University, California. No

doubt he is working up something that he will give us later on. He has recently addressed the "Twilight Club" of Pasadena on "Problems Connected with the Reconstruction of Disabled Soldiers."

George E. de Schweinitz, Lieut.-Col. M. C., U. S. A., Philadelphia, has been appointed general consultant in ophthalmic surgery to the Surgeon General of the Army; Col. Vilray Blair, consultant in oral and plastic surgery; Lieut.-Col. H. P. Mosher, consultant in otolaryngology, and Major Charles H. Frazier, consultant in neurosurgery.

Honorable discharge from service in the U. S. Army has been granted to Doctors A. L. Benedict, of Buffalo, T. A. Woodruff, of Chicago, H. W. Loeb, of St. Louis, J. O. McReynolds, of Dallas, Texas, W. B. Lancaster, of Boston, Mass., E. S. Sherman, Newark, N. J.

Capt. A. B. Middleton, M. C., of Pontiac, Ill., who has had charge of the Base Hospital Eye Dept., and served as Oculist for the Special Medical Board for the past year at Camp Travis, Texas, was discharged, and returned home March first.

Sir Arthur Pearson, the blind founder and director of St. Dunstan's Hotel for Blinded Soldiers, London, addressed a mass meeting at the Century Theater in New York City on February 4th. He described his work in restoring blinded British soldiers to self-support. Lieut.-Col. James Bordley, who is in charge of work for blinded American Soldiers and Sailors, and Director of the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, told of the work being done at Evergreen, Baltimore, for the men of the American Expeditionary Force who lost their sight in action.

PERSONAL.

Dr. John A. Donovan has been elected President of the Chamber of Commerce of Butte, Montana.

Dr. Daniel W. White, of Tulsa, Oklahoma, was married on the 19th of February to Miss Connor Trotter, of Kansas City.

Dr. R. L. Randolph, of Baltimore, Md., has resumed his practice after a month's needed rest.

Dr. Wm. T. Shoemaker, who has just returned from France, has been elected Chairman of the Ophthalmologic Section of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.

Dr. and Mrs. L. Webster Fox announce the marriage of their daughter Celia to Mr. Charles Francis Griffith, on Thursday, February the twenty-seventh, 1919.

Dr. Clarence E. Ide, honorably discharged from the Medical Corps of the U. S. Army, has resumed the practice of his specialty at San Diego, California, in the offices formerly occupied by the late Dr. W. Williamson.

Dr. J. A. Hughes, having completed the combined Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat internship at Brooklyn Eye and Ear Hospital, announces his association with Drs. Hill, Howard and Fagin, Suite 930, Exchange Building, Memphis, Tenn.

Dr. Harry Friedenwald, of Baltimore, has left for a six months' sojourn in Palestine, as Medical Advisor for the Sanitary Commission, and also to bring a report from the Medical Department of the Jewish University at Jerusalem.

Dr. Samuel D. Risley, of Philadelphia, has been the recipient of many congratulations upon his having recently passed another milestone of life's journey in greatly improved health, notwithstanding the exactions of a very active private practice.

The President of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia has appointed the following members of the Ophthalmic Section as the Executive Committee: Dr. Samuel D. Risley, Dr. S. Louis Zeigler and Dr. Thomas B. Holloway.

Dr. Sterling G. Ryerson, founder and past president of the Canadian Red Cross Society, has resumed practice in Toronto after four years' work in France and England, and various parts of the American Continent in the interests of the Canadian and American Red Cross Societies.

SOCIETY NOTES.

The Medical Society of the State of California will meet in Santa Barbara on April 15, 16, 17. The Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section is preparing a very attractive program.

Dr. G. Oram Ring was recently elected President of the Philadelphia Medical Club, and Dr. Wm. M. Sweet one of the directors. The club now numbers about eleven hundred physicians in its membership.

Dr. L. Webster Fox of Philadelphia, President of the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Free Circulating Library for the Blind, made an appropriate introductory address preceding a lecture by Dr. George Earle Raiguel, upon "What England, France and Italy are Doing for the Blinded Soldier; America's Opportunity," which was held in the Rose Garden of the Bellevue Stratford Hotel, on Wednesday evening, February 5th.

At a meeting of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, on February 5th, the scientific portion of the meeting was devoted to papers on "Concussion and Injuries of the Eye in Warfare," by Lieut.-Col. George E. de Schweinitz; "Reeducation of the Blind" by Lieut.-Col. James Bordley; "Research Work on the Problems of Aviation" by Major Walter B. Lancaster, and the "Army School of Ophthalmology" by Major Meyer Wiener.

At the meeting of the New York Academy of Medicine, Section on Ophthalmology, January 19th, papers were read by Dr. W. M. Sweet, of Philadelphia, on "Implantation of a Gold Ball"; Capt. Harvey J. Howard, of Boston, "Implantation of a Glass Ball," and Dr. A. N. Alling, of New Haven, Conn., on "Implantation of Fat." Mr. Pierre Gougelmann gave a paper from the standpoint of the artificial eye maker. At its meeting on February 17th, Dr. E. Torok gave the paper of the evening on "Tuberculin in the Diagnosis and

Treatment of Eye Diseases," with a report of twelve years' experience. This paper was discussed from the standpoint of the general practitioner and of the oculist.

On the 8th of November the opening meeting of the Irish Ophthalmological Society was held in Dublin, after the Montgomery Lecture by Dr. Euphen Maxwell, Mr. James Craig, Belfast, in the chair. The rules were drawn up and adopted, and the following were elected to hold office for the ensuing year:—President, Mr. A. W. Sandford Cook; Council, Messrs. J. B. Story, L. Werner, J. A. Craig, H. C. Mooney, F. H. Crawley; Hon. Sec. and Treasurer, Lt.-Col. T. H. Delany, I. M. S. (retd.).

Mr. Werner exhibited lantern slides of a case of cysticercus, published in the *Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society of the U. K.* (Vol. 23, p. 193), and Mr. Story charts of Fields of Vision in Glaucoma. On the following day patients were shown at the Royal Victoria Eye and Ear Hospital, among others a patient whose case was published in the *Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society*, 1891, page 127, of detachment of the choroid; also two cases of fat implantation, one in Tenon's capsule, and the other in the sclerotic after evisceration, the eye in each case being buphthalmic.

MISCELLANEOUS.

By the will of Mrs. Ada B. B. Dixon the sum of $1,500 is bequeathed to the Presbyterian Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Hospital, Baltimore, as a tribute to the memory of Dr. John Dixon.

A Joint Influenza Committee has just been created to study the epidemic and to make comparable, so far as possible, the influenza data gathered by the Government Departments at Washington, D. C.

The Ophthalmic Hospital of St. John in Jerusalem, the only one of its class in Palestine, and used by the Turks as an ammunition store and partly destroyed by them on their retreat, now appeals for assistance to rebuild. The sum hoped for is 50,000 pounds, to maintain and extend the work.

In the "Paris Letter" to the A. M. A. Journal, there is a report of Dr. F. de Lapersonne on the results obtained since July 15th in the treatment of eye injuries. Eighty-three cases were operated upon. In all but three the operation was performed under procain anesthesia, irrespective of the extent or degree of the intervention. When radiography showed the presence of a foreign body, or of a fracture, he frequently resorted to orbitotomy, making a curved incision (following the rim of bone), which gave free access to the orbit, at the same time insuring the safety of the conjunctiva and the palpebral fissure. He insists that immediate suture of wounds should be the absolute rule in these cases of orbito-ocular wounds which come under the head of urgent surgery.

Harris Turner, M. L. A., will be provincial representative for Saskatchewan for the Canadian National Institute for the Blind. C. W. Holmes, director of the Canadian National Institute, and himself a blind man, recently visited Saskatoon and spent some time with Mr. Turner discussing plans for extending work for the blind in this province. Mr. Holmes purposes, with the approval of the executive committee, to establish at least one home teaching circle in each province. A competitive teacher is to be in charge, who shall not only act in the capacity expressly understood by the term, but also as a local paid representative under the immediate direction of the local member of the Western committee, which will be a center of information and activity. Mr. Holmes said that the plan outlined was the only practicable one to advance rapidly. That such a plan, carried out, would enable him to accomplish more in one year, at less expense, than he could single handed, or even with a competent central staff, in five years. For several years past Mr. Holmes has been in Massachusetts in connection with educational work for the blind. When the institute was established in Toronto, he was called to Canada to take charge of it.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Report of Committee on Standardizing Test Cards. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 139.

Tscherning. Visual Acuity in Feeble Light. Arch. d'Opht., v. 36, p. 383.

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THERAPEUTICS.

Paraspecific Therapy in Ophthalmic Practice. Med. Rec., v. 95, p. 200.

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Gocht. Disinfection of Hands without Soap. Clin. Opht., v. 22, p. 736.

Guiral, R. Antiseptics for Surgery of Eyes. Rev. de Med. y Cirurg., Dec. 10, 1918, v. 23, p. 645. Abst. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 460.

Lopez, F. Protection of Clothing in Irrigating Eye. An. de la Soc. Oft., v. 1, 1918, p. 101. Abst. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 370

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Eaton, F. B. Scar Tissue Conjunctivitis in Animals; Relation to Trachoma. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 81-86.

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Kirkpatrick, H. Trachoma. Report of Government Ophth. Hosp., Madras, India, 1917. Indian Med. Gaz., Dec., 1918, p. 459. Gonorrheal Infection. Rep. of Gov't. Ophth. Hosp., Madras, India, 1917. Indian Med. Gaz., Dec., 1918, p. 458.

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CLINICAL NOTES ON VERNAL CATARRH OR EXUBERANT PERICORNEAL CONJUNCTIVITIS

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This paper calls attention to ametropia and keratoconus consecutive to this disease; the value of the x-rays in its therapeutics, reports a case of large recurring vegetation invading the cornea and cured by the x-rays. It was presented to the Section on Ophthalmology of the Fifth National Medical Congress of Mexico, held in Puebla, January, 1918.

Although the literature about exuberant pericorneal conjunctivitis, so named by Dr. Manuel Carmona y Valle, is very extensive, there remain to be explained some points about its complications, therapeutics and atypical forms. Therefore, the clinical notes here given are important.

I. *Keratoconus of rapid development consecutive to exuberant pericorneal conjunctivitis.*

For many years I have insisted that vernal conjunctivitis develops an irregular astigmatism in eyes emmetropic before being affected by such conjunctivitis.

In the second annual meeting of the Mexican Ophthalmic Society in 1905,[1] and later in the third meeting of the same society,[2] I presented some observations on patients with vernal catarrh whom I had the opportunity to observe from the beginning of their affection and for several years thereafter. In all these cases, free from ametropia in the beginning, I saw a compound irregular myopic astigmatism develop, with the exception of a single case in which the astigmatism was hypermetropic.

Convinced that my patients were emmetropes from the onset of their vernal catarrh and having seen not only the appearance of ametropia, but its increase in a short time (up to 2 diopters in three years, in one case), naturally I attributed the change to the vernal catarrh, for these three reasons: First, the conjunctival disease appears in the eyes of children, eyes in the course of development; second, the nutritive modifications which the pericorneal infiltration must bring to the cornea; and, third and very important, because of the mechanical influence of the pressure and friction thru the closed eyelids, which the little patients constantly rub with their fingers, in order to calm the most persistent subjective symptom and annoyance of the disease, the itching.

In one or another meeting of the ophthalmic society my observations seem to have been received with a certain skepticism, as one could see in the minutes published in their reports.

Now I bring the new observation made on a young girl affected with vernal catarrh, in whom I have seen appear and develop in two years a decided keratoconus. This observation is highly demonstrative that the vernal catarrh has etiologic influence in producing the malformations of the cornea which cause ametropia and corroborates my previous observations, giving undeniable proof of the view I have sustained for several years.

Case I.—Miss R. S., at present twenty years of age, of Conguripo (State

of Michoacán), presented herself for the first time in my ophthalmo-neurologic office in 1913, then sixteen years old, for treatment of an ocular affection which began two years previously. Careful examination showed me that she suffered from a bulbar form of the exuberant pericorneal conjunctivitis, without participation of the tarsal conjunctiva, with opalescent infiltration of the limbus towards the superior portion and big pericorneal nodules in one or both extremities of the horizontal meridian, in the uncovered parts of the conjunctiva. The characteristic subjective symptom of this disease—the itching—was intense. As usual, the patient showed alternately improvement in the winter months and exacerbations in the hot months; but as the climate in which the patient lives is hot, the improvements in winter were slight.

On refracting her, I found both eyes completely emmetropic, with sharp visual acuity equal to normal. I treated the patient for several weeks and after that she went to her home.

In 1916 she returned to my office, and what was my surprise in finding in both eyes an enormous keratoconus, perfectly transparent, and with the vision below one-twentieth. Of course, the vernal catarrh has not disappeared.

Looking at one or the other eye in profile, a glance brought to notice the accentuated conical form of the cornea. Examining the superficial transparent membranes with the keratoscopic disc of Placido, it showed a characteristic malformation of the concentric circles.

The anterior chamber was deep. Iris, refractive media and the ocular fundi, normal. Vision R. 1/25; L. 1/50.

Refraction: Irregular myopic astigmatism. The skiascopic examination showed at once the annular shadow, concentric at the pupillary border, with its center illuminated—a shadow which is almost characteristic of keratoconus, altho it is observed also in lenticonus. On rotating the reflecting mirror the annular shadow showed irregular movements and deformaties. In causing the patient to look in different directions, in order to retinoscope the peripheral parts of the cornea, we observed the two luminous bands which had the scissors movement as it appears in irregular astigmatism.

The refraction of the extreme meridians was the following: R. oblique meridian 25°. —9D; meridian at 90°. —13D. L. oblique meridian at 160°. —9D, oblique meridian at 80°. —15D. The correcting lenses hardly improved the vision for distance. Also the visual acuity for reading distance was notably decreased.

What is interesting in this case is the complete absence of any hereditary record (I have examined her parents, her maternal grandmother and some uncles, and none of them presented any errors of refraction) as well as the rapidity with which the keratoconus developed.

Did this vernal conjunctivitis cause the keratoconus? We do not apply the post hoc ergo propter hoc principle, but we must reflect on all this detail: 1st the absence of any other cause; 2nd the previous affection, with its intense pericorneal infiltration, naturally produced nutritive modifications in the cornea, which decreased its resistance to the intraocular pressure; and 3rd the continued frictions and rubbing practiced on the cornea through the closed eyelids, in order to relieve the itching, mechanically flattening the transparent membrane, must also modify its elasticity.

The ignorance in which we still are about the real pathogenesis of keratoconus, does not permit us to estimate the influence of each one of these causes, considered separately; but surely, united, they have not been foreign to the production of the bilateral keratoconus in our patient.

In speaking of the prognosis of vernal conjunctivitis, one must take into account the possibility that in time it may produce astigmatism, that would diminish the vision of the patient. It is customary in my office to study the refraction of all patients who have been suffering several years from vernal catarrh. This has caused me to observe the emmetropia at the beginning of the illness and to later discover the

ametropia, almost always myopic astigmatism.

When the patient does not present any error of refraction, I am so convinced that the vernal conjunctivitis can cause it, that I always advise the patients of this possibility, in order that they may be warned.

We can see that if, exceptionally, the vernal conjunctivitis produces corneal alterations able to disturb its transparency, it is not so rare that it produces modifications in the curvature of this transparent membrane, which always decreases the visual acuity.

X-rays and the therapeutics of exuberant pericorneal conjunctivitis.

Is the use of the X-rays in the treatment of the periodic vegetative conjunctivitis, as Dr. Antonelli calls it, rational?

The question must be cleared a priori by considering the pathologic histology of the affection, and the special action of the X-rays; and a posteriori, by observing the results obtained in the clinic.

The most notable in the histologic lesions of the vernal catarrh is the proliferation of the epithelial cells, accompanied by a proliferation of the subepithelial tissue, the epithelial hypertrophy predominating in the bulbar regions, and the conjunctival proliferation in the tarsus (Taylor and Danvers). The European histologists and our Mexican histologists are in accord on this point. According to Dr. Antonelli[3], the epithelium is not very much changed, but very much thickened. There exists an infiltration of small cells which constitute a granulomatous focus of leucocytes. There are numerous spaces and cystic cavities of three species: cysts of vacuity by degeneration of the epithelial cells; small lymphatic cysts; and, at last, isolated cavities well formed in the fibrous stroma. Antonelli believes that vernal catarrh is a chronic inflammatory process of the conjunctiva, which terminates in vegetations without it being possible to know the cause.

In some cases, the leucocytic infiltration is so abundant that it has caused Michel to think that the primary lesion is a lymphoid nodule.

Our histologist Dr. M. Toussaint[4], had said: "In short, the alterations consist of the epithelium being thickened in some places and thinned in others, and infiltrated by leucocytes, to a point that the subepithelial tissue presents the aspect of an abundantly vascularized infectious granuloma. Before Dr. Antonelli, Dr. Toussaint had already mentioned the existence of holes or vacuoles, some of these occupied by small migratory cells.

Another of our histologists, Dr. Ricardo Cicero (in the thesis of Dr. Chavez, already mentioned), divides the lesions into superficial epithelial ones, and lesions of the subepithelial layers. In the first he finds an active epithelial proliferation with a mucous degeneration of the cells; as to the subepithelial layer it has a texture similar to the infectious granuloma, there is an agglomeration of embryonic cells, tightly packed among themselves, and some of these acquire fusiform shape and have serous infiltration, the cavities are fairly abundant and some fibers of conjunctival tissue cross between the epithelial cells. We see, therefore, that there are numerous young cells of new formation, and, at times, lymphoid nodules.

"The X-rays act principally on the lymphoid system and on the young tissues of new formation."[5] From all that precedes we can a priori affirm that the X-rays must have a beneficial influence in the exuberant pericorneal conjunctivitis; as its indication is based on two scientific data of the greatest importance; the histologic nature of the vegetations, and the special action of X-rays on new formations of that nature.

Now let us see what the clinic says a posteriori. All my patients with vernal catarrh whose history I will briefly mention, have been treated by the Roentgen therapy in the office of Dr. Cornelio Larios, of the city of Leon.

The tube employed is focussed with an automatic vacuum regulator; there is always used a protective screen and a localizing diaphragm, in order to

limit the action of the X-rays to the desired part. The quality of the X-rays that we have used is from 6 to 7 of Benoist radiochromometer.

The quantity is estimated by the calorimetric apparatus or radiometer of Sabouraud-Noiré, composed of screens of platino-cyanide of barium. It never reaches the quantity of 5 H. We are therefore, very far from having ocular lesions, above all in the retina and the optic nerve, as observed by Birch-Hirschfeld in those cases in which the eye has been exposed to the radiations of 25 units of Holzknecht.

The precautions taken are so much more necessary because the patients frequently are children whose eyes, in course of development are more susceptible to the action of the X-rays, than the eyes of adults, according to the investigations of Tribondeau and Belley, mentioned by Dr. Leprince[6] of Bourges.

The duration of the exposure never lasts more than 8 minutes, the eyes are kept open, and the upper eyelid is inverted when it is a tarsal case, although this detail is not indispensable. Frequently repeated exposures have never been needed. As a general rule they have been practiced every three weeks or at longer intervals.

During the first days which follow each exposure to X-rays the patient does not feel any inconvenience. But two or three days after, as it were following a period of incubation, one observes an exacerbation of all the symptoms of vernal catarrh. The vascular injection of the conjunctiva is more intense, the vegetations increase in volume and a slight mucous secretion appears, even in cases which did not present it before. There is a sensation of foreign bodies in the conjunctiva, the itching increases, and in a very few cases, there exists a slight photophobia. This exacerbation lasts a few days, without opaqueness of the cornea or iritic phenomena, or fundus lesions, or the slightest diminution of visual acuity, or any symptoms of radiodermatitis. At the end of fifteen days, all has come to its old condition, and, from that moment, begins regression of the lesions of the limbus and tarsus. If after three weeks or one month the improvement has not been very marked, a new exposure of the eyes is made to Roentgen radiation.

This method of procedure differs from that which has been in use by others, such as Casey Wood[7] of Chicago, who mentions the case of a little girl afflicted in one eye only with vernal catarrh of the tarsal variety, whose affected parts were exposed daily, during six weeks to the action of the X-rays.

On the other hand, this method is similar to the manner in which Drs. Davidson and Lawson[8] have applied the radiations of radium in a case of vernal catarrh. They practiced the treatment during one year, and, in this time each eye was subjected to eight radiations, without ever observing any accidents or without obtaining a complete cure. In order to appreciate the therapeutic result it is necessary to recall the evolution of vernal catarrh in our country. The unfavorable influence of heat on the affection which we are studying being unquestionable, in countries where the seasons are more marked, so are the periods of exacerbation and improvement, the first coinciding with the spring—hence its name—and the second with winter. All of our Mexican oculists are in accord with that, in our country the course of the disease varies a little, owing to our special climatic conditions.

The patients whom I observe all live —with few exceptions—on the Central Plateau, which is located between 1,000 and 2,000 meters above sea level, whose climate is temperate and whose winters are not very severe. The disease follows this course: It is chronic, lasts several years—I have seen it lasting from the age of twelve to the age of twenty-six; it begins with childhood—I have seen it even in children four years of age; it generally attenuates with age and disappears in adolescence. Once it has appeared it simply shows variations of aggravation and improvement, without completely disappearing during the winter. The exacerbation begins in February, accentuates in March and April and keeps

its intensity during May, June, July, August and September. It begins to improve in October and the improvement reaches its apex in December and January.

Improvement in spring or summer and complete disappearance in winter is exceptional. I have observed it in patients with X-rays. However, I do not speak of cure except when they have passed one or two years without a relapse in spring and summer. This is the view of Doctors Zentmayer, Wood and Carpenter[9].

Here briefly are some of my most important observations.

Case 1:—A. M. twelve years of age from Lagos de Moreno, State of Jalisco, a city of temperate climate. He has been suffering for years from an ocular affection for which he came the 18th of March, 1916, as his disease began to show an exacerbation. I found him affected with vernal catarrh, of the bulbar and tarsal variety, with large pericorneal nodules, and abundant tarsal vegetations. There was hardly any secretion, but he suffered intense itching. I always obtain improvement with the following treatment: two drops twice daily of a 5 per cent solution of argyrol, and two drops of this formula: sterilized water 10 grams, solution of 1:1000 of adrenalin 1 gram, hydrochloride of cocain 0.05 centigrams; ointment of Verges of yellow oxide, 2 per cent every two or three days; and daily steaming with Laurenzo's vaporizator.

I prescribed all of this, and the treatment was followed for some days; but as he could not remain in the city, he asked me for some means to alleviate his sufferings as soon as possible. I used the X-rays. An eight minute exposure was made, following the precautions already indicated; after four or five days of incubation the reaction of which I spoke appeared, which got better at the end of two weeks. The patient returned to his residence and I advised him to use only the argyrol and the cocain-adrenalin solutions.

On the following 28th of April he again presented himself much improved. The pericorneal nodules had almost disappeared and the tarsal exuberances greatly diminished. At the limbus persisted, that whitish enlargement toward the upper part of the cornea so well described by Uribe Troncoso[10] and which is for me one of the symptoms which help me most in establishing the diagnosis. The itching had improved. I must call the attention to this improvement, observed in full spring, when in previous years it was the most painful time for the patient. After a new application of X-rays he returned home where he followed the previous treatment.

On the 18th of June he consulted me again. There was complete disappearance of the tarsal exuberances in the left eye, hardly perceptible in the right eye; disappearance of the limbal inflammation and of the pericorneal nodules; the itching has almost disappeared. Owing to this evident improvement no application of X-rays was made and the previous treatment was continued. On the twelfth of August, the tarsal conjunctivas were smooth, there remained only a slight vascularization in spots very limited in both eyes, about where the pericorneal vegetations existed; no itching. From that date, and during the hot months of 1917 the affection did not recur. I cured it in full summer with only two applications of X-rays.

Case 2. Child five years of age, from Lagos de Moreno (Jalisco), bulbar form of vernal catarrh; limbal inflammation toward the upper part, and pericorneal nodules in the part uncovered by the lids. Nothing in the tarsal conjunctiva. He consulted me in March, 1915. As the affection was recent, I thought that the case was a favorable one for the application of X-rays; and a five-minute exposure was made on each eye. After three or four days of incubation, the symptoms of radio-conjunctivitis appeared, but not very intense. They lasted ten days. They attenuated immediately, and then began the improvement of all symptoms of vernal catarrh; which disappeared completely in two months, in full

spring, after a single application of X-rays, and with only the aid of argyrol and the instillations of cocain-adrenalin.

The year 1916 passed well, but at the end of February, 1917, the patient was brought to me again with some tarsal conjunctivitis; slight thickening of the conjunctiva towards the external side of the horizontal diameter, in both eyes; a small nodule of exuberant perikeratitic conjunctivitis in the right eye. After new applications of X-rays, the phenomena of reaction were of small intensity during the first fifteen days. Then there was progressive improvement of the affection, until cure in full spring. He passed the summer well and continues well.

Case 3: Miss R. S. 20 years of age of Conguripo (Michoaean), a warm climate.

This is the same girl in whom developed keratoconus. Application of X-rays in May, 1916; reactionary phenomena intense, with mucous secretion, slight photophobia, marked hyperemia of the conjunctivas, and engorgement of the vegetations. With daily vaporizations with Laurenzo's apparatus and instillations of the cocain-adrenalin solution, the reaction disappeared in fifteen days, and the improvement began. Cessation of the itching, disappearance of the secretion and of the photophobia; marked lessening of the hyperemia and of the pericorneal vegetations. After a month, new application of the X-ray; less intense reactionary phenomena followed by marked improvement in spite of the hottest days in July. Unfortunately I have not seen the patient again, as she returned to the place of her residence, rather distant, and altho she wrote me that she continued being better, I cannot give any more details. The miotics and the compresses have been the remedies employed for the keratoconus.

Cases 4, 5 and 6: Three cases of the tarsal variety, without participation of the bulbar conjunctiva. Mr. A. H. 25 years of age of Oxetlan, Jalisco (temperate climate). Mrs. A. H. 30 years of age of Aguas Calientes, and Mrs. H. R. 23 years of age, of Aguas Calientes. These three suffered for years exclusively from the tarsal form of vernal catarrh, with very voluminous vegetations limited to the tarsus, without participation either of the transitional folds or of the bulbar conjunctiva. The itching in all was intense, and in none of them was there any secretion. They presented themselves during the hot months of the year. Each one underwent, with intervals of one month, two exposures—the lids being inverted—to the radiations of Roentgen. The reactionary phenomena were not intense and the improvement evident. The subjective symptoms of itching, and the volume of the tarsal exuberances notably diminished in full summer.

As a year has not yet passed, we can not consider the cure definite; but it is to be noted that none have heretofore felt such great improvement.

These observations, especially the first two, show that Oram Ring[11] was right in asserting that the X-rays have an evident therapeutic value in vernal catarrh.

III. *Very large recurrent vegetation which invaded the cornea and yielded to the X-rays.*

The exaggerated development of tarsal vegetations in exuberant conjunctivitis has been observed several times. I had the opportunity to observe in a young person, 16 years of age, a very interesting case, in which, besides the numerous small pavementlike vegetations, like the pavement of the street, existed in each upper lid, three or four vegetations of enormous development, up to ½ cm. long, and with a base of narrow implantation: I had to extirpate them for the inconvenience they caused the patient.

Another interesting case in a girl, 14 years of age, was presented by our distinguished oculist, Dr. Daniel Velez,[12] under the name giant papillomas of the tarsal conjunctiva in vernal catarrh. The histologic examination of one of these papillomas, made by Dr. M. Toussaint, showed the peripheral layer formed by a stratified pavement-like epithelium, with numerous swollen cells, some of these cells are vesicular

and among them there are migrating cells. The rest of the small tumor consists of a very vascular fasciculated tissue, and among large agglomerations of cells, some small ones, without much protoplasm and with nuclei rich in coloring matter, others are large with an abundance of protoplasm and consisting of two types: plasma cells of Unna and granular cells of Ehrlich. The histology of these tarsal vegetations is identical with that of the other lesions of vernal catarrh. In spite of my bibliographic investigation, I have not found a case similar to that which I am going to describe, as when the cornea has been invaded to some extent, no vegetation has taken an exaggerated development.

Case 7. The boy, age 13 years, of Aguas Calientes, was brought by his father to my office in April, 1911, in order to have a small tumor, developed in the left eye, attended to. The eye had been operated on three times; once in Aguas Calientes, by an oculist who visited the city, whose name he did not know; another time in San Luis Potosi, by the well known oculist Dr. Antonio Alonso, and the last time in Mexico, by the distinguished ophthalmologist Dr. Fernando Lopez, who applied the galvanocautery. In each case the tumor recurred in a few months, acquiring a large volume.

Examining the young boy I discovered what one observes in the oil painting which I took from nature, see plate VII. In the right eye is a bluish-white infiltration of the corneal limbus, toward the external part, a diffused, vascularized enlargement of the conjunctiva to a large extent around the limbus; and vegetations of the tarsal conjunctiva, separated by well marked furrows. The fornix and the inferior palpebral conjunctiva were normal. There was a slight mucous secretion. It is to be remembered that it was in the month of April—and there was a very accentuated itching.

In the left eye the tarsal manifestations were similar to those of the right eye. In the bulbar conjuctiva there existed, towards the internal angle a large diffused vegetation; and on the cornea another large hemispheric vegetation of the size of a split pea, of a reddish yellow color, and obstructing already almost half of the pupillary field. One could notice also in the cornea a whitish cicatrix, linear, vertical, almost tangent to the small tumor, a trace of the operation practiced in Mexico by means of the galvanocautery.

According to the father of the patient, the affection was of two or three years' standing, and was getting worse during the hot months of the year. The clinical diagnosis was unmistakable; it was a case of exuberant perikeratitic conjunctivitis in its tarsal and bulbar forms, and one of the vegetations had come to a considerable development, invading the cornea, and seriously affecting the vision.

The prognosis was not encouraging; the recurrence of the large corneal vegetation, in spite of the well known ability of the operators, left me doubtful, and obliged me to look for positive therapeutics to remedy the condition.

I proposed to the father of the patient, and he accepted, to make a fourth extirpation of the enormous corneal vegetation, in order to see if it were possible to avoid recurrences which were making the case desperate; and then we would apply X-rays.

This was done. During the operation the vascularization of the tumor was ascertained, and as the adhesion to the membrana propria of the cornea was very pronounced, it was necessary to leave a thin layer of the vegetation. A five-minute exposure to the Roentgen rays was made, exclusively localized to the left eye.

As the reactionary phenomena were not very marked, we continued exposing the eye during five minutes every fifteen days for two months, at the end of which time we suspended them, because the radiometer of Sabouraud had indicated the limit of absorption.

As the recurrence of the corneal vegetation was generally evident at the end of two months, and at this time it had not yet appeared, I began to hope that the recurrence would not again reappear. However, the father of the

patient and I, being watchful, did not let the boy go home for four months, with the injunction to present himself each month, for the application of other radiations. Effectively they were applied twice more. I have observed the patient for years. Since 1911 I have not lost sight of him, and in more than six years there has not only been no recurrence of the tumor, but all the conjunctival lesions have disappeared in the left eye, there remaining only an intense opacity of the cornea in the former site of the vegetations, and the vertical cicatrix of the galvanocautery.

A very interesting detail which converts this case into real proof of experimentation is: As the young boy and his father were afraid that the X-rays might have a bad effect on the retina—as some suggested to them—they wanted me to expose only the eye with the tumor, whose vision was already affected, and to not touch the right eye, which it was necessary to protect specially. The tarsal and bulbar lesions of this side did not improve equally with those of the other. They continued with the summer and spring exacerbations of bad to worse, and winter improvements. Submitted to cocain-adrenalin and argyrol, the tarsal and pericorneal lesions improved gradually, perhaps rather on account of the spontaneous tendency that the disease has to improve.

A final detail: The left eye now presents a mixed astigmatism, horizontal meridian +4 D., vertical meridian —1 D.

The visual acuity is R. = 1. L. without optical correction = 0.5.

For purposes of comparison I remember some twenty-five cases of exuberant perikeratitic conjunctivitis, not treated by X-rays; which followed the course that we all know, some lasting fourteen years, others disappearing at the end of 3, 4, or 8 years.

I now attend a little girl of Lagos de Moreno, aged 8 years, who for two years has been suffering from exuberant conjunctivitis, and each year, in the warm months, comes to me for attendance; her father has not permitted the application of X-rays; and the yellow oxid of mercury, vaporization cocain-adrenalin and argyrol, have on her a beneficial effect, but without curing her.

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VERNAL CONJUNCTIVITIS IN CUBA.

Dr. Juan Santos Fernandez.

HAVANA, CUBA.

Attention is here called to the unappreciated frequency of vernal conjunctivitis, and illustrative cases are given to prove its identity altho its course is modified by special climatic conditions.

The cases of spring catarrh seen in Cuba, like those of trachoma, do not always show the same typical signs of the disease as are seen elsewhere, and as they are not frequent, the diagnosis is not easy, and the disease can be mistaken for other conjunctival diseases including trachoma.

Most of the authors agree that this disease is rarely seen after the age of twenty, but the most typical case we have seen was in a woman of 40 years. The disease attacks by preference males. This we have verified here, but not its dependence on the climatic conditions that elsewhere seem to have such an influence that the disease is called by the name of vernal conjunctivitis. This can be explained by the fact that in Cuba we have summer almost all the time, with the exception of a few weeks of moderately cool (not cold), weather.

Both eyes are usually affected, and there are photophobia, itching, and catarrhal symptoms without mucus. The tarsal conjunctiva presents a whitish, milky, lardaceous aspect. The disease was mentioned by Arlt in 1846, and well described by him in 1851. He believed the transparent, gelatinous infiltration of the conjunctiva, near the limbus, to be a lymphatic manifestation. We remember that the same impression was made upon us when we saw our first case in Cuba; and we thought that with the growing up of the young patient the disease would disappear, but it was not so.

Saemisch gave to the disease the name of vernal conjunctivitis on account of its tendency to recur in the spring of the year; and to be almost well in the beginning of the cold weather. In Cuba, as we said, the disease is not modified in those months. The disease has been called in Mexico, exuberant circumcorneal conjunctivitis. The author that studied it there was Dr. Carmona Valle, and he found the chief symptoms in the bulbar conjunctiva.

The duration of the disease can not be stated, but Saemisch has seen 23 successive attacks in a case during one year. Most of the cases are soon persuaded of the benignity of the disease, and the long treatment wearies them, and they abstain from further treatment.

The frequency of the disease varies. Danvers at Parma had 50 cases among 22,398 patients; Schoebel, at Prague, had 23 cases in 20,000 patients; Schiess-Gemuseus, of Basle, had 14 cases among 28,338 patients; Emmert, of Berne, in 12,486 patients had 48 cases; Knus, from Zurich, in 33,609 patients, saw 64 cases, and Kubli, of Petrograd, among 20,690 patients, only 2 cases. In Cuba, in 61,000 patients we have seen only six cases of the disease.

According to the statistics, the most frequent month is May, but in our cases the months of January, February and April are more frequent. All our cases were from the city, and none from the country. We have not been able to prove any contagiousness, nor have we found any possible bacterial agent as the cause.

All the different treatments used to combat the various affections of the conjunctiva are without good results, when employed in this disease. Today the use of radium is recommended and it shall be employed in one of our cases, and we hope with good results.

We remember the discussion held in the Ophthalmological Section of the A. M. A. in May, 1903, by Drs. Posey, from Philadelphia; Weeks, from New

York; Gradle, from Chicago; Zentmayer, Baker, Woods, Stevenson, Stricker, Gifford, Claiborne, Randolph and others; and in spite of the different opinions, the impression was that there is no recognized etiology, and that all treatments were of no avail.

Three years previously, in March, 1901, Dr. Antonelli held the same doubts at the French Ophthalmological Society, concerning the symptoms, etiology and treatment.

As we have said before, the disease has been studied by Montaño, Velez, Chavez, Uribe-Troncoso, Toussaint and others, at a meeting of the Mexican Ophthalmological Society in July, 1904. At that time Dr. Toussaint showed his microscopic researches, which did not prove anything special, and only enforced the opinion that the disease is chiefly recognized by its physical signs; and did not show in Mexico, as in Cuba, a very regular course.

Case I.—A boy, six months old, was brought to us in February 8, 1904, because his mother thought that he had suffered an injury in his right eye with a toy. But it was not so, and his eyes were in a physiologic state. The boy was again brought into our office in September 17, 1906, with a small phlyctenule of the bulbar conjunctiva, and now we believe that it may have been the beginning of the vernal conjunctivitis that he has had later. We saw him for the third time in 1907, and this time he had a purulent discharge, but the laboratory findings did not show any germs, only leucocytes.

In April, 1910, the boy was seen again by us, because his eyes were red, and there were some small raised spots on the bulbar conjunctiva, of red color and asthenic appearance. We did not then think that they were symptoms of vernal conjunctivitis. But now that the case has been so diagnosed abroad, we believe that what we thought was incipient phlyctenular conjunctivitis, was in reality an outbreak of the spring catarrh, which is not very typical in warm countries.

In May, 1913, we took out a foreign body from his right eye and it was seen that the small lumps in the bulbar conjunctiva had disappeared. But there was still the asthenic congestion of the palpebral conjunctiva in both eyes.

The father brought me the boy on the 22nd of February, 1913, because the child had been taken out of school by the medical inspector, who thought that his son had trachoma. Three other boys had been brought to me from the same school and with the same statements; but the subject of this observation had conjunctivas with a different appearance from that of the others, the case not being one of trachoma. The parents wanted very much to have the boy operated. Altho not believing that surgical procedures would be of great advantage, I practiced a rolling of the everted lids. The case, as expected, did not improve.

In March 11, 1913, the conjunctivas presented the same aspect. Asthenopia corrected with 0.75 plus.

January 5, 1914. Eyes the same as before. Upon being asked to certify the condition I do so as follows: The fatty appearance of the conjunctiva is not due to trachoma, and will disappear on change of climate or when the boy grows up.

September, 1917.—On a visit to New York I found the boy there. The boy has since been seen by Dr. Weeks, who diagnosed the case as vernal conjunctivitis; or spring catarrh; and has recommended the use of radium, which in my belief will cure him.

Case II.—M. G. D., a young man, consulted me in April, 1912, and had been sick three months. The left eye is the one affected. The disease began with some red spots on the bulbar conjunctiva. The case looks like one of phlyctenules, but is not so. We made a diagnosis of vernal conjunctivitis and the patient left for his town, and wrote to us some time afterwards, stating that he was better.

Case III.—Mrs. J. G. R., 44 years old, and native of the Canary Islands, has been living 14 years in Cuba. Strange ocular appearance. The conjunctiva of the globe offered a phlyctenular and membranous appearance.

In the left eye there were corneal opacities, almost hiding the pupil.

The patient stated that she had been sick for over twenty years; the disease began at her birth place. The upper eyelids had a membranous character, and we made the diagnosis of vernal catarrh. After a month of treatment the patient left unimproved.

Case IV.—Boy, six years old (W. P. G.), was seen first on July 24, 1912, and came into consultation for a chalazion. After everting the lids, we noticed a fatty or lardaceous infiltration that might have been diagnosed as trachoma by the health officers. We saw him again in 1915 during a trip we made to New York, and he did not complain of his eyes then. On his coming to Havana in 1917, and upon being examined by the health authorities, he was detained and sentenced to be sent back to New York, because a diagnosis of trachoma had been made. The case was entirely similar to case I, diagnosed as spring conjunctivitis at New York. We were able to arrange things, stating that the case was certainly not one of trachoma, and taking charge of the patient. The boy, after 20 months treatment, has not gotten worse, but has certainly not improved greatly, in spite of the severe winter we have passed.

TRACHOMATOUS CHANGES OF THE CARUNCLE.

Kazuo Hiwatari, M. D.

KYOTO, JAPAN.

The histologic changes in the caruncle here reported seem to throw light upon the embryologic origin of this structure.

Altho trachomatous changes affect almost all the external parts of the eye, up to date no communication has been published of its appearance in the caruncle, as far as my knowledge of the literature is concerned. I therefore wish to report herewith such a case, which I was able also to investigate histologically.

The case concerned a woman, age 21 years, with light grade trachomatous scars of both eyes. At the examination I noticed at once that the caruncle of the left eye had been changed to a tumor the size of a rice grain of grayish yellow color. This tumor was extirpated, fixed and hardened in alcohol and cut in horizontal sections embedded in celloidin. As stain I used hematoxylin (Boehmer) — eosin, and Unna—Pappenheim's mixture.

It showed on careful investigation of the sections that the tumor consists of four lymph nodules lying closely together; each nodule is provided with a well developed but not sharply marked germinating center.

They contain also numerous, typical Leber's bodies, such as we always find in the trachoma follicle. About in the center of the tumor, i. e., between two neighboring follicles, we find a deep cone-shaped depression of the epithelium with narrow lumen, which shows the characteristics of a stratified pavement epithelium conforming to the normal structure of the epithelium of the caruncle. In the lumen of this depressed epithelium and between the epithelial cells, one observes many emigrated lymphocytes, histocytes as well as polynuclear leukocytes.

The epithelial covering of the tumor is largely stretched and thinned out, so that the underlying epithelial cells, which normally are high cylindrical, appear here more or less plainly flattened. The goblet-shaped cells which under normal conditions appear here

very often, are absent. Towards the plica semilunaris the subepithelial tissue, which was slightly scarred, is numerously impregnated with plasma cells, histocytes and lymphocytes, and passes without demarcation into the old scar of the plica.

Medially, i. e., towards the inner canthus, the subepithelial tissue appears thru the compression of the tumor more or less dense, without, however, showing a strong cellular infiltration (See ilustration, Fig. 1). Considering

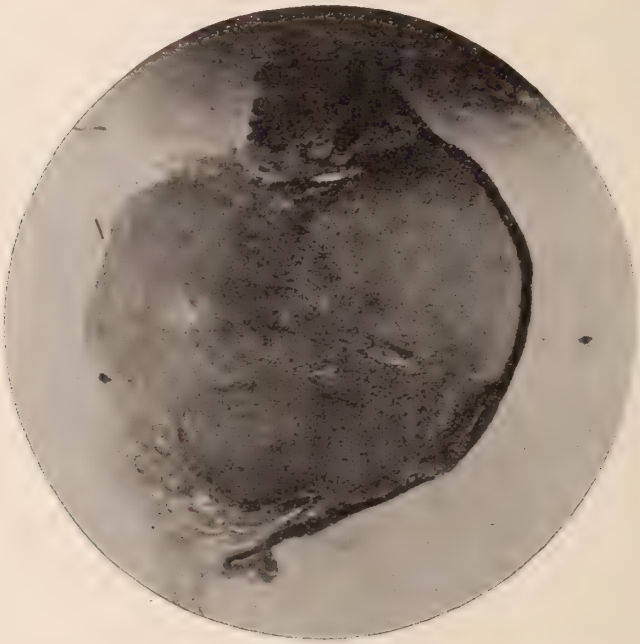


Fig. 1.—Section of caruncle showing trachomatous changes. (Hiwatari)

the above mentioned histologic findings one cannot doubt, that with the case in question we have a genuine trachomatous change of the caruncle. Thereby it is proven for the first time that the trachoma exists also in the caruncle.

Previously I was of the opinion[1] that the formation of the follicles in trachoma are closely connected with the physiologic-morphologic state of the subepithelial layer of the conjunctiva. The case in question appears by superficial consideration not to coincide with this opinion, as the caruncle resembles histologically mostly the structure of the external skin, as it contains sebaceous glands and hair follicles. Many authors, as for instance Waldeyer, Ciaccio, Cirincione, H. Virchow,[2] have, however, already pointed out correctly that the caruncle shows on the other hand the nature of the mucous membranes. One can find here normally mucous cells, disseminated lacrimal glands and diverse migrating cells of varying number. The embryologic examination of Ask[3] and Contino[4] has also proven that in the formation of the caruncle both the skin and conjunctiva are concerned. That trachomatous changes of the caruncle exist, as my case proves, is therefore not at all strange.

The plasmoma formation in the caruncle, mentioned by Pokrowsky,[5] is probably the trachomatous change, as he pointed it out himself as a kind of inflammatory granuloma.

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OPHTHALMIC PRACTICE OF TODAY AND ITS BEARING ON UNDERGRADUATE OPHTHALMIC TEACHING

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This paper was prepared for the Section on Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat of the Southern Medical Association to be read at its twelfth annual meeting, which was postponed on account of the influenza epidemic. It indicates some of the subjects that must be covered in such teaching, and various points in which ophthalmic practice and teaching diverge from general medicine and surgery, with the errors into which the uninstructed practitioner is liable to fall.

It seems trite to say that ophthalmology should be taught as modern medicine regulates, or should regulate, its practice. But when one analyzes ophthalmology to formulate rules for its teaching, based on modern practice, triteness gives place to a problem of no mean dimensions.

The study of eye anatomy involves nonvascular tissue, its complicated nutrition and drainage. The blood vessels are divided into three distinct groups, practically independent, yet by anastomoses sometimes producing problems in diagnosis.

Eye muscles have peculiar insertions and innervations. All these make up a special anatomy which must be mastered. Ocular physiology introduces optics, vastly important from both the physical and physiologic sides. The muscles must work in harmony with visual adjustment. When ametropia is introduced, harmony is disarranged. Sometimes Nature regulates this perverted physiology; sometimes she fails and we must help. It is not always simple.

Again, there are functional eye defects produced by extraocular influences. Irritation of accommodation may result from causes which in another patient, would produce visible eye lesions. Diabetics frequently suffer from such changes in their refraction. So do the innocent victims of hereditary syphilis. Asthenopia, accompanied by circumcorneal injection, without visible cause, especially in school children, is sometimes the forerunner of uveal disturbance. Refraction error may be absent or variable and glasses do not help. It is often hard to get reliable cycloplegia. Systemic study is as important as if a corneal infiltration were present. There is a medical side of refraction by no means negligible.

Again, consider for a moment the causation of eye diseases. Besides local infection, three causes have long been accepted: syphilis, tuberculosis and rheumatism. Idiopathy has answered the purpose when no one of these has been proven. Beyond gummatous iritis (with a question mark) interstitial keratitis, there is practically no eye lesion solely characteristic of luetic infection. No oculist today should accept a luetic origin in even these diseases or macular choroiditis without other clinical proof or positive Wassermann.

Ocular tuberculosis presents some striking features. It is rarely associated with pulmonary tuberculosis. Keratitis is not infrequent with glandular infection, while the most serious of tuberculous infections, choroiditis, is

often a local process, unassociated with general infection. Diagnosis depends upon tuberculin reaction in the eye: socalled focal reaction. This may be a serious matter. Vaccine diagnosis and treatment can be too glibly handled and one should associate with him in such cases a confrere who understands it.

Finally, "rheumatism" is now hardly a pathologic entity. The form in which it occurs with, or as a cause of, eye trouble is not acute rheumatic arthritis; for it is rare with this affliction; but, in what we still term chronic rheumatism, eye complications are abundant enough. So we must ask what this disease is. So far as I can make out, in modern medical practice, it is considered a result of an infection focus somewhere in the organism. That focus must be hunted down. This is very different from accepting a rheumatic diagnosis because there are muscle pains and we can not explain them. It is equally illogical to rely upon salines, alkalies, salicylates or potassium iodid as remedies when we do not know the underlying cause. However, sometimes we are driven back there because either our search is fruitless or, for one reason or another, the focus can not be removed. As to "idiopathy," the tonsils, sinuses, teeth, intestines, gallbladder, have greatly reduced the number of such cases.

Thus far I have tried to outline briefly some of the essential requirements of ophthalmic practice from two points of view: refraction, which makes up probably three-fourths of our work, and causation of the commoner eye diseases. The oculist's work has alone been considered. Refraction, with its side problems, is his business; so is the etiology of eye lesions. For years we have hammered away at the general practitioner with arguments and urgings to look out for the dangers of ophthalmia neonatorum and to make more use of the eye in general diagnosis. Quite a number have responded and are themselves fair opthalmoscopists. But they soon find they are in the most difficult part of ophthalmoscopy and they have the right to call upon us for help; help not only in seeing changes which might escape them, but in interpreting them. Rigid and unequal pupils, tortuous vessels, increase or diminution in caliber of veins or arteries, retinal edema, exudates, hemorrhages, blurring of neuro-retinal margin, neuritis, old or recent lesion: these are some of the things about which the physician wants to know. Modern ophthalmology puts it up to the oculist to inform him. Mere statements of lesions do not fulfill his needs. Here comes in a most important procedure—perimetry. Thread-like vessels, for instance, may not be abnormal. They are one thing when the field is normal; another when there is concentric contraction for form and colors, especially if contraction advances. Enlargement of the normal scotoma, or scotomata anywhere in the field, are important.

Ocular surgery demands knowledge of, first: the technic of special operations; second, general surgical principles and antisepsis; third, modifications of these demanded by the environment and characteristics of eye tissue. Because of the situation and sensitiveness of the eye, it is impossible to get an aseptic field or to use all the requirements of clean surgery. Recently in my clinic, after a cataract operation, I spoke of the use of iodin tincture in dendritic keratitis. A student asked me why I had not painted the cornea with iodin in the cataract operation. He had seen the skin so sterilized in abdominal surgery and the question was natural. He needed light on special aseptic modifications. It is not my purpose to discuss fully these or other essentials. I am stating only what is commonly known and am doing it for the purpose of definition.

If the practice of ophthalmology requires what I have outlined, how should it be taught? I have been led to write this paper by my experience of three years on the American Board of Ophthalmic Examiners. It has been my fortune to be associated with colleagues who not only realize for themselves the extent of ophthalmology, but want to see education standardized. In the July (1918) number of the *American*

Journal of Ophthalmology, Dr. Edward Jackson, Chairman of the Board, published a most illuminating paper under the title "Defects in Education for Ophthalmic Practice." He concludes, as any one must who knows the state of undergraduate medical teaching, that this work must be largely post-graduate; but the subject of under-graduate teaching is of no less importance.

Let me give one or two examples of the practical results of its defects. In one of my examinations we had a patient with a beautiful simple extraction in one eye and in the other a mature cataract. I asked the candidate to go through the examination of the cataractous eye and tell me whether it would be worth while to operate. He answered (very sensibly as far as he went) that with normal vision in one eye, operation upon the other might not be of much use, but that if dilatation of the pupil showed the cataract was ripe it could be removed. I then asked him to throw out of consideration the operated eye and to determine whether or not there was essential probability of extraction improving vision in the other. His reply was that he could not tell until he removed the ripe cataract. "What g o o d would it do," I asked, "to remove the cataract if the retina or nerve were out of commission?" His reply was, "None, but I can not tell their condition through an opaque lens. I can not see them." That man had been in practice nearly ten years. Had I asked him about light perception, light projection, pupillary reaction, *per se,* he doubtless would have answered correctly; but when it came to applying these physiologic facts to eye surgery, he apparently had never thought of it. In another examination a man who had a good many years of practice told me that he had never had time to take fields because he was too busy with refraction work and ordinary diseases. I asked him how he would make a diagnosis of toxic amblyopia. His naive reply was, "By the history and failure to improve vision with glasses."

Young men are not to be blamed for this. Those of us who hope we have trained ourselves to a higher level of thought, thrashed through the same things until self-dissatisfaction drove us to something better. They and we were taught in our under-graduate life along certain lines. This was followed by the selection of ophthalmology as a specialty. Selection was based upon conceptions which resulted from former teaching. If the latter was faulty, we reasoned on a wrong basis. Early impressions last, and it needs a good deal of determination or hard knocks to throw them off. Maybe, after graduation, dispensary or hospital service was obtained or a brief post-graduate course taken in some clinic, where, as Jackson says, there were ample opportunities for observation of which we could not take full advantage because of our former defective training.

On account of the magnitude of ophthalmology and the impossibility of teaching it adequately in undergraduate life, we have reduced our undergraduate teaching to what we term essentials. In this we have been guilty of two blunders—first, over-specialism; and second, over-simplicity. The former has tended to divorce ophthalmology, at least in the thoughts of the students, from general medicine. The second has failed to train them in the application of pathologic principles to ocular defects. As an example of over-specialism, I want to give an observation of a good many years ago. I visited the clinic of one of our then leading ophthalmic teachers. The chief brought in a patient, a tall spare man in his thirties, who had the stare and gait of the victim of recent nerve atrophy. He had a little vision left. The Professor called attention to the stare, to the dilated pupils and ventured the prophecy that on examination he would find nerve atrophy. So, indeed, he did and reported the fact to the students, none of whom were invited to use the ophthalmoscope. The Chief of the Clinic then whispered something to the Professor and, failing to get a satisfactory reply, repeated what he had said. Then came the reply out

loud: "I don't care if there is a history of syphilis in any stage; the man has nerve atrophy. Bring in the next patient."

The Clinic over, the Chief asked me to stay and go with him to the Dispensary. There was our patient and the Doctor pointed out ataxic gait, lost patellar reflex, etc. Even at that time—in the 1880's—the relation between early nerve atrophy and tabes was well known. All that side of an instructive case, however, was wasted so far as the students were concerned; no cause was given for the atrophy, no outline of investigation suggested by ocular conditions, and the one lesson the youngsters got was the wonderful professional acumen which enabled the lecturer to prophesy nerve atrophy. Only the eye lesion was discussed. If this justly distinguished teacher can be properly criticised for an over-specialized viewpoint thirty odd years ago —as, I think, he can—how much greater the sin of teachers of today who fall into the same erroneous method! Not all cases of nerve atrophy show so clear an explanation as did this. Often from the clinical point of view there is no cause. But what is the duty of the oculist? Blindness is bad enough, but there are conditions which may be added to blindness that can make suffering infinitely worse. The laboratory man, internist and neurologist should take up the study of possibly impending paresis or multiple sclerosis. The oculist should see this started, at least. Treatment, already too long delayed, might avert worse consequences.

Undergraduates should see a close relation between ophthalmology and all departments of medicine. The very presence of optics, with its essential physical, apart from physiologic, problems, has contributed to loose thinking. The optometrist has not been slow to take advantage of this and to spread a propaganda which has, so to speak, taken in a good many practitioners. Having graduated with vague, indefinite ideas of ophthalmology, a physician thinks of the eyes as a cause of headache, for instance. Relying on his own judgment, he wants "the eyes excluded first." He sends the patient to an optometrist, where some seeming refraction error may be corrected, or, at least, made an excuse for selling a pair of lenses. The patient is satisfied that he has done all demanded along that line, the busy doctor forgets or waits for results from glasses before a clinical study. There often result wasted time and unnecessary suffering if nothing worse. Whose fault is it that the doctor going into general practice from the student bench has this false idea of a part of medicine which touches every other part? Whose but the man who taught him? Had proper insistence been laid upon ametropia as one of many possible causes of headache, and emphasis, on differential diagnosis, two results would have followed: the man who afterward became an internist would have become a better diagnostician, and the one who selected a specialty a better doctor. The former would have realized the essential medical nature of the case. Over-specialism did the mischief to both men. Both started with the wrong viewpoint.

I mentioned over-simplicity as another error in undergraduate teaching. Essentially, as Jackson, my lamented friend Wendell Reber and others have insisted, ophthalmology, to be learned thoroly, must be p o s t - g r a d u a t e standardized work; but that does not relieve the undergraduate teachers of responsibility for giving the future specialist proper data on which to base his life work decision, and the future physician a right conception of the relation of the eye to general medicine. With the mixed class and fear of teaching over the heads of most of them, there has come a simplicity of teaching that has made our work little more than presentation of isolated facts. If not linked with pathologic principles, these facts form a wrong basis of thought—unless thinking is put aside entirely—for the man contemplating ophthalmology. They make him look on the specialty as something requiring little medicine. The student who

goes into general medicine forgets them altogether. Neither man will be thus deceived if the ophthalmic teacher realizes that at his clinic and didactic lecture, and in prescribing reading, he has an opportunity of pushing home lessons in general medicine. This might be illustrated from numerous points. Let me take but one—corneal ulceration. Mention has been made of our efforts to prevent the sacrifice of babies' eyes. Integrity of the corneal epithelium is essential if the eyes are to withstand the inroads of infection. Two lessons at once follow: first, the necessity of gentle manipulation in cleaning, together with the danger of an untrained hand introducing a cotton-armed applicator beneath the lids; and secondly, the routine use of cocain to relieve pain following the nitrat of silver drop. If told "why" not only is the fact impressed, but lessons in the function of epithelial tissue are sent home. Or, take the course of an ordinary corneal ulcer from infection to healing. If we make the student understand that injury to sight depends upon density and situation of the nebula or leucoma, we have accomplished something. If we stop there we have done nothing of permanent value. Circumcorneal injection follows the infection. Why? Here are opened pathways for teaching the general behavior of vascular tissue adjoining and nourishing nonvascular structures when something goes wrong with the latter. Atropia usually benefits corneal ulceration, prevents complications and relieves pain. Why? Hyperemia, through anastomosis, congestion and exudates come to our minds. Tell him atropia is used to prevent secondary iritis and he will forget it. Show him why, and he will remember and learn something else besides. A number of years ago I accidentally used the expression "putting a therapeutic ligature on the iridic vessels." If one man has told me that this started him on valuable thinking, a score have.

Cocain as a routine analgesic is positively harmful in corneal ulceration. Go farther; show the function of corneal epithelium in the healing of an ulcer, make clear that the appearance of vessels, shooting their noses from the conjunctiva over the cornea is a harbinger of better things, explain the necessity for these steps toward health and then compare the action of cocain on both epithelium and vessels with what we want, and you have accomplished several things. You have taught ophthalmology and have also linked it with general pathology. You have inseparably connected eye troubles with the basis of all good medical thinking. You can go further, if you choose; you can compare the action of holocain on the vessels and its sparing of the corneal epithelium with cocain. You can show why heat usually helps healing; also, why it may be harmful if the ulcer is associated with purulent ophthalmia; why cold, used for the latter, may do harm to the ulcer. I give this merely as an example of what I mean by linking up general medicine with undergraduate teaching of ophthalmology.

One can think of many other examples. Hypopyon, if presented as a complication of dangerous ulcers, will make no lasting impression; but if explained as an example of the formation of germ-free pus cells in the neighborhood of infection, and that for that very reason it seldom calls for surgical interference, the whole line of thought is changed. It teaches pathology. One could illustrate this by examples taken from lid, uveal, retinal or nerve diseases; but it seems unnecessary to do so.

What I want to make clear is this: the experience of the Examining Board has shown a general lack of appreciation of this method of teaching. There have been conspicuous exceptions. Some teachers are awake to facts; but, many, judging from what we have seen, are following the old course of over-specializing on the one hand and reducing ophthalmic teaching to little more than presentation of facts on the other. It is unfair to students and to the public they will have to serve.

The Board's work of standardizing ophthalmic teaching was necessarily interrupted by the war. When reundertaken, it will, of necessity, chiefly concern postgraduate work. It will en-

deavor to influence undergraduate instruction to the extent of urging teachers to give men a proper basis of thought. Without it, the first task of men entering ophthalmology will be to unlearn a great deal they think they know. So to present ophthalmology to the undergraduate as to impress the man destined for general practice with the truth that this specialty touches general medicine everywhere and that he must include it in his thinking, and to show the future ophthalmologist that in selecting ophthalmology he is not leaving general medicine behind but is merely selecting one branch of practice to which he must apply the principles of general medicine—this is the real problem. How can it be better solved than by founding special teaching on general pathology? If it means more work for the teacher, he must accept it. He should have smear preparations made in his clinic. If he reviews iritis from its clinical side at one clinic, he should give the laboratory findings at the next—Wassermann and tuberculin tests. If an eye muscle is paralyzed the neurologist should take the case for further study and report. But it is useless to pile up illustrations.

Our young men will soon be coming home from across the sea. They have had an environment in which exclusiveness, frills and academic ideas have had to take a back seat. They have had to put up with lack of advantages, right at hand at home, and have accomplished almost wonders. They will bring with them not only new methods and new thoughts, but, if I do not wrongly interpret what some of them have written me, will teach us that a lot of things we hold as almost sacred are unessential, superficial or cumbersome. Their thinking has had to be done on their feet, and it has gone back, with the best of them, to simple pathology. I mean thinking on pathologic principles. One of them wrote me recently that he was profoundly grateful every day for the "fine print in Fuchs." And this fine print is mostly an expression of physiology and pathology in ophthalmic terms.

TRAINING FOR OPHTHALMIC PRACTICE

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This paper indicates what the doctor needs to study in preparation for ophthalmic practice and how he may begin his studies. Read before the Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmic Society, at Salt Lake City, August 13th, 1918.

It is certain that in the near future systematic training for ophthalmic practice will largely replace the unguided, unadvised, independent working into ophthalmology that has been common in the past. There is no more essential justification of this old plan as a preparation for ophthalmic practice, than there is for the same way of getting into the practice of medicine, which was the common way until a half century ago. There can be no doubt that systematic training, with adequate laboratory facilities and instruction, will give results as much superior to those attained by unsystematic, unsupervised, uninformed, irregular study, in ophthalmology, as it has in the field of general medicine.

But this is a formative period for training in ophthalmology. To shape a curriculum wisely, we need the best light that can be thrown on the subject from our individual experiences; not only the conclusions of teachers, but also the impressions of those who look back only upon their own individual difficulties and mistakes. The fact that our methods and means for study have varied so widely—have been so individual—can be helpful in planning for better ways of reaching

a more perfect result. It would be something worth while for every ophthalmologist to state briefly what has been most helpful to him in his preparation for ophthalmic practice, and what he has found to be the obstacles most difficult to overcome. All who may read this paper should write out and publish their important educational experiences.

To begin with some of my own: I was one of the very few students in the class of 1878 at the University of Pennsylvania who regularly attended the clinical lectures of Professor Norris and the special courses of Drs. S. D. Risley and E. O. Shakespeare on ophthalmology, or who got an ophthalmoscope when he graduated. But I had been in practice a year, and older colleagues were referring eye cases to me, before I ever read or heard the word glaucoma. Clinical courses are essentially not systematic, and Drs. Risley and Shakespeare only undertook to teach certain special departments of ophthalmology.

The undergraduate student of today is better taught. But until graduate teaching is also made systematic there will be such glaring deficiencies in our training for ophthalmic practice. We must have a curriculum that will cover the whole subject, so that even the man who has not covered it completely may have a chance to know wherein he is deficient.

Systematic training must begin with the fundamental branches. This is not furnished to a sufficient extent in any medical undergraduate course. In the study of the special anatomy of the eye, or physiologic optics, the need of the general medical student here dominates. When one plans to take up the special line of ophthalmic practice, he should study these subjects over again; and with much more minuteness and thoroness. Much of the anatomy is to be studied with the microscope; and with the ophthalmoscope, which is in effect a low power microscope.

Physiologic optics should be studied largely by experiments. There should be laboratory courses, best taken with adequate apparatus and under supervision. The practitioner who is shifting from general to special practice may be able to fix up the needed apparatus at no great expense, but he will miss the supervision. It would be a real gain if young men could be induced to take these courses before getting tied down in special practice. It is certainly as well worth while to leave home for them as for the clinical courses that are so generally taken.

As to ocular anatomy we have all of us started on right lines, only we have not gone far enough. The plan of study pursued in the undergraduate course on anatomy is good; but to furnish a sufficient basis for ophthalmic surgery it must be carried to minute detail. We must deal with millimeters, not with inches. We must know how far back from the corneal margin is the attachment of the internus, how wide it is; how deep is the anterior chamber, how much of its angle is concealed by the overlapping sclera. Minute topographic anatomy is important; and dissecting, here running into microscopy, is essential.

Three lines of work must be followed: Study of the dead human eye, carried over into study of all adjoining and related parts; study of the histology of the eye, carried on by means of the eyes of lower animals obtained immediately after death, and supplemented by the study of enucleated human eyes, and those of stillborn children; and study of the living human eye with the magnifier or corneal microscope, and the ophthalmoscope. This is the branch of fundamental study fitting for ophthalmic practice that the student is usually best prepared to carry on alone, or with such help as careful reading can afford.

My own preparation to take up work on the refraction and accommodation of the eye was rather fortunate. I had studied engineering before studying medicine; and with college physics had a good deal of mathematic optics. But such preparation is accidental and exceptional. The lack of it has been felt by many ophthalmologists and strikingly manifested by some who did not feel it. In the Transactions of the

American Ophthalmological Society a former member expressed the view that an oblique position of the retina could cause regular astigmatism. Two other members indulged in a controversy as to who should have credit for priority in using two cylinders with axes crossing at an oblique angle; both in complete ignorance of the fact, that the optical effect of such a combination could be better obtained by use of one cylinder, of appropriate strength and direction, with the proper spherical lens.

When the late John Green, a graduate of Harvard, was nearly 60 years old, had been a member for twenty-five years of the American Opthalmogical Society and was a recognized authority in ophthalmology, he became so conscious of the deficiencies of his training in mathematic optics that he went to a colleague in the Faculty of Washington University, and got him to lay out for him a course in mathematics. Dr. Green studied this course, and afterwards published some of the most advanced and valuable papers on mathematic optics that have appeared in this country. That plane trigonometry is not required as a preliminary to the medical course, does not do away with the necessity for a knowledge of it, to understand clearly the first laws of refraction, or lessen the handicap that ignorance of it always proves in studying physiologic optics.

As to the pathologic anatomy and histology of the eye, the great mass of ophthalmologists fall into one of two classes; those who know they are deficient in this branch, and those who have never thought deeply or studied their cases thoroly enough to find this out. Of course, there are many sub-classes, as: Those who keep struggling along and trying to learn what they can; those who conclude they are too old or too busy to study a new branch; those who believe that an examination of their specimens by a general pathologist is all that is necessary, missing the great ocular significance of the different varieties of cells composing infiltrates, and taking some one's ipse dixit that the case is one of sarcoma, when the diagnosis may be as obscure or as doubtful as one regarding the etiology of iritis; and the class that doesn't believe pathology would help them prescribe glasses, or extract a cataract or collect more money, or do any of the other things that their hearts are chiefly set upon.

I graduated in the last class that went out from the University of Pennsylvania without having to spend a day in a histologic or pathologic laboratory. The shadow of coming events in the new curriculum set me to working with a microscope during the days of waiting for practice. The first sarcoma I studied came from the orbit of a cow, the first fresh eyes from cats and a puppy. Yet, urged on by a sense of lacking something that I should have had, and working with fair enthusiasm, I still feel that I have missed much of the educational value of my cases; because I never had any *systematic* training in ocular pathology, or the guidance and suggestion of one who had been over the ground before me, or had made himself a master in this branch. I still hope to know more than I yet do of this subject, but the years in which such knowledge would have been of the highest value are gone. Let us give those that come after us a better chance.

It is not meant that we should all, or most of us, become expert technicians, or dispense with the aid of the men and women who make pathology their specialty. But each of us should be able to sit down with a good well-stained section, and see what is there, and appreciate its significance. We will never be masters of ophthalmology until we can do it.

The young men trained in the last few years in general pathology, as it is now taught in the best medical schools, have a broad foundation on which individual study can erect a good working knowledge of ocular pathology. But they probably more than anyone else, will appreciate the value and importance of a systematic course under skilled guidance.

Of the study of clinical and operative ophthalmology, little need be said.

No one who has had thoro training in the fundamentals of ocular anatomy, pathology and physiologic optics is likely to neglect them. Students untrained in the fundamentals leave home and eagerly crowd into large clinics for six weeks' courses; from which they can get but half the benefit that they would derive therefrom after better preparation. They pay willingly for the chance to learn the technic of operations, they are not yet prepared to advise, with benefit either to their patients, or to their own professional reputations. When they come to clinical opportunities properly trained to understand and appreciate them, there can be little doubt that they will fully profit by them.

In view of his real needs, and of the actual opportunities for instruction that are offered in America at the present time, what can we advise the student who desires to fit himself for ophthalmic practice? Assuming that he has had a good postgraduate year of hospital work in general medicine or surgery, my answer would be something like this: Begin by going thoroly over the teaching regarding the eye and its related parts as given in the larger books on anatomy, including dissection on the cadaver if possible; and with reference of each structure to the principal landmarks of the skull and of the living head. Supplement this by careful dissections of the eyes of the puppy and kitten, and histologic studies of such eyes, made on material properly fixed, cut and stained.

In addition get into the habit of making careful observations of the anatomic variations in the eye and its adnexa in different patients, as the colors and structure of the iris, size of lids and palpebral opening, prominence of eyeball, abundance and characters of the lashes, position of the lacrimal puncta, distribution of the conjunctival vessels, and the orifices and bodies of the Meibomian glands. Learn to draw all the structures and appearances studied as a means of cultivating the power of exact observation; and compare such drawings with the figures found in the different books.

Finally study with the ophthalmoscope the anatomy of the normal eye ground, comparing what is seen with the account of this anatomy given in Loring's Textbook, Volume I, Lindsay Johnson's Atlas, or Adam's Ophthalmoscopic Diagnosis. Compare the different representations of variations in the normal fundus with the discussion of their anatomic basis and significance.

Such a systematic course in the anatomy of the eye is suggested to be carried on by the student himself, with such help as may be obtained by consultation with any well-trained ophthalmologist. It is not in any institution. But parts of it and opportunities for laboratory work are given in many institutions; and any of these will be helpful if the student does not overlook the points in which they fail to come up to the complete course.

Next after the course in anatomy, and over-lapping it if time is available, may come the work in physiologic optics. The trigonometry needed and the physical and geometric optics may well precede the anatomic studies. Trigonometry can be studied with any teacher of high school or college mathematics. Even if it has been studied before, a review of it will save more than the time required when it comes to the study of foci, nodal points, size of images, etc.

Physical optics should be studied with experiments. If a properly equipped physical laboratory is available, the best work can be done in it. But for the larger number who cannot enjoy its aids, much may be done with simple apparatus. A convex and a concave lens, a prism, a cylindric lens, a source of light that approximates a point, a screen of cardboard to receive the image and a graduated scale to measure distances are the essentials. These should be always at hand to reproduce the proposition stated in the book, to actually visualize and render clear what would otherwise receive only a perfunctory assent and an uncertain place in the memory.

With the needed apparatus read Hartridge, Chapters I to V, or the

corresponding chapters in the larger textbooks, as in de Schweinitz, Chapter I; Weeks, Chapter III; or Fuchs, Part III, as translated by Duane. The writer is disposed to recommend his own chapter in Volume I of the System of Norris and Oliver, because it gives the important facts of refraction, without recourse to algebraic formulas, which always present great difficulties to the student who is not habitually working with them. There are many other excellent accounts of this subject. The essential thing is to read one of them carefully, and to test every statement possible by an appropriate experiment.

After physical optics has become familiar, the actual clinical work of measuring ametropia may begin. Here more than anywhere else the thoro working out of single cases is of the highest educational value. It is better for the young refractionist to take a week of his office hours to work out one case thoroly than to give an approximate correction in twenty cases from the same number of hours of study. With practice, speed in such work will gradually be acquired; but unless the habit of thoroness is thus established this first essential for success in the prescribing of glasses will never be attained.

Whatever views may be held as to the need of cycloplegia in the measurement of refraction it is certain that the beginner should study many cases, both during and after cycloplegia. If he has done this he can form his own judgment with regard to cycloplegics. If he works only without cycloplegia he will never get the exact understanding of this branch of ophthalmology that everyone who engages in ophthalmic practice ought to have. In regard to disorders of ocular movements also: The same thoroness of early studies, both the fundamental and physiologic aspects of these movements, and the minute investigation of individual cases are required.

The greater part of clinical ophthalmology is diagnosis. It is diagnosis that requires time and thought. It is diagnosis that furnishes the foundation for therapeutic success; and in every department it demands thoroness. The ophthalmoscopist must use both the direct and inverted image. If he neglects the former he will never see the fine fundus changes that are so important in general medicine. If he ignores the latter he will fail to see the fundus in some cases in which it is his duty to recognize changes that exist there. If he knows but one way of measuring the muscle balance, or taking the field of vision, he is not well trained for ophthalmic practice.

With regard to the therapeutics of ocular conditions. Breadth of view and exactness of application are needed. But failure in this direction is far more frequently due to lack of training in the theory and diagnosis of ocular diseases, than to neglect of actual applications of curative drugs and operations. Skill in treatment grows gradually with experience thru years of practice. The best the beginner can do toward attaining it is to lay solid foundations of anatomy, physiology, pathology, physics and chemistry on which a wise application of therapeutic agencies must always depend.

To summarize: The beginner in ophthalmic practice should realize that he is a beginner. Specialization in his work can only be justified by special knowledge which as a student of general medicine, or a general practitioner he did not possess.

This special knowledge should be gained in a certain natural order; beginning with elementary studies of which he is generally quite as ignorant as he is of desired refinements of diagnosis and therapeutic skill. These elementary studies should be taken seriously; attacked first and pursued with all the thoroness of which he is capable.

After they are mastered he is ready to begin with profit, where it has been too common to start in the past, to make a broad clinical acquaintance with ocular defects and diseases.

CAUSES OF HETEROCHROMIA IRIDIS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PARALYSIS OF THE CERVICAL SYMPATHETIC.

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This abstract of a candidate's thesis presented for membership in the American Ophthalmological Society, includes the reports of cases, a general review of the literature of the subject, the results of experiments, and histologic observations on the effect of extirpation of the cervical sympathetic in the rabbit, the conclusions reached from the investigation, and a bibliography.

That curious condition which consists in a difference in the pigmentation of the two eyes, is regarded by the casual observer as a play or caprice of nature. This phenomenon has for centuries been noted, and was called *heteroglaucus* by Aristotle[1]. One who seriously studies the subject, is at once impressed with the complexity of the situation, and soon learns that nature plays a comparatively small part in its causation. It is however only within a comparatively recent time that the pathologic aspect has been considered, and in this discussion I especially wish to draw attention to that part played by the cervical sympathetic.

Many writers have given Hutchinson[2] (1869) credit for first describing a difference in the color of the irides, with which cataract was associated. I by chance discovered that Lawrence[3] (1853) described irregularities in the color of the iris and cited two cases; in one of slowly changing color, and another of changed color of the iris with cataract. He also quoted Wilde[4] who mentioned the fact that heredity plays an important part in many of these abnormalities.

NOMENCLATURE

Various terms have been applied for this inequality in the color of the irides, such as *heteroglaucus* of the ancients; Weill[5] uses the word *heterophthalmus; anisoiridochromia* is mentioned by Scalinci[6] and *chromoheteropia* is suggested by Malgat[7], who also thinks that the word heterochromia should apply to those cases in which parts of the same iris have different colors. In those cases where a cyclitis accompanies the iris decoloration, Butler[8] uses the term "heterochromic cyclitis," but the "Chronic Cyclitis with Decoloration of the Iris" as described by Fuchs[9] undoubtedly gives a more accurate description of the disease, notwithstanding its long title. The commonly accepted and most universally used term *Heterochromia Iridis* exactly expresses and implies the picture from its derivation (*ξτεροσ other, χρωμα*) color. Other newly coined words only add disorder to an already chaotic classification of diseases.

Dr. Willis H. Bocock, my friend and former professor of Greek at the University of Georgia, has suggested the word irideterochromia. "The *o* (as in iridoplegia) is not used in composition before a vowel; therefore *irid* in the word above. *Hetero* (as in heterochromia) loses the *h* in composition, therefore *irideterochromia.*"

While it would be advantageous to have the meaning so expressed in one word, its derivation would not be as obvious as the term heterochromia iridis, unless the reader possessed a working knowledge of Greek.

CLASSIFICATION

Any exact classification of this condition is almost an impossible task, and mindful of its limitations I venture to

submit the following as a working basis of study:

Primary..	Congenital	With or without	Heredity.	
			Sympathetic paralysis.	
			Cyclitis and cataract.	
	Acquired..	With or without	Sympathetic paralysis.	
			Cyclitis or cataract.	
Secondary.	.....		Injuries. Siderosis bulbi.	
			Uveal infection—Myopia.	
			Glaucoma.	

Strictly speaking, as Sym[10] has pointed out, there could be no such thing as a congenital form of heterochromia iridis, since it is about the twelfth or sixteenth month that the child's iris ceases to be light and takes on color. Brown pigment has however been noted to appear on the iris as early as six months.

I am not in accord with Sym and Scalinci who maintained that we should reserve the term heterochromia iridis for the instances in which there has not been any obvious pathologic process in the eye, such as glaucoma or iridocyclitis. The term expresses the condition regardless of the cause. I have recently seen a case in which there was a decoloration of the iris in an adult negro, who at first glance presented evidences of a sympathetic paralysis, namely a smaller pupil and a narrower palpebral aperture than[10] the opposite eye. The case proved to be the result of an injury received during childhood, and the presence of a foreign body in the choroid could be demonstrated. The ptosis was traumatic, the myosis was due to posterior adhesions, and the iris decoloration was probably a siderosis bulbi, or caused from a low grade iridocyclitis. I can see no objection to classifying this as one of heterochromia of the iris, of secondary origin due to an old injury (foreign body with uveitis).

HEREDITY

Heredity as a cause for heterochromia iridis, has not received the same consideration from modern writers as from those of a generation ago. I am firmly convinced that there are many such congenital cases without sign of development of a pathologic lesion. And one reason why more cases are not so classified is that the observer, indifferent to the causes of heredity, does not stress its influence, and also that too few of our patients (clinical patients especially) know enough of their ancestry.

The history of cases I and II from the same family (more fully described under the heading of symphthetic paralysis) where the paralysis and lighter iris were all on the same side, in a manner substantiates the fact that heredity does play an important part. If the paralysis was the cause for the iris decoloration it would be proper to consider it as *the disorder* inherited.

Galezowski[11], Bistis[12] and Scalinci[6] report cases of sympathetic paralysis, where one or more children in a family had iris decolorations which were inherited. But we should bear in mind Priestley Smith's[13] words that "heredity is not in any real sense a cause. It may account for the presence of a disorder in an individual or family, but it tells us nothing as to its origin. In some former generation there must have been a first departure from the normal."

Osborne[14] as early as 1849, drew attention to the difference in color of the irides of a person (that is they were irregularly marked), who had fifteen brothers and five sisters who all possessed the same abnormality which was derived from the mother, whose three sisters and one brother had the same which were again derived from the mother's side. Gunn[15] mentions similar cases and classifies them as "piebald iris."

It has been stated many times that in congenital heterochromia iridis the color of one eye is inherited from the father, while the color of the other is derived from the mother. In many instances this has been true, but the reverse is as often the case, and even eyes of an entirely different color to either parent have been observed. This contradictory observation however would not refute the hereditary theory of transmission, bearing in mind the principles of Mendel's Law.

The family reported by Gossage[16] is the only recorded case beyond the second generation that I find mentioned. A detailed description and examination of the eye unfortunately is not given, altho the author states that "in this family heterochromia of the iris tended to appear when one eye, always the left, was grayish blue in color, with chestnut brown patches. Of the offsprings of the affected members of the family eight were affected and twenty-two free."

From a genetic point of view, Przibram's[17] work on angora cats is interesting. He found that the union of an

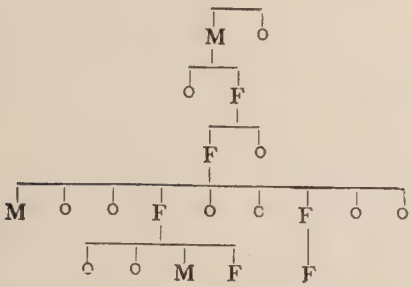


Fig. 1. Gossage's case. M, affected male; F, affected female; O, sex undetermined.

asymmetrically colored animal having one blue and one yellow eye, with a symmetrically colored animal having two blue or two yellow eyes, resulted in the production of both asymmetrically (heterochromia iridis) and symmetrically pigmented offsprings. He concluded that asymmetric animals can be traced back to asymmetric ancestry and that either color of an asymmetric parent can appear in the symmetric form of an offspring.

PARALYSIS OF THE CERVICAL SYMPATHETIC

Within the past few years attention has been directed to the association in heterochromic eyes of alteration of a paretic nature of the cervical sympathetic. In fact some observers, notably Bistis, are so enthusiastic over the close association that they have added to the classical Horner's Syndrome (ptosis, myosis, anhidrosis, hemiatrophy facialis) heterochromia iridis as a symptom. Mayou[18] in 1910 was probably the first to accurately describe these changes, although Horner (quoted by Samelsohn[20]) as early as 1875 did draw attention to a case in which a light iris occurred on the same side with a ptosis of sympathetic origin. In all only thirty-three cases have been reported, ten of which were complicated either with cataract or a slow uveitis.

The following authors reported: Galezowski[11], 2 cases, 1 complicated; Horner's case reported by Samelsohn[20]; Dethleffsen[21], 5 cases, 1 complicated; Lutz[22], 13 cases, 3 complicated; Hutchinson[2], 1 case; Alexander and Lander[32], 5 cases, 2 complicated; Bistis[39], 2 complicated cases; Mayou[18], 3 cases and Scalinci[6], 1 case.

From my own observation I can report four cases; the first two being of the same family with positive symtoms of a sympathetic paralysis. Case III gave less prominent symptoms, and case IV presented only slight evidences of any sympathetic disturbance. My reason for here reporting case V along with the others, is that we may assume that the heterochromia was due to certain trophic disturbances from a complete hemiplegia.

Properly it belongs under the acquired classification, if the history is correct.

Case I. Baby R., male, age ten months, seen September 30, 1908; parents first noticed a drooping of the upper lid and a lighter color of the right eye when only a few weeks old. The father and mother are blonde and have blue eyes. The mother of the patient has a paternal aunt whose right eye is of lighter color; her brother has a drooping right upper lid with a lighter colored iris on the same side. This brother has a son (case II) with the same abnormality on the right side. There is also another brother whose eyes are of the same color, and whose son has a drooping upper lid and light eye on the right side. This patient (baby R) was born normally and has been healthy. The parents have noticed that the child

did not perspire on the right side of his brow.

The examination showed on the right side a decided ptosis, small pupil, light blue iris, and a dryness of the skin. As well as I could detect without a dilated pupil (the parents refusing eye drops) the fundus was normal and there were no corneal deposits. In July, 1915, nearly seven years later I again examined the child. He had been well and healthy. The upper right lid still drooped, but not greatly, there was some suggestion of a facial atrophy on the same side, the pupil was still quite small compared to the left eye, yet it reacted well to light; the iris was blue, vision 20/20 and fundus was normal

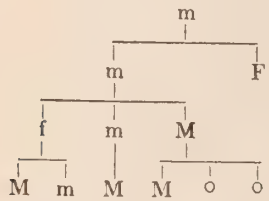


Fig. 2. Author's case. M, affected male; F, affected female; m, normal male; f, normal female; o, sex undetermined.

with no corneal deposits (without mydriasis). The left eye was normal and the iris brown. (Fig. 2.)

Case II. Master D, age 5. The family history is the same as case I, the patient being his first cousin. The maternal grandmother gave me the history of the family and patient, and she stated that the condition to be described existed from birth. The patient's father (uncle to case I) has blue eyes and the mother's eyes are hazel and I am told she is blind in one eye "from the rupture of a blood vessel." At birth there was some abnormality (a breech presentation) although no instruments were used. There are two younger children with normal eyes of the same color.

Examination: Right, drooping upper lid, facial hemiatrophy, palpebral fissure measured 5 mm., pupil active to light, 2 mm. in diameter. Color of iris was blue. Two drops of 1-1000 solution epinephrin did not dilate pupil. Cocain not used. Fundus normal, no corneal deposits. Vision 20/20. Left, dark blue iris, with brownish pigmentation surrounding pupil, which measures 4 to 5 mm. Fundus normal. Vision 20/20.

The grandmother states when the child is unwell, the drooping of the upper lid and the narrowing of the pupil of the right eye are perceptibly increased. Perspires on left side of face only. (Fig. 2.)

Case III. J. L. M., male, age 57. States that all of his life the left eye has been smaller than the right and of a lighter color. Family history negative, all children have dark eyes. The patient was brought to me as a refractive case on account of headaches and dizziness. Patient is a brunette. Two years ago he had a stroke of apoplexy causing left hemiplegia, which now partially exists. He gives a positive luetic history, and has taken appropriate treatment including salvarsan.

Examination: Right 20/15 corrected. Palpebral aperture 12 mm. Iris brown; pupils active to light and measure 2.5 mm. Fundus shows many small vitreous opacities, but no corneal deposits. Typical retinal arteriosclerosis, i. e., beaded and corkscrew arteries. Pupil does not dilate to epinephrin, and sluggishly to cocain, as compared to left. Tonometer 20 mm. Left 20/20 corrected. Palpebral aperture 10 mm. Iris light grey and active to light. Pupil measures 3 mm., does not dilate to epinephrin, but actively and widely to cocain. Fundus no corneal deposits, but similar vitreous opacities and retinal changes as in right. Decided left facial hemiatrophy and apparent enophthalmos. No anhidrosis. Tonometer 20 mm., Hg. Visual fields contracted peripherally. Systolic blood pressure 172 mm. Hg.

Case IV. J. E. M., male, age 38. Family and hereditary history negative. Father's eyes brown, mother's blue. Patient is only member in family with differently colored irides and he states that he has had this difference all of his life. He consulted me for pain in eyes after reading.

Examination. Right eye comp. H.

astig. Vision 20/20. Pupil same size as left and reacted to light. Color of iris gray. Slight drooping of upper lid. Palpebral aperture 6 mm. Fundus normal. No corneal deposits.

Left eye. H. astig. Vision 20/20, pupil active to light. Color of iris brown. Palpebral aperture 8 mm. Decided bluish discoloration of sclera arranged in patches above and out, and down and out. After using the same number of drops of homatropin in each eye for an hour to dilate the pupils for retinoscopy, it was observed that the right (light iris) was dilated to maximum with loss of accommodation, whereas the left pupil still reacted to light, with little loss of accommodation. Prolonged use of the drops did produce cycloplegia. Seen one month later. Slight ptosis on the right side and right pupil 2.5 mm. whereas left 2 mm. No response to epinephrin and right pupil dilated to 4 mm. after twenty minutes use of one drop of cocain. Left did not dilate. The only additional evidence of a sympathetic paralysis was a slight ptosis on the lighter side.

Case V. P. R. R., male, age 43, consulted me on account of defective sight of long duration in the right eye. Several members of his family have bad eyes, evidently refractive errors and perhaps from ocular injuries. Blue or gray colored eyes predominate in the family. The patient is a decided brunette with black hair and states that when several months of age he was paralyzed on the entire left side of body and face. He states that the left eye has always been of lighter color than the right. The patient is a farmer of moderate intellect. A general physical and neurologic examination was made by Dr. H. Crenshaw, who reported nothing abnormal except a general left hemiplegia and there were no positive evidences of a sympathetic paralysis. The eye examination is as follows: Right, vision, light perception, extraocular muscles normal, pupil dilated and inactive, measures 5 mm. Iris light brown, with one area of intense brown pigment above and a sector shaped area of gray below. Media clear. Typical cupping with atrophic changes of glaucoma simplex. Tension 52 mm. Hg. Corneal anesthesia. Left, vision 20/30. Small pterygium. Pupil 2.5 mm., wide, active, iris gray, slightly shallow A. C., no drooping of upper lid. Fundus normal, cornea sensitive, no deposits. Field contracted peripherally with an encroachment on nasal side. No enlargement of blind spot nor scotoma. There was no anhidrosis; but there existed a decided asymmetry to the face; the left side much sunken, with a deepening of facial furrows. We assumed that the facial atrophy was due to the general hemiplegia and not to a seventh nerve involvement. It is difficult at this late day to explain in this case any direct connection between the light iris and facial hemiatrophy or hemiplegia on the left side, unless we can imagine that in infancy certain trophic disturbances developed as a result of the hemiplegia, but even this gives nothing very definite.

In closely reviewing the thirty-three cases reported it is very noticeable that in a good percentage the only evidence of a sympathetic alteration was a narrowing of the pupil in the lighter eye. While this is evidence of a sympathetic paralysis, it is not altogether positive. In case III which I believe to be of sympathetic paralysis (having ptosis and facial hemiatrophy), the pupil was larger and dilated under cocain more readily than its fellow. I take for granted that the authors have eliminated the many other influences which would cause a small pupil, before positively declaring the case as one of sympathetic disturbance. In this connection it is interesting to note Pollock's[23] well known experiment in which he caused a dilation of the pupil from a mydriatic and a contraction by direct light in cases where he had completely excised the superior cervical sympathetic and the ciliary ganglia.

Pollock concluded after his experiments that "evidence is given that a motor plexus with nerve cells exist in the sphincter and in the dilatator pupillae of the rabbit's iris. This plexus lies between the individual cells of the muscles and contains fibers of extreme

tenuity. The plexus persists after separation of the iris from the central nervous system. It may, therefore, be regarded in the same nature as the plexus of Auerbach and Meissner in the intestines."

It should also be borne in mind that in rabbit experiments where the superior cervical sympathetic ganglion has been completely removed there is often a paradoxic dilation of the pupil. The phenomenon has been observed by Langendorff[24], where several days after the ganglion has been removed the pupil markedly dilates, and he explains it by vasomotor changes, i. e., dilatation of the iris vessels causes the pupil to contract, while a narrowing produces a dilatation of the pupil. This vasomotor change also takes place in the ear; at first an increased warmth, and then later a coldness.

Another fact to be noted from the reported cases of heterochromia iridis associated with undoubted sympathetic paralysis is that the paralysis was usually congenital or first noticed in early infancy; and the difference in the color of the irides developed at the natural time when changes take place in the color of the iris. In several cases (Mayou[19]) there was a history of forceps delivery, which was naturally supposed to be the cause of the paralysis.

However it is not difficult to find equally as many reports of a sympathetic paralysis from forceps delivery without iris decoloration (Reese[25] and Burrows[26]) altho in many of these reports no reference is made to the color of the iris. This lack of depigmentation in light colored irides of blondes with an associated sympathetic paralysis can easily be explained. Mayou[27] has also mentioned cases of sympathetic paralysis without iris decoloration associated with cervical rib. Of all the reported cases of sympathetic paralysis developing in adult life Bistis[28] reports the only positive case where a change in the color of the iris subsequently developed; and the case is well worth reviewing.

Bistis' case. Female age 38. The mother showed differences in the color of the irides and the lighter eye showed cataract in an advanced age. For two years the patient's sight had failed and the color of the right iris has changed. There was pain around the right eye, facial hemiatrophy with anhidrosis of same side that appeared at same time as heterochromia. Author had seen patient much before onset of trouble and the condition described did not then exist. The eye showed ptosis, enophthalmus, descemetitis, blue iris, pupil does not dilate as well to cocain as opposite side, no effect by epinephrin. Aqueous slightly turbid, tension subnormal and lens changes.

Metzner[29] reports Mendel's case in which there were certain suggestive peripheral depigmented changes in the iris.

A traumatic paralysis of the superior cervical ganglion or nerve in adult life is by no means an uncommon accident, and as yet no reports have been made of a subsequent iris decoloration. I personally have followed two such cases. I have also inquired of the older ophthalmic surgeons of large experience, who at one time advocated and practiced sympathectomy for glaucoma, and in no instance has there been noted any subsequent change in the color of the iris.

SUGGESTED ALLIED CAUSES.

It is noted that in case III there existed slight deafness, which from the history and examination suggests nerve impairment. I can offer no opinion from this limited experience as to whether there is any association between the auditory, ocular and sympathetic disturbances. Mendel[30] mentioned a similar change in one of his cases. It is well known that deafness is often present in albino cats (Beaumont[31]) and in two cats which had heterochromia iridum and deafness, Alexander and Lander[32] studied the anatomy of the eyes and ears. They found an absence of pigment in the perilymphatic cells of the auditory organ, and on the other hand the mesodermal pigment was absent in the lighter iris.

These same authors called attention to the influence which certain gland like

structures at the posterier part of the ciliary body first described by Collins[33], might have in producing a depigmentation of the iris. According to Griffin[34] these glands control the amount of pigment in the eye, as shown by their absence in albino eyes and their imperfect development in feebly pigmented blue eyes. As plausible as this theory seems, the presence of these glands are nevertheless doubted by other able men, Alt[35] and Rutteman[36], who were not even able to find their lumen. Finnoff[37] finds these so called pigmented glands, but thinks that they are pigmented plugs; and while he admits that gland like bodies may be demonstrated, he considers the lumen an artefact produced by the process of hardening; and a section of such tissue would resemble a tubular-like gland cut cross-wise. Therefore with this apparent uncertainty, we could hardly accept at the present time the suggestion that the so called ciliary glands of Collins have any influence in causing heterochromia iridis.

EXPERIMENTAL WORK

In regard to the experimental work, which has been done on animals by dividing the sympathetic nerve, or excising the superior cervical ganglion, Angelucci[38] found that section of the ganglion produced trophic alterations of the eye; among them being a disappearance of the pigment of the iris, with an atrophy and depigmentation of the choroid, besides certain well defined alterations of the blood vessels of the iris. Bistis[39] produced similar changes in the iris, and in one case he was able to demonstrate a cloudiness of the aqueous, and find in sections deposits on the posterior surface of the cornea, which to his mind was highly suggestive of an inflammatory process. Later Metzner and Wolfflin[29] added evidence that a sympathetic paralysis caused a distinct loss of pigment in the iris, and also recorded other changes which had previously been observed, such as epiphora, flattening of the cornea (Angelucci), changes in the motility of the nictitating membrane and hypotonia. This latter observation was to a certain extent agreed with in our experiments.

By more recent experiments on rabbits these same authors concluded that the superior sympathetic ganglion must have an independent tonus as regards the dilatation of the pupil, for if on one side division of the nerve was made below the ganglion, and on the opposite side the ganglion was extirpated, the pupil was smaller on the extirpated side. Their experiments also showed that the extirpation of the ganglion was never accompanied by a depigmentation of the iris, but that a resection of the nerve below the ganglion was followed by a decoloration of the iris. These last mentioned experiments present new phases to the subject with which we have had no experience, and which are quite contrary to the generally accepted physiology of the sympathetic system.

In this connection it is of interest to know that Galezowski reported a case of heterochomia where in the lighter eye, the pupil and the palpebral fissure were wider and the eye was more prominent than its fellow. Obviously there were symptoms of a sympathetic stimulation or irritation.

THE AUTHOR'S EXPERIMENTS

An excision of the cervical sympathetic ganglion was made in the rabbit.

Guinea pigs were first employed in our experiments, mainly to perfect the operative technic of the removal of the superior cervical ganglion, and later Belgian hares were used. After the operation the ganglion was preserved in normal saline solution, later stained with methylene blue (vital stain) and examined microscopically.

Light ether anesthesia was administered, the fur on the under surface of the neck was shaved, the part washed with soap and water, sponged with alcohol and then painted with tincture of iodine. The ganglion was rapidly exposed and grasped with a pair of tissue forceps and excised with scissors. The skin incision was closed with continuous silk sutures and a sterile

gauze dressing applied with adhesive tape. Apparently the animals did not suffer in any way from the operation and were quite alert shortly afterwards. There were no infections.

As the rabbit's pupil is often oval (the vertical diameter being the greatest) pupillary measurements were made with a millimeter rule along the horizontal meridian of the cornea, that is from canthus to canthus. The eyes were exposed to daylight from a northerly direction. Tonometric readings were made with the Schiotz instrument and it was applied the moment after an instillation of one drop of a 4 per cent aqueous solution of cocain. The lids were gently retracted with the fingers, and usually the readings were easily and presumably accurately made; although at times the animals were exceedingly nervous and frightened which apparently accounted for the wide variations in the intraocular tension.

The 7.5 milligram weight was employed, but when there was doubt of the accuracy, other weights were used as controls and the readings usually corresponded.

It was exceedingly difficult to distinguish early decoloration of the irides, and it is possible that one's imagination had its influence in causing certain discrepancies made in our early observations, but when a decided change was noted, this opinion was concurred in by three or four other observers. Eyes which showed no great change in the color during life presented a marked difference after enucleations and when held side by side for a closer comparison.

Five guinea pigs were used, and the four that survived, all showed a narrowing of the palpebral aperture and myosis, but no microscopic change in the color of the iris on the operative side even seven months after the operation. Weeping of the eye on the operative side was noticed as a symptom in three cases after recovery from ether anesthesia and later disappeared. The detailed account of these experiments is published in the Transactions of the American Ophthalmological Society v. 16, p. 291-298.

TABLE 1.

Tonometric readings of the right eye before and after operation:

Rabbit No. 1—Average tension before operation, 22 mm. hg.; total average after, 24 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 3—Average tension before operation, 27 mm. hg.; total average after, 22 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 4—Average tension before operation, 26 mm. hg.; total average after, 21 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 5—Average tension before operation, 25 mm. hg.; total average after, 14.8 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 6—Average tension before operation, 27.3 mm. hg.; total average after, 22 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 7—Average tension before operation, 21 mm. hg.; total average after, 12.1 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 8—Average tension before operation, 7 mm. hg.; total average after, 17.8 mm. hg.

Rabbit No. 9—Average tension before operation, 16 mm. hg.; total average after, 14.3 mm. hg.

General average tension before operation, 21.5 mm. hg.; after operation, 18.5 mm. hg.

A summary of the above experiments on the nine rabbits, after a complete excision of the right superior cervical sympathetic ganglion shows:

1. No marked influence on lacrimation. There was an increase in one case immediately after operation.

2. The nictitating membrane was not affected by the operation.

3. A paresis of Müller's muscle, which caused drooping of the upper lid in all cases on the operated side.

4. The average horizontal diameter of the pupil before operation was 7.6 mm. It contracted immediately after the operation, and usually so remained, the average diameter then being 6 mm. In those cases where epinephrin was instilled into the conjunctival sac, it caused a dilatation of the pupil on the operated side.

5. There was no appreciable ophthalmoscopic change in the retina and

choroid. In rabbit No. 4, as seen from the notes, there were certain interesting developments in the iris which I was not able to explain. The tags of pigment undoubtedly developed from the epithelial layer, but what influence the operation had in causing them is a matter of conjecture. While I could not detect deposits on the posterior surface of the cornea a cloudiness of the aqueous was surely present at one time; also there were opacities in the media, which I placed in the posterior part of the lens, as the rabbit's lens is very thick. These opacities later disappeared.

6. There was an appreciable gross change in the color of the iris on the operated side in all cases except one; rabbit No. 3 died 24 days after operation. The longer the animal lived usually the more distinct was this discoloration; and where the eyes were enucleated and placed side by side for closer comparison the change was more decided. About five weeks after operation, changes in the color of the iris were first detected, altho in one case (rabbit No. 8) a suspected change took place in fifteen days, which was more positive during the fifth week. Unquestionable variations in the color of the iris were noted in rabbit No. 4. That is to say, at one time the change was barely perceptible, and at other times the decoloration was decided.

7. The intraocular tension (see chart and table), shows varying estimates, without any uniformity. Taking an average first reading before operation, the right eye was 21.5 mm. Hg., and left 22 mm. Hg. A combined average of all readings after operation (omitting the first reading), on the right was 18.5 mm. Hg., and the average of all readings on the left was 21.2 mm. Hg. This observation would lead us to believe that the removal of the superior cervical sympathetic ganglion lowers the intraocular tension in the eye on the operated side.

8. The age or weight of the animal apparently had no influence in these experiments.

CASES COMPLICATED BY CATARACT OR UVEITIS.

There is another classification of primary heterochromia iridis to be considered, namely those cases in which there is an uveal affection, evidenced by deposits on the posterior surface of the cornea, which may and usually does terminate in cataract. These complicated cases may or may not be associated with the apparent disturbances of the sympathetic. Of the thirty-three cases of iris decoloration associated with sympathetic paralysis, ten cases were complicated with uveitis or cataract.

Lawrence and Hutchinson were among the first to describe the association of cataract with heterochromia iridis, and Fuchs[41] claims priority for first calling attention to the fact that chronic cyclitis with deposits occurred in the lighter eye. He also called attention to the fact that in his series of thirty-eight cases, twenty occurred within the first three decades, nine in the fourth decade, and the remaining number scattered. It was his opinion that heterochromia was usually due to some anatomic difference in the stroma of the iris, and when the retinal layer was affected, [which condition he had observed], it was then due to a chronic inflammation. He often noted that the pupil was larger on the lighter side.

Butler[8] regards the cause as unknown, but when associated with a sympathetic paralysis, the chronic cyclitis may be comparable to the iritis and iridocyclitis which are occasionally seen in herpes ophthalmia, and are usually regarded as trophic disturbances. The same author also describes a train of symptoms which in part are as follows:

The change in the color of the iris may last several years before other complications set in, but sooner or later the patient complains of bad sight in the blue eye. There is never pain or redness, possibly a ciliary blush. There is no associated dyscrasia, altho patients look "out of sorts." Occasionally there is a transient albuminuria.

The eye shows fine keratitis punctata, which soon covers the whole posterior surface of the cornea, altho in other cases it is arranged sector shape. An exudation may develop in the vitreous, followed by opacities of the lens, which are often punctate, and glaucoma is not an infrequent complication. Choroiditis and optic neuritis have been observed. The prognosis is bad. The disease usually begins in youth, and is slow and may extend over a period of years or even decades.

Contrary to the views of Butler, and other observers, Galezowski is of the opinion that the depigmentation is preceded by a chronic inflammatory condition. On the other hand, Malgat regards the heterochromia as due to a difference in the blood circulating in the iris or ciliary body and from a lack of nourishment to the lens, a cataract being the natural consequence. Hirschberg is of this same opinion, but thinks that the defective circulation starts *en embryo* or before the development of the iris pigment. This condition may remain stationary for years, to again become active and cause a uveitis and cataract. Gunn refers to the iris which contains sectors of different colors, and which subsequently regains its color, and he thinks that it is suggestive of an abnormal innervation. Finally Dor[43] thinks that besides the congenital heterochromia (he does not mention sympathetic paralysis), there exists a disease of the eye yet unknown, which begins in heterochromia and ends in cataract.

It is natural to ascribe the formation of cataract in these cases directly to the absence of iris pigment, and also to the influence of the action of ordinary daylight. But Sym has drawn our attention to the fact that albinos are no more liable to cataracts in proportion to their number than are the normally pigmented.

Others attribute the cataracts to the chronic cyclitic which frequently accompanies heterochromia; and as certain other intraocular changes are frequently noted, and as occasionally serious complications follow extractions, it is a commonly accepted cause.

Scalinci regards the cataract as due to changed physiochemic relations with the circulating nutritive fluids or to biologic alterations in the content of the nutritive fluid itself, due to vasomotor paralysis.

Knapp, discussing Ellett's[46] paper on "Heterochromia Iridis, Heterochromic Cyclitis, etc.," was of the opinion that disturbances of the sympathetic system had very little to do in producing these changes (cyclitis). In practically all of his cases, the patients have reacted to the tuberculin test, and in a large number they have done well with tuberculin therapy.

But few writers have attempted to explain the alterations in the iris associated with a sympathetic paralysis; or in other words how a sympathetic paralysis caused an iris decoloration. The investigation of Angelucci on rabbits and dogs offers us a reasonable explanation. He concluded that the eye resents trophic disturbances on account of the influence which the cervical sympathetic exerts on the movements of the walls of the blood vessels (vasomotor effect). It is well known that for a time after the superior sympathetic has been excised, that there is a dilatation of the blood vessels, which in the case of the rabbit can easily be demonstrated in the ears. Later it is followed by a thickening of the vessel wall which tends to contract the lumen. With the weakening of the nutritive changes thus brought about, there is an arrest of development of the eye, and in the case of the iris, there is a more or less pronounced degree of simple atrophy, with its accompanying decoloration.

I cannot find recorded a report of a microscopic examination of a human decolorated iris associated with sympathetic paralysis. Bistis, in his examination of rabbit eyes, found a great reduction in the pigment and a thickening of the vessel wall. The pigment in the anterior layer is much reduced and appeared in small aggregations. The iris stroma possessed no pigment cells, but contained a large number of nuclei which occupy the

place of the stroma cells. These nuclei are round or oval and are situated in a basement substance composed of fibrillary connective tissue. He was also able to detect deposits in the posterior surface of the cornea. These findings, together with a cloudiness of the aqueous and the vessel wall changes, he thinks, are suggestive of an inflammatory condition.

Fuchs was the first to examine a heterochromic iris, occurring in cataracts. In one case he could demonstrate cells on the back of the cornea. There was some depigmentation in the anterior layer, principally of small pigment granules. In the deeper layer there were only isolated remains of the branching pigment stroma cells and these had lost their shape and had become round. These should not be confounded with clump cells found near the sphincter and Bruch's membrane. The retinal pigment layer was normal. The texture of the stroma had entirely changed and the network of the branching stroma cells had been replaced by nucleated cells of a different character. There was no accumulation of nuclei around the blood vessels as is seen in an inflammatory infiltration of the iris. Protoplasm is scanty and occurs around the nucleus like a seal ring. Lymphocytes were only occasionally found and no polynuclear leucocytes were seen. The blood vessels showed a hyaline degeneration; the nuclei were scarce, as were the endothelial nuclei. Complete closure of the lumen was observed.

Lagleyze[45] confirmed Fuchs' observations except there was greater atrophy and more depigmentation in the anterior layers.

AUTHOR'S FINDINGS.

Rabbit No. 1. Interval of eleven weeks and two days between operation and death. The notes show that after enucleation the right iris was "distinctly lighter" than the left, altho a suggestion of decoloration was noted some time before death. Microscopic study of each eye did not show any decided variation from the normal, except in a few of the thinnest sections there was noted an appreciable difference in the general pigmentation in the extreme anterior border layer.

Rabbit No. 5. Interval of five weeks and four days between operation and death. After operation the right iris appeared lighter than the left, but no difference was detected microscopically.

Rabbit No. 8. Interval of approximately twenty-eight weeks between operation and death. There was noted before and after enucleation a decided difference in the pigmentation of the irides. Our findings did not differ materially from those of Bistis, Fuchs and Lagleyze. The greatest changes were noted in the anterior border layer, where there was a general atrophy of the branching pigment cells; this atrophy was likewise present to a large extent in the chromophores of the vessel layer. In certain areas along the margin of the anterior border layer, there appeared to be a disorganization or absorption of the pigment cells, which probably corresponded to the lighter areas seen on the iris during life. The pigment epithelium was unaffected, and there was no sign of inflammation. There was a difference in the thickening of the vessel walls, due to a hyaline degeneration, altho all of the iris vessels are characterized by a thickening of adventitia. We could not detect other marked vessel changes mentioned by other observers, which was probably due to the short interval between the operation and enucleation in this particular animal, as compared to Fuchs' examination of the human heterochromic eye.

Rabbit No. 4. Interval of thirteen months and twelve days between the operation and death. Before operation there was a noticeable difference in the color of the irides. With the low magnification the general comparison of the sections showed a marked difference. In the section of the right eye there was a "washed out" appearance in the anterior border and vessel layer with a noticeable depigmentation of the cells surrounding the larger vessels. These changes were especially noted in the middle and upper thirds of the

iris, and to some extent in the ciliary region.

The sections did not reveal any cause for the changes detected during life (i. e., the iris tags and lens opacities (?) described in the notes).

With the higher magnification, the changes were similar to those described in rabbit No. 8, except for an increase in adventitia thickening.

ACQUIRED SECONDARY HETEROCHROMIA IRIDUM.

Cases of heterochromia iridum occurring secondary to some acquired intraocular state are common to all ophthalmologists of any experience. A severe iridocyclitis, foreign bodies (metal) in the globe, degenerative changes of myopia and chronic glaucoma are the common causes.

COMMENT.

Those who have studied the literature of heterochromia iridis, or even casually glance over the many reports and discussions which I have very briefly collected, must have been impressed with the vastness of the subject and the lack of unity of opinion of the many authors. I, therefore, with trepidation, hesitate to express an opinion, unless substantiated by facts, and unfortunately in this character of investigation, "cold," positive facts are very few. I shall then confine myself to a systematic arrangement of the cases and causes of heterochromia, and express my personal opinion only where experience warrants it. I do not feel, however, that the last word on heterochromia iridis has been written, yet we do know a great deal concerning it.

I firmly believe in the influence of heredity and with the subject under consideration, I am convinced that in a proportionate number of these cases certain tendencies are inherited which cause a difference in the color of the irides. This statement especially applies to the cases in which there is not even the suggestion of any alteration of the cervical sympathetic system. In this country, where our people are not only a mixed hue, but of many nationalities, a proportion of our fairly numerous cases of heterochromia are not pathologic specimens, but simply "freaks" of nature.

Regarding the inheritance of sympathetic paralysis, I believe that its cause may be transmitted, and its manner of producing heterochromia is similar to any other form of congenital sympathetic paralysis, including those of traumatic origin (forceps deliveries). Assuming then this sympathetic disturbance in fetal life, it would not be difficult to explain the arrested development of the iris pigment on the involved side; and we could suppose the changes in those cases occurring in early life, where the iris pigment has developed. These changes can only be explained by nutritional disturbances of trophic origin—first a vasodilation, then a hyaline degeneration of the adventitia, and finally a contraction of the vessel lumen.

The great number of clinical reports show that the difference in the color of the irides to have taken place within the first few months or years of life when the pigment cells were young and apparently easily absorbed; on the other hand I have not found a record where a sympathetic paralysis in the adult produced by trauma or operation, ever caused iris depigmentation.

A chronic uveitis (deposits on the posterior corneal surface), is often recognized in association with heterochromia with or without an accompanying sympathetic paralysis. Many such cases may have escaped close observation. It is claimed that the lighter iris renders the eye liable to a chronic cyclitis, while others are equally sure that the cyclitis precedes the decoloration, in fact, produces it. In support of either opinion, we have no real proof.

From our clinical observation and experimental study the corneal deposits which often accompany the heterochromia should be regarded as a symptom of disease, and where a sympathetic paralysis is associated, it may properly be reckoned as the cause, pro-

ducing the passive hyperemia of the iris and ciliary body which Sym and Scalinci describe. Precipitates have been found on the posterior surface of the rabbit's cornea, and I have observed a turbid aqueous after an excision of the sympathetic ganglion, and if we could at will observe our clinical cases, I believe we would find similar changes at some time.

To my mind there is much to be said in favor of Scalinci's theoretic consideration of the cause for these precipitates and the formation of cataracts. He maintains that there are abnormal substances which percolate thru an abnormally pigmented iris and ciliary body, due to vasomotor paralysis. The normal aqueous does not contain albumin, but when the anterior chamber is emptied, that which is then formed contains it, and fibrin may be demonstrated. This rapidly formed fluid is regarded as a transudate from the superficially placed vessels in the ciliary body, rather than a secretion of the body itself, and it is produced by a lowering of the intraocular tension. This change may account for the cloudy aqueous and precipitates noted in rabbits and for the precipitates seen in man.

The following ocular changes have been produced experimentally: First a decoloration of the iris (Bistis, Metzner, et al.); secondly, a cloudiness of the aqueous (author); thirdly, the formation of corneal deposits (Bistis), and lastly, uncertain lens opacities. The experiments have not been continued long enough to note more decided lens changes, in fact it might take years for them to develop, far beyond the natural life of the rabbit.

This, however, does not explain the other type, in which there is no evidence of a sympathetic alteration, and yet clinically we have the same picture, namely heterochromia, precipitates, and finally cataract.

It is as Dor expressed an unknown disease. It may and usually does begin in youth and have the train of symptoms described by Butler, but hardly as severe and usually without the severe complications. From the investigations of Fuchs and others it is not a true inflammatory type of disease, such as iritis or cyclitis, and its precipitates may be produced from the same type of passive congestion which takes place in sympathetic disturbances. The origin appears to be in the vessels themselves, a type of sclerosis with obliteration. Whether or not this vasomotor disturbance is of trophic origin due to a sympathetic alteration without external evidence, is only a suggestion which other investigators of more original thought might consider.

In regard to the formation of cataract, it also appears that its origin is especially due to a lack of nutrition or to changes in the aqueous.

Finally our investigations have led us to make the following conclusions:

(1) That the difference in the color of the irides should be called Heterochromia Iridis.

(2) That in a small number of cases it is inherited.

(3) That in all other cases it is a symptom of some abnormal ocular state.

(4) That in a large percentage of the cases, a paralysis of the cervical sympathetic is the responsible cause for this heterochromia through its trophic disturbances. This paralysis may be inherited.

(5) That besides a congenital heterochromia there is an eye disease of unknown origin which begins in heterochromia and ends in cataract.

In closing I wish to acknowledge my debt of gratitude to Dr. G. Bachman, professor of physiology in the medical school of Emory University, in whose department our experiments were conducted. His advice was valuable, and the abstracts which he made of the foreign journals greatly facilitated the preparation of this paper.

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SYMPATHETIC IRIDOCYCLITIS AND POSSIBLY RELATED PROCESSES IN OTHER PARTS OF THE BODY.

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This argument supports the idea that the essential causative agent of sympathetic ophthalmia may exist in the body outside of an injured eye, and be transmitted through the blood currents. Microorganisms entering the exciting eye through injury might become established elsewhere in the body. Submitted as a Candidate's Thesis to the American Ophthalmological Society.

It is a fact accepted by most observers that sympathetic iridocyclitis is dependent upon a chronic plastic uveitis of the first eye. Preceding the fibrinous inflammatory process, the capsule of the eyeball must have been opened; usually by trauma, occasionally by an ulcer, or by operation, such as for cataract or iridectomy. Certain cases, however, have been reported in which the so called typical findings were present, the capsule not having been opened, following certain intraocular growths.

In my opinion, these dogmatic statements should be regarded circumspectly, for the reason that, while the establishment of a sympathetic iridocyclitis may require the occurrence of these events, it must not be overlooked that they are only events in the process, for underlying there is an agent inaugurating these changes. The agent may be a toxin or bacteria, specific in nature, or of special affinity for uveal tissue.

Clinically, sympathetic iridocyclitis shows no characteristic features to differentiate it from so called idiopathetic or nontraumatic iridocyclitis; that is, as regards involvement, cause, and end results. Those of known origin, due, as for example, to focal infections, syphilitic, or tubercular invasion, are particularly difficult of discrimination. Histologically, there may be specific differences.

This contribution was suggested by a recent experience which recalled to my mind the only case of sympathetic iridocyclitis which has occurred in my own practice. I have, of course, observed several cases of so called sympathetic irritation. That is, certain evidences of irritation were present in the fellow eye, but prompt removal of the injured eye was immediately followed by a cessation of these signs. In view of what is about to be stated, it is extremely doubtful whether they would have actually developed into cases of true sympathetic iridocyclitis.

One frequently encounters instances where trivial injuries to one eye, such as a small particle of foreign material on the cornea, will entail considerable irritability in its fellow. May not the irritability in the fellow eye, following more serious injury, frequently partake largely of this character? Clinically we have no means of determining, def-

initely, beforehand, whether the sound eye will or will not develop a sympathetic iridocyclitis. If we wait for frank evidence, the pathologic changes are already established, and it is too late. On the assumption that an eye is dangerous to its fellow, we enucleate; likely we save many, but it does not seem logical to believe that had we not interfered surgically the sound eye would have inevitably been lost.

Comparing my earlier experience, to which I have alluded, with the following case history, I felt I had a more or less common ground in explanation of the two conditions. I was deluded enough to feel that, in a measure, they were original. They were original theories to me, and yet, upon more complete examination of the literature, they seem "strangely familiar."

A man, aged 29 years, with a severe plastic iridocyclitis, had vision of fingers at three feet. Precipitates were present on Descemet's membrane, and the aqueous and vitreous were cloudy. The pupil was small, and atropin failed to tear loose all adhesions. Three years previously the patient had had a similar attack in the same eye. About the time the inflammation began to subside the left eye showed marked signs of involvement; lowered vision and interference with accommodative power, ciliary injection, precipitates on Descemet's membrane, etc.

His general health was excellent. Wassermann, complement fixation for gonorrhea, as well as tuberculin test, made by Dr. Watkins, in the Phoenix Laboratories, were negative. Searching further, two suspicious teeth were discovered, and radiographs showed apical abscesses. Removal of the teeth was followed within ten days by practically complete recovery. The iris of the right eye remained attached at three points.

Doubtless similar experiences have been observed by others, yet the history presents a feature which may merit emphasis. Clinically, at least, there are certain points of similarity between this history and that of sympathetic iridocyclitis. Pathologically, this similarity may not be so striking, and yet it seems to me there are possibilities of something in common between the two conditions.

On January 25, 1912, T. R., colored, aged 56 years, was operated upon for cataract in the right eye. Two weeks later a discission of the capsule was performed. Later he was discharged, with good pillars to the coloboma, and no incarceration of the iris. A convex spherical lens gave him a vision of 6/9. Four months later he returned, the eye sensitive to light, ciliary tenderness, slightly hazy cornea, V = 6/20. In the fellow eye the lens was cataractous, the pupil small, ciliary injection and tenderness, precipitates on Descemet's membrane, and an infiltration of the iris obscuring its texture.

The attack came on suddenly, and rapidly developed into a severe plastic iridocyclitis. Active treatment was instituted, atropin, sweats, mercurials, large doses of salicylates, subconjunctival injections, salvarsan, and purgation. The condition continued in severity, with periods of more or less abatement of symptoms, until February 1, 1913, at which time he was discharged, with occlusion of the pupil. The eye was quiet, and remained so when last seen, April 19th, about fourteen months after the original operation. Vision in the operated eye remained 6/20, with a spherical +10 lens.

Considering this case in connection with my more recent experience, there are certain features which, at least, seem common to both. This patient had many decayed teeth, foul breath, and persistent constipation. At times he suffered severly with toothache. The question of a radiograph was not considered at that time. Doubtless certain infective foci would have been observed. In placing emphasis upon this point, I do so for the reason that very likely such cases are reported as being healthy, save for the eye inflammation.

Upon examining the case reports by many eminent observers, the statement is almost universally made that, "otherwise the patient is healthy." No statements are made regarding the condition of the teeth, tonsils, sinuses

prostate, or many other possible foci of infection, which in themselves may not be particularly disturbing, yet are of vital importance in the etiology of an inflammation in another part of the organism, whether it be a so called sympathetic iridocyclitis, a heart lesion, or a joint infection.

Reflecting upon my own experience, cases of true sympathetic iridocylitis are of rather rare occurrence. I have observed some four hundred patients with injury to the eyeball, including perforating wounds of the globe, some due to cataract operations, others to iridectomies, but the greater majority due to injury by foreign bodies. In a percentage of this latter class the foreign body remained within the globe. Most of the injuries resulted from copper mine accidents, and those incident to the iron and steel industry. Not in a single instance have I observed another case of sympathetic iridocylitis. In some of the cases, there was present some irritability in the fellow eye, but it entirely subsided with the quieting of the injured eye. In a small percentage the injured eye was severely damaged, and as a matter of safety the eye was removed.

Clinical and laboratory observations have been made evolving many familiar theories regarding transference of the inflammation from one eye to its fellow. It is more than probable that there are elements of truth in each theory, which, if we were able to fit them together, might offer a solution. While it is admitted that certain diseases have a specific cause, yet there are many affections which may have a variety of causes, or at least the source of infection, or agent, may come from one of several foci. The same focus of infection may be manifested in a variety of ways, in different tissues.

In any event, there are few which show onset, development, and cause precisely the same. They are modified by many conditions dependent upon individual characteristics and organism metabolism. Having these facts in mind, are we justified, in view of present knowledge, in believing that sympathetic iridocylitis is an entity, due to one specific cause? Rather should it not be considered more as a secondary disturbance, due to a local changed metabolism, the source of the agent being in the uveal tract of the injured eye, or perchance, in some other part of the body, a part of a symptom complex.

Possibly there may be a local focus of infection at the point of injury, but can it be successfully stated that this is always the case, and that this focus is always the cause of inflammation in the fellow eye? Injury of a tissue, particularly if there follows a low grade inflammatory process, leaves that tissue more susceptible to bacterial invasion, or toxic agents, the resistance having been lowered. It is, of course, conceivable that bacteria may enter the globe at the time of injury, remaining resident and more or less quiescent for an indefinite period.

It is likely true in a certain number of cases, but it is equally conceivable that injury to the uveal tissue prepares a fertile soil for bacterial invasion from other foci of infection. The resulting metabolic toxemia finds elements in the fellow eye for which it possesses a definite affinity, the severity of the attack being in accord with its virulence. This seems true, particularly in instances where long intervals are recorded between the time of injury and the onset of sympathetic iridocyclitis.

The fact that in certain cases even following enucleation, at more or less remote times, sympathetic iridocyclitis is established, seems to indicate at least that while we may grant the influence of the injured eye in possibly establishing a low grade inflammatory process, the continuance and increasing severity sometimes after enucleation are more than significant that the "fire" is being fed from another source. This may be from a small apical tooth abscess containing perhaps a strain of streptococci, with a special affinity for uveal tissue. The numerous relapses which sometimes occur during the course of the disease may be accounted for in the same way. The re-

port on sixty-five cases to the Ophthalmic Society of the United Kingdom is particularly impressive on this point. Sympathetic iridocyclitis followed from one to twenty-one years after enucleation. Snell observed one case one hundred and six days subsequently.

In this connection it is well to consider the possibility that, even if an eye has undergone an attack of sympathetic iridocyclitis with recovery, subsequent inflammatory relapses may be the result of entirely different causes, and in no way dependent upon the original inflammation, except in so far that an uveal inflammation renders the eye rather more subject to subsequent inflammation, the exciting cause being in no way related to the original cause.

It is recorded by certain observers, that sympathetic iridocyclitis is more liable to occur in children. I am not in a position to successfully question this, but when one considers the greater liability to industrial injuries of the middle aged male, it rather encourages an adverse view, unless we interpret this as meaning that in a given case a child's tissues are more susceptible to these inflammatory changes. Granting, however, that it is correct, this adds additional support to the theory that focal infection participates in this process, as children are especially susceptible to infections of the nasopharyngeal and oral cavities.

Crediting enucleation in a given case as the means of having saved the fellow eye, seems to me difficult to prove. We remove an eye, believing it to be a menace, yet, in anticipating this danger, we have no clinical or laboratory means of definitely knowing. If the inflammatory changes have once become established in the fellow eye, and the inflammatory process in the exciting eye not so severe as to anticipate complete destruction, and the sight previously serviceable not greatly reduced, such an eye should not be enucleated.

Of course, in the event of complete destruction, as a good surgical procedure it is wise to enucleate, but from my experience in observing three cases, in which sympathetic iridocyclitis was already established in the fellow eye, removal of the exciting eye did not gain anything in particular in the amelioration of the inflammatory changes, nor prevent destruction of the sympathizing eye.

It is difficult to believe that the causative agent of sympathetic iridocyclitis is always resident in the injured eye alone, and that it is the sole etiologic factor to be considered in accounting for the changes in its fellow. If it were, how can those cases be explained in which useful vision is retained in the originally injured eye, and yet the sympathizing eye is lost. It seems reasonable to believe that, if the agent is virulent enough to destroy the sympathizing eye, surely it would produce a like result in the one originally involved, especially in view of the fact that its uveal tissue has already been damaged. Not only is the above reported case history illustrative of this point, but literature contains many similar instances.

These clinical observations are of interest in connection with certain histologic knowledge. Previous to the severity of an attack of sympathetic iridocyclitis more or less discrete granular elevations in the choroid have been observed. In destroyed eyes, which have been enucleated and examined microscopically the uveal tract shows isolated accumulations or elevated formations of proliferating epitheloid cells. The various stages of progression, and more or less isolation, of these nodular formations is strong evidence of their independent development, the agent being deposited at these several points at varying intervals.

If this is correct, the natural medium of transmission would be the blood current. The agent may be in part or wholly derived from the primary injured eye, yet, it seems good reasoning to believe, especially in view of the above clinical experience, that other foci of infection are not only contributing factors, but may be the essential source, by reason of the ease with which the blood stream can convey these agents from one part to another.

The intimate association of sympathetic iridocyclitis with the uveal tract, and the almost uniform accompanying penetrating wound of the eye capsule, arouses interest in contemplating the many perforating injuries to the globe which are never followed by any evidence of this malady. The vast majority of penetrating wounds heal and remain quiet, or at least they do not inaugurate inflammatory changes in the fellow eye. It is inconceivable to believe that they are all aseptic. Doubtless in many instances, likely the majority, the bacteria that find access to the parts are benign, or at east of such a strain as do not possess any special affinity for uveal tissue. If they were immediately virulent at the time of injury prompt destruction of the injured eye would ensue.

If the proper bacteria gain entrance at the time of injury, clinical evidence indicates that certain preparation must take place, as they do not become active for several weeks, and in some reported instances, years. This view is quite in accord with Rosenow's work. Certain strains of bacteria, especially streptococci, have a selective tissue affinity, or they are able to develop this affinity by growing in certain tissue, as, for exampe, injured uveal tissue.

It is quite in keeping with the clinical course of sympathetic iridocyclitis to say that streptococci, or, perchance, some other microorganism, infect the injured uveal tissue of one eye, at the time of injury or subsequently, from some other body focus; and after a certain interval they develop an enhanced ability to attack and destroy similar tissue in the other eye. The time interval is just as much in favor of this as it is in favor of the development of tissue sensitiveness. In view of reported cases of sympathetic iridocyclitis in eyes with intraocular growths this seems especially adaptable as an explanation, the injured uveal tissue affording the necessary cultural media, the bacteria being supplied from some endogenous source.

The results obtained in the experimental work on anaphylaxis have all been on lower animals. The fact that sympathetic iridocyclitis is seen less frequently speaks against anaphylaxis. Surgical precautions would not affect the development of anaphylaxis in an injured eye, but would prevent bacterial destruction of tissues by removing the media suitable for bacterial growth. From the increasing number of eye injuries, and the decreasing occurrences of sympathetic iridocyclitis, possibly as a result of surgical interference, even when the globe is penetrated and tissues destroyed,—if it were anaphylaxis,—we would expect the number of cases to keep pace with the number of eye accidents, but they do not.

A fuller understanding of the nature of sympathetic iridocyclitis demands a more searching investigation for possible related processes in other parts of the body.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

REPORT ON ONCHOCERCOSIS.

TACITO MOLINA IZQUIERDO.

GUATEMALA, C. A.

The ocular conditions associated with the so called coast erysipelas, which have been described by Pacheco Luna (Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 1, p. 122), make the identification of the etiologic parasite a matter of interest to ophthalmologists.

During the month of July, 1917, I received from Dr. Pacheco Luna five tumors extirpated from two individuals attacked by so called coast erysipelas and named by him onchocercosis. These tumors had a form similar to that of the seed of a bean (*Vicia faba, L.*), and of equal size or somewhat larger than the same.

Dissecting the outer coat of Tumor A, I found that in the exterior existed a sclerosed tissue, extremely hard; and some nodules of the size and form of a pea which on being cut by a bistoury showed small threadlike fragments of ivory color that were very brittle.

In accord with Dr. Pacheco Luna, and following the method proposed by Brumpt (Precis de Parasitologie, 1913), I submitted the other four tumors to the action of artificial gastric juice, which transformed almost all the tissues of the tumors into a gelatinous matter, and I obtained the following results:

Tumor B. Pieces of the female which united measured about 40 cm. There were neither male nor embryos.

Tumor C. Fragments of the female with both extremities. The extremity of another female. Total of the fractions found, females 60 cm. Two males. Embryos very numerous.

Tumor D. Formed by several nodules. Nodule (a). Female, both ends and pieces of the body. One male of 24 mm. Embryos very numerous. Nodule (b). Extremity of female. One male of 35 mm. Embryos very numerous. Nodule (c). Fragments of the female without extremities. One male. Embryos very numerous. Nodule (d). Female extremities and body. Neither male nor embryos.

Tumor E. Female which with difficulty and patience I obtained entire. Length 32 cm. Neither male nor embryo.

OBSERVATIONS.

The *female* reaches more than 40 cm. in length by 300μ, or somewhat larger — largest diameter. The striae are transverse, well marked. Submitting to hot water, the tumor C. previously treated by the artificial gastric juice, the skin remained separated like a sheath.

The *male*. The length up to 42 mm. Thickness (largest diameter) about 200μ. Two spiculae which protrude almost from the same point, one from one of 180μ, the other of 80μ. The papillae difficult to be seen, the three anal orifices were identified. The tail is always curled up. In one of the tumors, which I examined after those already mentioned, and which also were sent to me, I found seven males and one female. In all I have examined thirteen males.

Embryos, length 250μ, thickness largest diameter 10μ, many even more. In the female with which there was no male, there were no embryos. I did not succeed in seeing any visible "spot."

Ova. I did not find any, but I had before me a preparation of Dr. Robles. They have the form of a lemon with a curled up embryo.

The work of microphotography I did, together with the medical student, V. M. Calderón. The preparations were, two from Dr. Robles, and the other my own.

The tumors have always been found under the hairy skin.

The infected zone of these filarias is in the Pacific region, Republic of Guatemala, between 1,000 and 2,000 feet above sea level.

The following comparative table clearly shows the characteristics of these filarias and their differences from other kinds.

Comparative Table.

FILARIA BANCROFTI. Cobbold 1877	ONCHOCERA VOLVULUS. Leuckart 1893	SPECIMENS UNDER EXAMINATION
Body white opal-like	Body white opal-like	Body white opal-like
Transparent	Sufficiently transparent	Little transparent (before preparing).
Integument smooth	Integument slightly striated transversely	Integument slightly striated transversely. In the preparations striae are more marked.
Body thin	Body thin	Body thin
Thinner at both ends, which are obtuse	Thinner at both ends, which are obtuse	Thinner at both ends, which are obtuse
Mouth unarmed, without papillae	Mouth unarmed, without papillae	Mouth unarmed, without papillae
Male: length 40 mm.	Male: length 30 mm.	Male: length 42 mm.
Width 100μ	Width 130μ	Width 200μ
Tail with tendency to curl in ring form	Tail curved and generally rolled up	Tail always rolled up ring-like
Papillae 3 pairs, post-anal, none preanal	Papillae 3 at each side of anus, and 3 tail ones	Papillae difficult to observe
Spiculae	Spiculae	2 curved unequal spiculae
2 thin unequal ones of 200μ and 600μ	2 curved of 82μ and 117μ	of 80μ and 180μ
Anal opening 130μ from the end	Anal opening 40μ from end	Anal opening 40μ?
Female 8 to 10 cm. long	Female 40 cm. long. (Prout)	Female 42 cm. long or more
Width 240 to 300μ	Width 360μ	Width 300μ
Vulva 1 mm. to 1.30 mm. from the posterior end	Vulva 760μ	Vulva?
Anus 280μ from the posterior end	Anus?	Anus (Female)?
Ova 40 by 23μ	Ova large oval, with a prolongation, pointed at each pole.	Ova ovoid, lemon shaped with a prolongation on one of the poles.
Ovovivipara	Vivipara	Vivipara (Molina) Ovovivipara (Robles)

STEREOSCOPIC SILHOUETTES FOR TESTING ESTIMATION OF DISTANCES.

Capt. Harry Vanderbilt Würdemann.

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON.

These tests adapted, redrawn and translated by Dr. Würdemann were submitted for publication soon after the United States entered the war. It was deemed prudent to delay their publication at that time.

Some time ago there appeared by some foreign author whose name I do not know and in what publication I am not cognizant, a description of a stereoscopic test for binocular vision and estimation of distances.

The plates were later republished and sold by Carl Zeiss of Jena. Photographic copies of these plates have recently been in use by the Examining Boards for Aviators of the Signal Corps of the United States Army. These were in the German language and as their use in this form for this particular purpose did not seem to me to be patriotic, therefore, I

appropriated the unknown author's ideas in toto as the spoils of war. I have redrawn the plates and have translated the lettering into the American language. It seems appropriate for this particular purpose that as the silhouettes were all of German objects that our American aviators will certainly see on the battle line at no distant period, the same objects be reproduced, and therefore, the plate here pictured and described is exactly the same so far as the drawing goes as that in the German and thus I claim no originality whatever in this reproduction and essay.

I had the original enlarged five times by photography and redrew the pictures, substituted for the German legends their meaning in English and had it reduced to stereoscopic size by photo-engraving.

The difference between the lateral centers of each picture in the stereoscopic engraved reproduction varies according to the following:

The distances between numbers 9 and 9 are 66 mm.: between numbers 10 and 10, 68 mm. The objects numbered between these are 1/5 mm. more or less apart. The scale reading 9 for the nearest, 1, 7, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 10. There is a slight variation in the picture to give a certain amount of stereoscopic perception of depth and aiding in the perception of distance.

No. 9 Gate in Lübeck, should seem the nearest, No. 1, Hohenzollern Castle next, then in the following order, 7 Holtenauer Lighthouse, 3 Cologne Cathedral, 2 Wartburg, 4 The Berlin Dome, 5 Lichtenstein Castle, 6 Zeppelin over Strassburg, 8 German Battleship "Kaiser Friedrich" and 10 which is the farthest away, German School Ship "Stein."

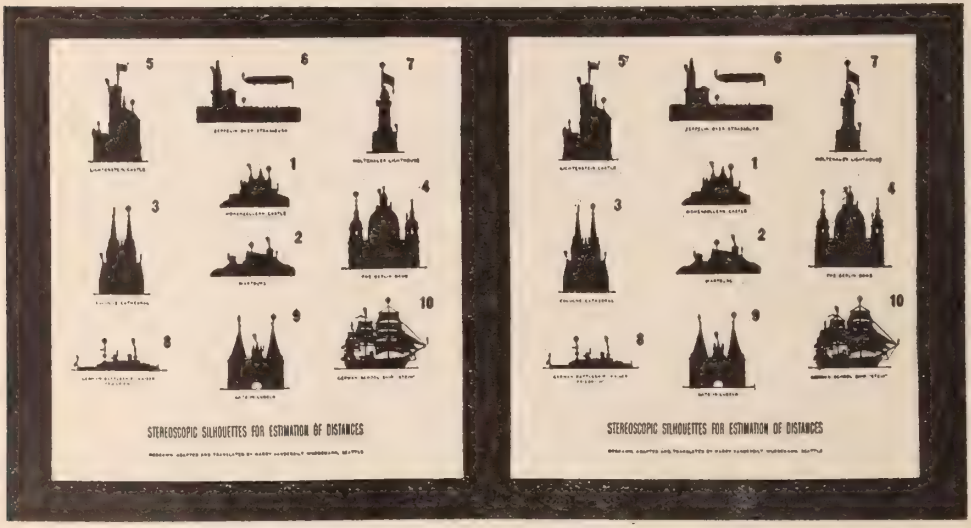


Fig. 1. Stereoscopic silhouettes for Testing Sense of Distance.

This is the most delicate test for binocular vision and for the perception of depth or distance. Any candidate for aviation who does not correctly answer these in the notation and rotation as above given has an imperfect perception of depth and distance and is not qualified for either a flyer or an observer. In civilian practice, the same condition holds good as when the numbers are properly stated there is evident perfect binocular vision. Persons with esophoria or exophoria beyond what may be esteemed the normal condition, i. e., not more than 5° esophoria or 3° exophoria for infinity or 6° exophoria for 30 cm. can not as a rule solve this chart as do those with perfect muscular balance.

GONOCOCCIC DACRYOCYSTITIS.

Dr. Francisco M. Fernandez.

HAVANA, CUBA.

The ocular complications of gonorrhea have been described by numerous authors, some a long time ago, some others very recently; and among these we have described several cases of metastatic conjunctivitis having that origin, and which is by far more common than the variety of ectogenous origin. (Archiv. de Oftalm. Hispano-Amer. v. 17 p. 320.)

On the other hand, the germs liable to produce dacryocystitis are first the streptococci and staphylococci, it having been stated by Wakisaka that the Influenza Bacillus and the Pneumococcus are also common. Less so are the Bacillus Coli, Pyoceaneus, Friedlanders, etc.; as well as some sarcinae, actinomicocydes, and other unclassified bacteria. But the presence of gonococci in the purulent secretion of a case of dacryocystitis is, although not extremely rare, of infrequent occurrence, it being due either to an ectogenous origin, or a metastatic one.

This observation refers to a curious case in which the lacrimal sac was surely invaded by the gonococci, without any involvement of the conjunctiva, the case occurring in a young man suffering from urethritis.

Case X. X., a young man employed as clerk in a store, went into the Benéfica Hospital on the 2d of January, 1919, to receive treatment for his urethritis, and some days after was sent to our ward in order to have his right eye treated, as there was some pain and inflammation around the sac.

We saw the case and there was a typical dacryocystitis, with obstruction of the duct, and much tenderness and redness. After incising the abscess, the purulent secretion was sent to the laboratory. We received a report stating that the case was one of gonococcic origin.

We had a perfect drainage established for the escape of the secretion and after being sure of the cause of the disease, and ordering the best ways to combat it, the patient made an uneventful recovery and was sent back to the venereal ward after eight days without any ocular complications.

THE FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN DONDERS AND VON GRAEFE.

Dr. M. A. Van Herwerden.

UTRECHT, HOLLAND.

This paper consists chiefly of personal letters preserved by Donders. It appeared in Janus, the International Journal of Medical History, the organ of the Dutch Historical Society of Medical Sciences, Twenty-second year, Parts five and six. Translated by Dr. William H. Crisp, Denver, Colorado.

"London seemed quite dead to me after you had left us, for in the first place there was no one from whom I had learned so much that was worth knowing as from you, and moreover my personal intercourse with you had been my very greatest pleasure. I know you too well to fear that you will receive this childishly frank confession of mine in bad part. You yourself must have observed from my entire behavior how inspiring and pleasing your personality was to me. To work with you or more correctly under your ægis would be the fulfillment of a beautiful ideal; in zeal and love of truth at least I might be your equal, and the rest comes, as Shakespeare's Constable says, from God."

With these words the twenty-four year old Albrecht von Graefe reflected the impression which the young Dutch physiologist F. C. Donders had left with him during a joint stay in London in the year 1851. They form the beginning of an animated correspondence which took place between the two men of learning during the years 1852-1870.

In the Graefe Museum in Heidelberg is a collection of faded letters, witnesses to the warm feeling of friendship which for almost twenty years bound the famous Berlin ophthalmologist to our great Donders. We have Donders' personal act to thank for the fact that this correspondence has thus been preserved to posterity.[1]

For the history of medicine this correspondence contains letters of great significance, which I hope to publish later. Regarded from the purely historical standpoint, the opening letter is the most important of the collection. The first experiments with the ophthalmoscope discovered by von Helmholtz in the previous year are described therein, and the instrument which, improved according to his own specification, was to open a new epoch for ophthalmology, is offered for Donders' use. The value of these letters from Graefe is not, however, purely scientific. They speak from one great mind to another, they awake by means of single sentences interwoven with a learned discussion such stirrings of the mind that not only the sympathetic personality of him who wrote them, but also the picture of the friend who received them, arises before our mind's eye.

Between the sixty-seven letters there are lacking those members of the series which would have linked them into an extremely valuable harmonious whole, namely Donders' replies. These have been found neither in the Graefe Museum nor in the possession of von Graefe's descendants. But no one who reads the Graefe letters can doubt that the beneficent, radiant warmth did not come merely from one side.

For Donders likewise the first companionship in London with the colleague ten years his junior was refreshing to heart and spirit. In an infirmary where Donders attended clinics with the Viennese ophthalmologist von Jaeger, there burst in unexpectedly a young man in Alpine costume who threw himself into the arms of von Jaeger. With the words "You belong together," von Jaeger threw young von Graefe "literally into my arms," so relates Donders in the year 1886.[2] "And he had not deceived himself . . . von Graefe was my leader in the practical departments of knowledge in which I had wandered so little, and I on the other hand could furnish him with a number of details from the physiologic side. In this mutual completion there lay a great charm for us both. Those days, in which Graefe revealed all his amiableness of disposition, are among the most beautiful recollections of my life. When, after a few weeks, I left him, he had become as a younger brother whom I admired and loved."

"With great joy did I learn to know the goodhearted Jaeger from Vienna, and especially young Graefe from Berlin, who is not merely a good surgeon and ophthalmologist, but at the same time a meritorious physiologist and a lofty man. He will soon visit you," writes Donders a short time after his stay in London, to Jacob Moleschott, that other friend with whom he remains associated thru a long continued correspondence, this time up to his own death, because Moleschott outlived Donders, while von Graefe, as is known, died in the year 1870, when barely forty-two years old.

Some months after the first encounter, when Donders hopes to come to Berlin without the wish being fulfilled, von Graefe writes: "The idea of working and living in common with you here had become a regular impulse of my life, and in my thoughts I had already pictured in delightful colors our

1. "I should like to bring with me something for the Graefe museum . . . . and in any case to arrange that after my death the letters addressed to me by von Graefe may find their place there," runs a letter from Donders to one of the members of the Ophthalmological Society.

Some of the Graefe letters contain remarks of Donders in his old age. How deeply he felt concerning them after the premature death of his friend is shown by a complete transcript which Donders left behind him. This transcript, committed to me for preparation some years ago, caused me to look up the original letters.

2. Address delivered to the Ophthalmological Society in Heidelberg on the 9th of August, 1886, on the occasion of the conferring of the Graefe medal on Helmholtz.

entire activity. Altho I might have been able to return only a feeble equivalent for the much which I thought to obtain from you, yet on the other hand I was certain that you would lack nothing that deepest friendship and most sincere respect afford. The sum total of my activities appears to me at times quite niggardly and wretched when I hear yours spoken of. While I perambulate in a relatively narrow circle of science and even there stumble all too often on unanswered questions, you wander with certain stride in the broadest and most beautiful fields of human knowledge and leave no spot without plucking some fruit. With such unequal gifts the only thing that I dare to presume to share with you is honesty of endeavor and the impulse to widen the boundaries of positive knowledge to the extent of my powers."

In every direction it was a period of exuberant growth in the lives of these young men of science. How necessary to keep one another informed not merely of the daily surprises in the scarcely explored fields of physiology and pathology, but at the same time concerning their deepest experiences! Along with the recollections of short meetings in Utrecht, in Berlin, Heidelberg or the Alps, with the longing to see one another again, there predominates the friendship of man for man. In relation to friendship, scientific interest — however important it may be and however large a part of the correspondence it may take up—occupies the background.

"Your letter came like a beautiful echo of bygone days and in the midst of our deafening everyday life again awakened their shining image before my soul," writes von Graefe after a visit of Donders to Berlin. "There is always, who could deny it, an element of melancholy sadness in this retrospective view of a happy past; but that is succeeded by a juster mood of pure delight, for the past truly belongs to us, the inviolable treasure of living memory. Only he who is unfaithful to himself loses also with himself the past. Thus will I gather to myself as an inalienable possession the days which were lived with Donders, and be grateful without complaining against my fate. If you will leave me a place in your heart which perhaps I obtained without deserving it, I shall hope that past days were only the first chapter in a book of friendship whose story is without intrigue, but nevertheless and even on that account of the profoundest interest to those concerned."

In 1856, when von Graefe hopes to journey to Utrecht, he writes to Donders: "Do not be terrified by these words, because it really sounds as tho I would occupy your precious time with the whole of my inquisitive soul and fasten myself on your few hours of leisure with the whole weight of my questions. Believe much rather that along with the impulse to pump you dry there also lives in me so much respect for your physical and psychical welfare that my tormenting you will not be allowed to overstep a certain limit. It is, of course, sad for you to have to give up so much, but that is merely the disadvantage of the possessor in the democratic state of Science, to be held up by every needy fellow. So adapt yourself to your fate and from your friendship for me, precious and on my side undeserved as it is, derive resignation to tolerate the Berlin tormentor for an October week in Utrecht."

And in the year 1859, when von Graefe urges Donders to undertake an Alpine journey with him: "We really have much to exchange and aside from all ophthalmologic shop, it is after such a long separation only a natural need of the soul to influence one another again in more immediate fashion. I am quite aware that in this intellectual intercourse I am the recipient, and this even more than was formerly the case, since my strength has been broken by a number of adverse circumstances. But all that does not matter, one does not weigh and calculate, one follows one's inward attractions."

The feeling that, in relation to Donders' great figure, he was always the subordinate, the recipient in relation to the donor spirit, never left von Graefe even in later years, even at the time when his fame in broader circles exceeded that of Donders, and when pu-

pils and patients streamed to him from far and near.

"I brought nothing to Berlin but the burning wish to see you again soon, very soon, and with your two letters you succeeded in inflaming this desire," writes von Graefe a year later: "It is really an absolute intellectual necessity to me to be further associated with you." Your great saying: "To know is useful to us, but to learn is bliss," descends as a judgment upon my soul (fällt mir mit Centnerlast auf die Seele). How I feel with you in this,—but oh! poor I am destined "to know nothing right and to learn nothing more at all," while you surrender yourself to "the unspeakable delight" and by your learning continually bring knowledge to others. What remains for me . . . but to rejoice at your flight and with the fancy of friendship to occasionally imagine myself flying a little way with you!"

"I must *see* you soon in one way or another," we read eight years later. "Altho my life has really contained nothing special—with the exception of New Year's Day[3]—yet almost every day it seems to me as tho I had something to tell you. That is the true measure of mutual attachment, that we gather for each other, involuntarily—even tho mutely—the small blossoms which every day strews upon our path. But at times we must speak. Let us attend to this in our short life as far as in us lies." And again a year later: "Yes, those were truly beautiful days, beautiful hours when you slept under my roof . . . To create for ourselves as many noble joys as possible—is not that the only natural defence against the eternally recurring vexations of life? Vexation at circumstances, vexation at the human heart and at times also at one's own strength and worth—'Ergo bibamus,' 'Come soon, very soon!!' "

"How incessantly I long to see you! Your few words concerning faithfulness strike like lightning into my heart or rather they sink therein like a ray of sunlight. One feels only too deeply, the farther life unfolds itself, that faithful mental communion is not an attribute of human relationships, and that the proud joy of sharing heart and thought lovingly with one another, of serving and belonging to one another, languishes ignominiously beneath the parasitic exuberance of the ego. And the oases in the desert of this tendency lie so far apart and so scattered, that we can only attain them in fugitive moments. May heaven always preserve at least the thirst for them within us, for in this thirst, however little it may be quenched, lies the experience of that which we need in order to become real human beings."

After a visit of Helmholtz's, von Graefe writes to his Utrecht friend: "Helmholtz visited us in Berlin and greatly rejoiced us by his presence. He honors you quite as you deserve, and to me this was still another important point of attraction in the inventor of the ophthalmoscope."

But the great respect which speaks from the Graefe letters will never cloud his independent judgment, never restrain him from giving counsel in perfect frankness. When, in refutation of a German colleague, Donders sends a vehement essay to von Graefe for publication, the latter replies: "If I did not express my views concerning it, this would appear to me either forgetfulness of duty or cowardice; the former would be an injustice, the latter petty. The name of Donders stands too high with me to see him take an attitude toward S. which in the eyes of the uncomprehending multitude is interpreted as that of common polemics. He who as man and savant occupies such a place of honor does better to keep his hands clean of the filth which baser minds accumulate abundantly around them . . . so you will not be angry with me if I satisfied a necessity from which I could not detach myself because to me your person is so sacred that it worries me to see it in any way defiled through the perfidy of a baser mind."

In what spirit Donders' answer to this letter dated 21st November, 1853, was couched appears from the few

words written by him upon it with trembling hand when in his old age he read it through and revived its memories. "Splendid letter" we read there. It is thus very probable that Donders did not disregard the counsel of his youthful friend. Toward another friend it was Donders himself who at the same period was always the restraining, the deliberate counsellor. During this period he writes no letter to Moleschott without protesting against his vehement essays.[4] From both correspondences may be learned in what frank and sincere relation these men, whose friendship was founded upon deep respect, stood to one another.

Until the year 1862 the correspondence with Donders is only interrupted by the exchange of visits, visits which, as already appears from the quotations, leave behind a treasure of memories. Even small railleries are not lacking after the Berlin visit. The preparation of a cysticercus has to be sent to Utrecht. "How is the poor little animal to reach his Utrecht home? Shall I risk sending him through the post carefully packed, or with my own hand commit him to your envoy, as something which exercises a decisive influence upon the weal and woe of mankind?" And in the next letter: "With this little sheet are despatched to you two copies of the Archives (Arch. f. Ophthalmol.) and also—woe is my orphaned desk—that beautiful decoration the cysticercus. May he go and prosper and bring luck to your house, and to your hand a blessing for very many, many children of men."

We can imagine how much Donders, always a welcome guest in the parental house of Graefe, sympathised with the friend who in deep mourning over the death of his mother wrote him the touching words: "In spite of all the help that had been called in from here and outside I saw what was dearest to me on this earth become paler and more lifeless from day to day, and on the twenty-second of November was obliged to kiss for the last time the hands which since birth had heaped so many kindnesses upon me. In a short hour on a cold winter day I buried a long sunny season and now I wander about motherless before the closed door of my paternal house, impotent to conjure from the lifeless walls all the love which dwelt therein."

In the clinic and the workroom Graefe's earlier activity again revives. It is the time of the first glaucoma operations, that discovery thru which he shielded hundreds of contemporaries and millions of posterity from blindness. His leisure hours between his tense daily work, and also his vacations, were devoted to scientific investigation or to working up the wealth of clinical material, which from the year 1854 was described in a first ophthalmologic journal founded by himself (today well known as the most eminent in this field). It was the man of scarcely twenty-six years who brought this plan to realization. Already in the course of the first year, at his request Donders and the Viennese .ophthalmologist von Arlt were added as associate editors.

In the year 1861, when after his betrothal to the Danish countess Knuth a sunny time promises to begin for von Graefe, and he joyously hopes for a speedy meeting with Donders in Heidelberg, there follows forthwith on the way to Heidelberg a serious illness in Baden-Baden, which for a while interrupts the correspondence. Donders personally visited his ailing friend. In touching words he himself gives a description of this visit: "Poor friend," said I, pressing his hand. "Yes, poor friend," replied he and added: "I occupied a whole hour in giving up all my illusions. But now I am all right again. Tell about Heidelberg." And when, moved by this "one hour", I did not immediately respond to his desire, he seized a book that lay by him, it was Goethe, and pointed me to the words whose deep meaning had so often struck us on Jaeger's test card: "One cannot too

3. On which day in 1868 von Graefe's only son was born.
4. For the correspondence between Donders and Moleschott see Janus, 1915, vol. 20, pp. 174, 409.

early experience how dispensable one is in the world."

At the end of June, 1862, the convalescent was for the first time in a position to write personally to his friend: "Yet how immeasurably great is the contrast between what after the long difficult time my heart holds for you and what my hand, at the present moment still weak, is able to accomplish . . . In the sunshine of recovery after a hard desperate illness, all good and noble impulses, which life alas so easily represses, spring up with original power out of the human heart; we feel the impotence of seeming possession and the value of real possession better than in healthier days. We are drawn to those in whose hearts we feel that we have a home."

And a short time later, when Donders has submitted to him his work on astigmatism: "Ought I to deny how proud I am over the dedication of Astigmatism? It is in the first place the honor which you have bestowed upon me, in that such an author has put my name on his title page, and then the joy which I derived from the contents of the work in which your creative and so happily organized mind instructs us in the most unmistakable fashion; but lastly it is the touching friendship and love which you express to me in the introductory words, through which so entirely after your own fashion you succeed in elevating me and spurring me on. On this occasion I again felt and knew how much more precious it is to be recognized and befriended by one whom we love and respect than to be praised by the multitude, even by our so-called colleagues.

"The true scientific sense, which has its roots in the thing itself and finds its starting point and objective in the striving for understanding, has been, we will freely confess, the portion of very few men; almost all of them snatch only at enrichment in honor and reward, and regard thru other and smaller eyes the things which did not originate with themselves. But for this reason the spirit attaches itself more firmly and intimately to the forms of those within whose bosoms a higher impulse dwells and whose spiritual life has broken for them the road to higher spheres. Thus do you, my dear friend, prosper on in your sphere with vigorous wingbeats, and if it can cheer you to animate and impel others by your own motive power, be assured that I shall follow you unceasingly and always gather up gratefully the seeds which you scatter so generously and prodigally. Although I always have a longing to be in communication with you and to receive new impulses from you, at this moment this desire has reached its highest point. What have I not gone thru since you sat at my bed and read in my eyes that I believed myself to be taking a last farewell from you?"

In the summer of 1863, after a preliminary convalescence, von Graefe was married. Donders was a witness in Berlin of the first happy years of married life. Companion in joy and sorrow, he received the enraptured words of his friend concerning the first little daughter: "If you could only once see her, how friendly she looks around and how agreeably she comprehends life. It is true that these are studies and observations of perfect bliss which every feeling human being experiences in similar fashion, and yet each one surrenders himself to the illusion that he is illuminated by an altogether special ray of luck."

And when after a visit of Donders in Berlin in the year 1865 a little daughter dies, the touching plaint reaches him: "Our child is not dead . . . but hope is. The evening hour which you passed with us was the last gleam of light . . . Tears, only tears, still fall on the dear pale mouth. Commiserate with the friend in whose soul everything seems very dark and in his misfortune keep your thoughts true to him."

"The loss of my child came home to me terribly," writes von Graefe in the same year, "and the days in which one thread of hope after another was torn asunder were for myself a pitiful lingering death . . . If one is smitten by misfortune and cannot fully regain his equilibrium, neither is it given to us at such times to irradiate others har-

moniously; although we yearn for sympathy and help, we sink back continually into the gloomy key-note and shut ourselves up in ourselves. To this must be added that he who is sorely afflicted appears to himself as tho infected with a contagious disease; he also fears to infect and depress the soul that is healthy and erect, and the more so the closer he stands to him."

When a year later a new child is to occupy the empty place, von Graefe expresses the wish that Donders should come as godfather: "You had gone thru that terribly sad time with us and, with the true heart of a friend, had in such a way shared with us all our deep woe, that we thought you ought still to have a special association with the little newcomer who seemed destined to soften our grief." The thought of tieing a bond between Donders and his children is awakened anew as the years approach when Graefe's tottering health renders probable an early end—a distinct indication how highly von Graefe placed the character of his friend, to whom after his death he wished to intrust the guidance of his son: "It would appear to me almost presumptuous to disturb you in your rest on account of this little citizen of the world. But you must allow us—in case you do not bring to life the incredible beauty of an actual visit—to register you as a witness and place you in closer and lasting relation with our little offspring. You must also promise me at once on this occasion in case I should not live to see it, to be a faithful counsellor to him in his studies . . . If you come, I should in any case take care that in the succeeding days you will be compensated, by something ophthalmologic of interest, for the insignificance of the little man who calls you hither.

Many a remark in the correspondence is also devoted to the family life in Utrecht, which von Graefe so often witnessed. After the receipt "of a charming photograph" of Donders' daughter in the year 1867, von Graefe writes: "From your daughter's eyes your intellectual nature is so completely reflected. Shine on in full vigor, happy father! and joyfully drink into your own soul your youthful mirrored image! To beget life and from the created one to receive again new life, that is the blessed reciprocal arrangement of things in which the mortal feels himself immortal."

Scarcely three years later von Graefe, seriously ill, received the news of the death of Donders' only daughter[5]. Laboriously guiding his pen he wrote to his friend from the sick-bed: "This day on which I opened the unspeakably painful message will endure to me also as impenetrable night, for your happiness in your child was one of the best lamps of my life; so happily was it reflected over to myself when I saw your dear soul so completely filled by it . . . In vain I ask my wife to give me your letter once more. She sees how deeply I am suffering and refuses . . . Oh could I but convert your note into a feverish dream."

On the same day von Graefe writes in his last letter to Arlt in Vienna[6]: "What do you say to our Donders' frightful misfortune! . . . It is horrible, for he lived only in his Marie, on whom he focused in a certain measure his whole ego, not merely natural but also intellectual.. To me also the news was a heavy blow. I was fairly convalescent, now I have only to think about it, how unhappy, how plunged into deepest night is the man whom I know and wish to know only as irradiated with sunshine—and I am sure of an attack of fever. If among those who are dearest to him one sees only misfortune after misfortune break out, one asks himself at last, where then does the motive lie so to love and foster life? But enough, my cerebrum still totters."

The same thought, that the man whom he had learned to know progressively as a shining hero in life must not be broken by suffering, predominates in the letter which von Graefe

5. Married in the year 1869 to Dr. Th. Engelmann, later professor at the University of Utrecht 1871-1897, and of Berlin 1897-1909.

6. Von Graefe's letters to Ferd. von Arlt are published in the Wochenscrift für Therapie und Hygiene des Auges, vols. 12 and 13.

writes to his friend eight days before death: "The slightest thought thereof (of Donders' suffering) called all too vividly to my memory from bygone time the chain of all your expressions of happiness, beginning with our last talk on the walk from Inselbad; I saw you before me radiant with that gleam of happiness which I had fancied I should never have to see extinguished in your features, I heard your words concerning the intellectual character and entire activity of her who belonged to you so closely, and I was too ill to remember with any calmness the present state of affairs . . .

Von Graefe's death in the year 1870 brought the correspondence to an end.

The friendship of twenty years duration between Donders and von Graefe, interrupted by no discordant note, led —by reason of its fruitful mutual influence—to consequences which extend far beyond the bounds of the individual existence of these two great men.

What a deep, far-reaching influence proceeded from Donders, that with the flight of years the friend who had the world at his feet continued unchanged in his faithful reverence!

The man who as son-in-law was later to occupy such an important position in Donders' life, Dr. Th. Engelmann, also experienced the power of this influence when at his entrance into Holland, he wrote in the year 1867 to the Heidelberg anatomist Henle: "However great the leap from Germany to Holland, however radical the changes which one must allow to enter into his way of living, however unpleasantly above all the foreign language greets one at first, still even a nature which is little capable of adaptation must soon feel at home here if such good fortune falls to his lot as is that which intercourse with Donders affords. The spell which the personality of this man exerted upon me from the first moment, a spell whose beneficent fetters, as I perceive, will not easily fall away, causes me almost to forget that I am in a strange land."

Truly as a radiant figure did Donders in the broadest and most favorable sense dominate his environment.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA

February 5th, 1919

Col. Wm. J. Taylor,

PRESIDENT

Concussion and Contusion Injuries of the Eye in Warfare.

Lt. Col. George E. de Schweinitz discussed some of the results of these injuries, and the pathogenetic problems which they present illustrating his paper by diagrams and water colors showing fundus lesions. This paper will be published in full in a subsequent number.

Discussion: Captain George H. Cross: The markedly interesting picture presented in the ophthalmologic service in Hospital No. 11 at Cape May was the enormity of the hemorrhages or involvement of the fundus which masked temporarily the true condition. A long time after the injury there would be the appearance of a rupture but it was difficult to tell whether there was atrophy or rupture of the structures beneath. We had three cases of, so-called, "holes" in the macula, all due to injury of the skull and not directly to the eye.

We have at the present time another type of lesion in the case of a soldier with a piece of shrapnel about a centimeter square in the median line of the sphenoid, which penetrated straight in without injuring either eye

directly, but the visual fields are most unusually contracted. Externally the eyes are perfectly normal. In other cases the missile has struck the antrum injuring the orbital rim and floor. While the eyeball shows no external evidence of injury rare fundus conditions are found internally. In some cases the orbital rim and parts of the bony wall have been torn away but without injury to the eyeball itself, except displacing it from its normal position. Examination shows that there may be only light perception, with this peculiar condition of the fundus; in others a surprisingly large percentage of vision is retained. In one soldier the foreign body, while not injuring the globe directly, struck the rim of the orbit, traveling along the nasal side, finally landing in the orbital fat. The patient stated that when struck he became temporarily blind in both eyes; in three or four days he began to recover vision in the right eye, and when he arrived at Cape May the picture was that of a fine granular pigment in a triangular area below the disc, with no other evidence of injury. There was a perceptible diminution of vision in the field corresponding to the pigmented area noted in the fundus, but no scotoma was found, and no other pathologic condition.

Re-education of the Blind Soldiers.

Lieutenant Colonel James Bordley, Director, Red Cross Institute for the Blind, Baltimore, Md.: In an investigation of the wage earning pursuits of the civilian blind it was shown that the vast majority of the 85,000 blind in this country are dependent, in part or in whole, upon their friends, or the State; that in 100 cities 43 per cent. of the professional beggars are blind people; that the average wage of conscientious, willing, working blind men is about $4 per week, and that of the same type of blind women is about half as much.

Blind people have a very definite economic value when properly trained. More money is wasted each year in foolish charity that would be required to train and place our whole blind population. Few people know that there is not a single school of the vocational training of the adult blind in the United States, that there never has been devised a scientific scheme for their education and training and that not a single normal school trains teachers for the blind. The medical profession is not altogether blameless for the mental deterioration of many blind people; thru mistaken sympathy the blind are kept in ignorance of their real condition. The attitude of the family is often a most serious drawback to their occupational development.

The attitude of the public is responsible for much of the trouble of blind people, and it was primarily to overcome this attitude that St. Dunstan's in England, and Evergreen in this country were opened. They are not schools in the narrow sense, but rather, universities where the blind are taught hope and courage, trades and professions, ambition and success. The men there are not "poor dear blind boys," but strong, resolute, normal men expecting to win. The courses of instruction at Evergreen are divided into recreational, essential handwork, and vocational.

The blind man has more difficulty learning to play than to work, and for this purpose music, dancing, bowling, swimming, gymnasium exercises are available as indoor activities, and field events as outdoor sports. Included in the essential handwork is typewriting. Another essential study is the raised dot type of the blind—Braille. The usual schemes for developing the sense of touch are taught. As occupations of profit there are taught bookbinding, telephone operating, massage and other industrial and commercial subjects.

Included in the commercial course is the application of an experimental store, the advance agent of a chain of stores to be operated by and in the interest of our blinded military men. The experimental store in size, color, shape and fixtures is the model that has been adopted for all the stores, and from this experimental store at Evergreen the

men will be transferred to our experimental stores in the business section of Baltimore. These stores are to be called "The Victory Stores," meaning the defeat of gloom, despair and affliction of the blind man himself. Our plan for teaching industrial work for the blind was evolved by our having an industrial engineer make a survey of industry and by a process of elimination it was readily discovered what jobs the blind could best fill.

Research Work on the Problems of Aviation.

Major Walter B. Lancaster, Boston: For the study of the problems of flight the visual function may be divided into the purely sensory or percipient, the adjusting mechanism, and the psychic side of vision. Sensory functions withstand the strain of asphyxiation and fatigue without breakdown. Under this head are the retinal functions of light sense, color sense, form sense. The adjusting mechanisms are three: Fixation, focusing, adaptation to light. These are rather complex functions, and are likely to break down under strain; whether they will or not in a given case depends upon whether any defect is present, and on how well the defect is compensated, some defects being better compensated than others. To insure the best compensation the mental and physical conditions must be maintained at their best, hence the importance of the "care of the flier."

The psychic side of vision includes stereoscopic vision and various matters of judgment and discrimination based on visual perception. They are not much affected by asphyxiation and fatigue. Investigations are now being carried on regarding stereoscopic vision, and other methods of estimating distances at long range, as to light sense and adaptation, as to accommodation speed, and as to the relative value of different ways of measuring heterophoria.

Major Meyer Wiener read a paper entitled The Army School of Ophthalmology, which will be published in full in this Journal.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE

Section of Ophthalmology

February 5th

Mr. W. T. Holmes Spicer, M.B.

President.

Retinal Changes Following Injury.

Mr. A. C. Hudson exhibited a case of retinal degeneration following the entry of an intraocular foreign body. The appearance seen was that of folds in the internal limiting membrane of the retina, as he took the location to be such. Some of the lines passed in front of certain retinal arteries; they also had a faint stippled appearance, both factors supporting his view that the seat was the internal limiting membrane of the retina. He did not regard them as folds in the retina itself. He thought they were pathologic.

The optic disc showed signs of having been edematous, and he thought there had been edema of the whole retina and optic disc. He had seen another instance in a case of retinitis pigmentosa, the folds in that case having occurred as a result of traction in the retina; likewise in a case of contusion of the whole macula. In this last case the retina appeared to be absent, except the portion which was represented by the double contour line. He regarded the lines as exactly analagous to the peculiar double lines to be often seen in the posterior capsule after cataract extraction; and to those seen in the cornea in striate keratitis following injury, again due to the folding of a thin elastic membrane, Descemet's.

Discussion—Mr. J. Herbert Fisher said that supporting the idea that there was here a new formation, was the fact that the man was definitely blind in his remaining eye for a considerable time after he was hit. That suggesed a definite lesion, probably in the fundus oculi; and as there was ecchymosis on the anterior part of the globe, probably the central edema was considerable.

Mr. A. W. Ormond thought the swelling was much greater in the upper than in the lower part of the disc, and he regarded it as pathologic.

Ivory Exostosis of Orbit.

Mr. William Lang and Colonel Donald Armour showed a young man from whom Colonel Armour had removed an ivory exostosis of the orbit through the cranium. Colonel Armour said the surgical problem in this case was one of operative approach i. e., by what means the tumour could be reached and completely removed without doing damage to the cranial or orbital contents, and quite secondarily, to ensure that there should not be much disfigurement afterwards.

After seeing the skiagram, he concluded that the best approach would be through an osteoplastic flap turned over the frontal region, with its base at the supraorbital margin, turning down scalp and bone together. He did so, and that gave him a view of the cranial portion of the tumour, which was found to be indenting the undersurface of the frontal lobe. On pushing brain and dura gently back, he could see the whole extent of the cranial portion of the tumour. It at first appeared to be fixed to the supraorbital margin, but it was not so.

It was removed mainly by hammer and chisel, but the orbital roof portion was got away by means of cutting forceps, piecemeal. Complete recovery ensued; very little scarring remained, vision was normal, and there was neither diplopia nor fundus change. The tumour must have been growing from the frontal sinus. There was no evidence that the operator had broken into that sinus; he was looking out for such a contingency, from the point of view of possible sepsis, and also impediment to respiratory movements. On the day following the operation, however, and for a day or two succeeding, there was some escape of blood from the nostril. But the frontal sinus was evidently aseptic, as there was no further happening. The operator was congratulated by several speakers.

Tumor of Orbit.

Mr. J. F. Cunningham showed a case of cartilaginous tumor of the roof of the orbit. Colonel Armour advised operation.

Angioma of Retina.

Mr. Elmore Brewerton exhibited an instance of angioma of retina. The pathology was somewhat difficult, but he considered it a cavernous angioma. He gave his reasons for believing that the distension of veins was mechanical, and that the disease was in the lower oval swelling in the periphery. Such cases were practically never seen in old age. He regarded it as a congenital faulty development of the capillaries in that part of the retina, that these capillaries dilated into cavernous spaces, and there ensued an oval limited area of angioma. The prognosis in the case he did not regard as favourable; the vein would probably, sooner or later, begin to leak, indeed there was already slight exudation. The patient would probably have an intraocular hemorrhage, which might clear up, but a second one would result in the loss of his sight.

Mr. A. W. Ormond thought these cases were interesting on account of the other eye. A patient of his told him he had an eye removed at five years of age for a suspected growth. The condition was somewhat similar to what Coats described as massive exudation of the retina.

Hereditary Optic Atrophy.

Dr. James Taylor read a short communication on "Changes in the Sella Turcica in Association with Leber's Atrophy." The changes were very evident by the epidiascopic demonstration, especially in the posterior and anterior glenoid fossa. The paper seemed to confirm the thesis of Mr. Herbert Fisher, that these ocular and intracranial alterations were associated with definite sexual changes.

The President considered the paper an advance. Ogilvie's enquiry into the high infantile death-rate in families afflicted with Leber's atrophy seemed to point the way for further light.

Mr. J. Herbert Fisher reminded members that his contention was that Leber's optic atrophy was probably due to implication of visual pathways by the pituitary body, which at the time was undergoing excessive

changes, either in development or decline. He had since had a remarkable case in which all the symtoms came on in a woman aged 37 soon after her menopause at that age, and there also the sella turcica was definitely altered in comparison with the normal. If his thesis was correct, he did not know why separate, sporadic cases should not occur. Ogilvie's investigation seemed to make likely that the high infantile mortality might be due to syphilitic taint.

Fundus Drawings.

Captain W. Wallace gave an interesting exhibition, by the epidiascope, of numerous drawings he had made of fundus changes resulting from war injuries. He offered his whole collection, which he had been working at for many years, to the profession, and Professor Herbert Parsons expressed the hope that they might be made the nucleus of an ophthalmologic atlas as a record of ophthalmologic work done during the war.

Sympathetic Ophthalmitis.

Mr. Foster Moore read a paper on a case of sympathetic ophthalmitis, with fundus changes. He said that sympathetic ophthalmitis was of rare occurrence during the war, therefore every case was worth recording. In this case, the fundus changes developed during the progress of the disease, and were visible throughout. The man had a penetrating wound of the right eye, and presented himself with a prolapse of the iris and ciliary body. The prolapse was removed on the seventh day after the wound and the eye was taken out a fortnight later.

The first sign of anything amiss with the left eye occurred 20 days after enucleation of the right, in the form of slight mistiness. Two days later, when Mr. Foster Moore saw him, there was slight tenderness on palpating the eye, and a fine deep haze was present in the lower part of the cornea. The fundus was normal, but there was some distention of veins. The appearance of the central part, around the stump of the optic nerve, caused the author to suspect that uvea had been left behind; but it was found that the eye had been cleanly removed and there was no uveal pigment left.

Six weeks after the original wound there was a fresh crop of keratitis punctata spots. The blood count was normal. Skiagraphy did not reveal any foreign body; Wassermann was negative. There was a marked increase in the keratitis punctata, but later that disappeared, though it subsequently reappeared. Five doses of neosalvarsan were given.

The writer exhibited drawings showing the degree of keratitis punctata, which were made by Mr. Frank Juler. He did not think the mercury had any influence on the disease. That also was the view of a special committee of the Ophthalmological Society appointed to consider the subject of sympathetic ophthalmitis, for they said they did not consider that mercurial inunctions had any decidedly bad effect on sympathetic ophthalmitis.

H. Dickinson.

OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SECTION
BALTIMORE CITY MEDICAL SOCIETY

Meeting at Presbyterian Hospital
February 19, 1919

Operation for Closed Pupil.

Dr. Herbert Harlan exhibited a woman in whose case he used the De Wecker's scissors for operating upon a closed pupil following cataract extraction, with very good visual results. He stated that it was his experience that this method gave much better and more permanent results than any other which he had used.

Buphthalmos.

Dr. Harlan also exhibited a child with buphthalmos for which he performed an iridectomy. So far as he could see there had been no change in the eye since operation. He also reported a case of buphthalmos following interstitial keratitis, for which he had performed a cilio-optical neurotomy.

The eye appeared somewhat smaller although it had only been two weeks since the operation.

Operation for Strabismus.

Dr. Catlin presented a case of convergent strabismus which had been operated upon by the Briggs' tucking method. The results were very satisfactory.

In discussion Dr. Harlan stated that he was very well pleased with this method of operation.

Neuro-retinitis.

Dr. Fleming showed a case of neuro-retinitis, with star shaped exudate at the macula, in a young man of twenty-seven with visual acuity of 20/50; in whom all tests had been negative.

In discussion it was suggested that a provocative Wasserman be done, and a spinal puncture.

Pemphigus of Conjunctiva.

Dr. C. A. Clapp exhibited a case of extensive conjunctival degeneration with involvement of the cornea in a man of seventy, who gave a rather indefinite history of trouble with his eyes since fourteen years of age, with operation on the lids for entropion at that time. The right eye showed numerous bands across each fornix, with superficial vascularization of cornea and vision of 5/200. The left eye presented the same condition about the fornices, but with a dense white opacity of leather-like appearance over the cornea, which was exceedingly dry. In spite of numerous diagnoses of trachoma, he held that the case was one of pemphigus in the late stages, which did not exhibit the blisters that occurred in the early stages. Dr. Harlan confirmed his diagnosis.

Detachment of Retina.

Dr. Janney exhibited a case of bilateral detachment, in a young man of twenty, with negative Wassermann and other findings. In discussion it was suggested that he also have a provocative Wassermann.

No further business, meeting adjourned.

C. A. Clapp, *Secretary.*

SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA

December 19, 1918

Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler,

Acting Chairman.

Metastatic Uveitis.

Dr. Charles R. Heed detailed clinical notes of a case of bilateral metastatic infection of the uveal tract in a boy during the course of cerebrospinal meningitis, due to the meningococcus. The patient, aged ten years, complained of poor vision four days after the onset of the disease. First examination of eyes showed a marked yellowish exudate covering the pupillary space, with turbidity of aqueous, discolored irides and pupils fixed. Tension plus one, and vision reduced to light perception in each eye. The inflammation progressed for three days and then began to subside. On the eighth day the aqueous was clear, exudate less dense and vision, right eye, hand movements, left eye, counting fingers at eight inches. Improvement continued, and two months after first examination there was a very moderate circumcorneal injection, a few tags of posterior synechia and several dots on Descemet's membrane. The fundus reflex clearing showed a few vitreous opacities, the optic discs showing evidence of a previous neuritis, and far forward there were areas of a low-grade choroiditis. The unusual restoration of vision in this case is credited to four intraspinal injections of meningococcic serum.

Dr. William M. Sweet stated that he saw the case at the height of the inflammation. At that time the exudation in the right eye covered the pupillary area and a portion of the iris to the nasal side. In the left eye the exudation was less in amount. The light perception was poor in both eyes, and in the right eye was uncertain except in the upper outer quadrant. Dr. Sweet regarded the improvement in vision as remarkable in view of the amount of exudative inflammation.

A Case Showing a V-Shaped Iridotomy.

Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler exhibited a patient with membranous occlusion of the pupil in right eye, following postoperative infection of a complicated cataract. There was a history of iritis twenty-five years previous, with exclusion of pupil. When first seen the operated eye was still congested, but this was controlled by positive galvanism. On November 22, 1918, a V-shaped iridotomy was performed with the Ziegler knife-needle entering the corneoscleral junction above and making two long converging incisions in the iridocapsular membrane from below upward. The pupil opened up freely in the form of a triangle with base downward. Vision = 2/200. Refraction gave 20/70 with S + 11.D = C + 1.D Ax. 110° and J-12 with S + 3.D added. A faint opalescent reflex over the vitreous surface, exposed in the artificial pupil, suggests the possibility that an adventitious hyaloid membrane may be forming. If the suspicion proves correct this membrane will be incised in the hope of improving the vision.

On November 30, 1918, the cataract in the left eye was extracted, first inserting a modification of Kalt's suture in order to quickly close the globe and protect it against infection. Double-threaded needles were inserted, one in the sclera above the proposed incision and the other in the cornea just below it. A Graefe knife was passed between the threads, a large section of adherent iris was excised and the lens quickly removed. The lens was semitransparent but the nucleus was hard. The cortex did not escape freely, owing to its gluey character. The corneal suture was drawn taut and tied, thus making a firm self-supporting mattress suture. The field of operation was treated as an open wound with free irrigation and applications of ice pads. Altho some flakes of muco-pus were several times noted, there was no infection or other untoward symptom. There is considerable swollen cortical, but this is absorbing slowly. A secondary capsulotomy will, of course, be required later.

Injury from Rat Poison.

Dr. McCluney Radcliffe reported a case of loss of eye, the result of an explosion of a tin of "Common Sense" rat poison.

While the patient was prying off the lid of the can it exploded with sufficient force to break her spectacle lens and cut a jagged wound in the cornea, the iris prolapsing.

The incarcerated iris was excised, and the wound closed.

The lens was cataractous, and finally panophthalmitis developed, necessitating enucleation of the eyeball. On section of the ball a wedged-shaped piece of glass, 8 mm. long, 3 mm. wide and 2 mm. thick, was found in the vitreous just back of the lens. The vitreous was filled with pus.

Conjunctival Scars from Inherited Lues.

Dr. J. Milton Griscom exhibited a girl, aged seven years, who had unusually well-marked facial and dental signs of congenital syphilis. She also had prominent areas of scar tissue on the conjunctival surface of both upper and lower lids. These resembled the scars seen after trachoma, but there were no signs of previous corneal involvement or evidence of distortion of the lids. Both parents were free from any evidence of trachoma, and it was considered that the conjunctival scars were the result of a prenatal syphilitic infection, with the probable formation of conjunctival gummata previous to birth.

Division of Head Surgery. — (Office of the Surgeon-General, with Special Reference to Ophthalmology.)

Colonel Walter R. Parker presented by invitation a very interesting and instructive paper which will be published in full in this Journal.

Discussion. Lieutenant-Colonel de Schweinitz, supplementing Colonel Parker's address on the activities of the Division of Surgery of the Head, and referring entirely to the Section

of Ophthalmology of the Medical Corps of the United States Army, spoke of the endeavor which had been constantly present to keep the ophthalmic personnel at a high standard of efficiency. To this end, in addition to the camp instruction to which Colonel Parker had referred, and the various addresses which had been made during camp inspections, the School of Ophthalmology in connection with United States General Hospital No. 14 at Fort Oglethorpe, was founded during the summer. It had been in contemplation for a long time, but the actual organization did not take place until July of the present year. This school had afforded the opportunity, because of the qualifying examinations which were necessary for entrance, as well as the qualifying examinations which were required at the end of a four weeks' intensive training course to remain in the ophthalmic work of the army, of greatly improving the selection of those men needed to fill the various ophthalmic positions. The abundant material used in teaching, as well as the carefully planned operative course and the cooperative work with the other departments of the hospital, for example, in neurology, urology, general medicine, oral and plastic surgery, had made it possible to develop a work which was the equivalent of any high-grade postgraduate ophthalmic course in the country and in point of fact, in many respects was superior to it. After the school had been fully organized it was placed in charge of Major Meyer Wiener, and he and his associates had done admirable work.

Colonel de Schweinitz briefly referred to the opportunities that had been his own to study the types and needs of war ophthalmic work in France during the fall and winter of 1917 and 1918, and the observations made there had been incorporated as much as possible in the work on this side of the water. He did not attempt to describe the very complete organization of the ophthalmic work of the A. E. F., in charge of Lieutenant-Colonel Greenwood, ably assisted by Lieutenant-Colonels Black and Derby. Doubtless these officers would on their return make full description of their work. Colonel de Schweinitz paid a high tribute to the skill and effectiveness with which Colonel Parker had conducted his duties as Chief of the Division of Surgery of the Head in the Surgeon General's Office.

Fatty Degeneration of the Cornea.

Dr. Burton Chance exhibited a woman, aged sixty-eight years. The disease was first noticed about a year ago, altho no cause could be assigned for it by the patient. The area was elliptical in outline and occupied the lower hemisphere of the left cornea. The horizontal diameter was about 6 mm., the vertical 4 mm. The plaque was yellow and greatly resembled the appearance of highly polished old ivory. It lay beneath the epithelium and was quite distinctly demarcated from the healthy cornea. In the relation between it and the sound tissue it might have been likened to the lunule of the finger nail, but so distinctly did it appear that at a distance, so solid was it, it might have been mistaken for a dislocated calcareous lens in the anterior chamber. The epithelium at the center had become eroded by a stiff eyelash in the lower lid. This irritation had excited injection and had caused a fine leash of vessels to extend over the surface from the lower limbus. Elsewhere there were no blood vessels. There were no other signs of disease. The area had given rise to no symptoms other than blurred sight as the mass extended quite above the pupillary border.

It is likely that the disease arose from long continued irritation of the surface of the cornea by distorted eyelashes.

J. Milton Griscom, M. D.,
Clerk.

ABSTRACTS

Raeder, G. Instrument for Measuring Depth of Anterior Chamber. (Thalamometer.) Norsk Magazine for Laegevidenskaben. 1918. p. 862.

Raeder in working to measure the depth of the anterior chamber with a binocular corneal microscope ascribes his varying results in the same patient at different examinations to the unconscious movement of the patient in the interval between the focusing of the instrument on the anterior surface of the cornea and the later focusing on the edge of the iris.

To overcome this difficulty he has constructed a single tube instrument by which the focusing on the two points (cornea and iris) is done *simultaneously*. This is accomplished by leading the rays from one-half of the field of the microscope thru a series of adjustable prisms allowing the images of the cornea and the iris to fall in the same perpendicular plane and thus to be seen by the observer's eye at the same time. The depth of the chamber is read off directly on a scale attached to one of the prisms. Accuracy up to 0.1 mm. is claimed. The surface of the cornea is brought into view by dusting it with finely powdered calomel or xeroform.

Since the anterior surface of the lens is difficult to observe, the edge of the pupil is used as the point of fixation.

Corrections are made for variations due to differences in the size of the pupil.

D. L. Tilderquist.

Frenkel, H. The Traumatic Syndrome of the Anterior Segment of the Eye. Ann. d' Ocul., Feb., 1918, v. 155, p. 78.) Frenkel describes 66 cases, of which 58 were war injuries, consisting of 7 shot, 40 shell, 3 grenade, 2 torpedo, 1 gun cap. The civil accidents were 2 splinters of wood, 1 piece of rock, 2 horse's foot, 2 fists, 2 falls and 2 whips. The following symptoms were found: Periocular lesion—7 supero-external orbital margin, 20 supero-internal, 9 inferior, 1 zygomatic arch, 10 root of the nose, 1 ala of the nose, 1 ridge of the nose, 13 upper lid, 11 lower lid, 4 forehead, 5 cheek and face.

The *cornea* is always intact in this syndrome. In most recent cases there is hyphemia, the anterior chamber is deeper than normal, 31, some in toto, some in part; diminished in 22, some in toto, some in part.

The iris showed: (a) Rents; iridodialysis 23, perforation 29, rarefaction of tissue 8, rupture of the pupillary margin 1, dilatation of the pupillary margin 1, partial atrophy of the pupillary margin 1, notching of the pupillary margin 1, detachment of the iris 1, atrophy of the iris 1.

(b) Semicircular folding of the iris 8, 1 double.

(c) Trembling 23.

Pupil—Changes were: (a) Form—mydriasis 52, racket shaped 9, oval 16, round 5, deformed 14, festooned margin 5.

(b) Dislocation—21 cases in various directions.

(c) Reaction—Feeble 13, very feeble 8, abolished to light 22, to accommodation 21, partial below only 1, temporal side only, 1.

Dislocations of the Lens—(a) With rotation above and anteriorly 1.

(b) Anteroposteriorly, 12.

(c) Frontally, 25.

(d) Combination, 9.

(e) Not indicated, 19.

Cataract — (a) Stationary — anterior subcapsular, 35; posterior subcapsular, 5; perinuclear, 9; equatorial, 2.

(b) Progressive—Total, 2; intumescent, 2; operated, 3; spontaneously absorbed, 1.

Complications — Traumatic retinochoroiditis, 12; detachment of the retina, 5; vitreous opacities, 6; atrophy of nerve, 4; posterior, 5; increase of tension, 1, following anterior dislocation of the lens; strabismus, 5; facial paralysis, 1.

Diminution of visual acuity was an almost constant factor, independent of lesions of the posterior part of the eye. It was probably in great part due to dislocation of the lens. In 37 cases it was below 1/20, in the remainder it ranged from 1/10 to 8/10. Refractive errors in the injured eye were M. 1, H. 6, H. Ast. 1. The accommodation showed nothing distinctive.

Altho some of the lesions found are due to indirect violence, those of the iris and lens are most probably due to direct action on the region of the zonula of Zinn, the force being applied obliquely. After the blood is absorbed from the anterior chamber, the state of the eye remains stationary, except for the development of an occasional cataract. Sight is always poor, even after cataract operation. Treatment consists in measures to promote the absorption, of the hyphemia, dionin, subconjunctival injections, cataract operation, and treatment of the periocular injury.

C. L.

A. Frias Oñate. Cocain in Ophthalmic Practice. Revista de Medicina y Cirugía de la Habana, Nov. 10, 1918.

The author mentions several cases of serious collapse from the use of 10 per cent solution of cocain. Frias thinks that the 3 and 4% solutions are not sufficient to produce anesthesia. The author believes that fresh solutions should be used every time, and he states that the collapse is probably not due to an emotion on the part of the patient, but to the fact that old solutions are used. Frias states that he uses in his ophthalmic operations a solution 20 per cent in strength, which (no doubt) gives him a perfect anesthesia. Nervous patients, old people and children, should put the eye surgeon on guard.

F. M. Fernandez.

Rasquin, E. Charts for the Determination of Professional Visual Acuity and Vision for Military Service. (Ann. d' Ocul., Mar., 1918. v. 155, p. 117) defines the *minimum visible angle* as the smallest angle under which the luminous object is visible, and the *minimum sparable angle* that which permits two neighboring points to be distinguished. The former is smaller than the latter and depends on the intensity of the illumination, while the latter depends on the elements of the retina and is equal to one minute. Based upon this, numerous well known test charts have been constructed. But for the purpose of estimating the loss of vision for work, for the estimation of damages and for the granting of pension, a chart is needed which shall fill two conditions: (1) It shall be composed of characters recognizable by all and constructed according to ophthalmologic principles; and (2) It shall furnish a uniform gradation appropriate to the requirements. The broken rings of Landolt adopted by the VI Int. Congress, at Naples, is theoretically correct and adapted to most cases, but in the case of unintelligent patients localization is sometimes very difficult, especially the oblique directions, e. g., 45%, etc.

For various reasons the author rejects other forms of test cards in use, and describes the ones he advocates. Starting with the assumption that visual acuity diminishes in arithmetic ratio while the visual angle increases in geometric, he has constructed three scales or charts, one composed of letters and figures (Snellen); one of E, but with all three bars of equal length, turned up, down, right or left; and one squares with a break in the upper or lower, right or left side. He prefers the first two in estimating the loss of capacity for work. The chart consists of 12 lines, the first 11 increasing by geometrical progression at a ratio of 1.2231, representing vision from 0.1 to 0.75, the 12th line is so constructed that the image is partly extra macular and indicates a vision of 0.05. The chart should be read at a distance of 5 M.

Below is given a scale for estimating, in general, the visual acuity, according to the chart. To determine the partial incapacity of the patient, count the number of lines between the upper and lower limits of acuity for his work which gives the denominator of a frac-

tion the numerator of which is the difference between that number and the position of the line which the patient can read below the upper limit for his work. For example, the patient has an occupation which requires an acuity of between 1/2 and 1/20. The scale shows 9 lines between the upper and lower limits. The professional acuity for this occupation is therefore divided into ninths. If he reads the third line which follows the upper limit he possesses $\frac{9-3}{6}$ =6/9 profession-acuity.

Linear Dimension		Distance at which line should be read	Physiologic visual acuity	Professional Visual Acuity			
				Professional visual requirements			"War"
Letters	Parts			High	Medium	Low	
7.27 mm.	1.46 mm.	5.00 M.	1	1	1	1	1
9.72 mm.	1.94 mm.	6.67 M.	0.75	1	1	1	1
11.87 mm.	2.37 mm.	8.16 M.	0.61	9/10	1	1	11/12
14.52 mm.	2.90 mm.	9.98 M.	0.5	8/10	9/10	1	10/12
17.76 mm.	3.55 mm.	12.21 M.	0.41	7/10	8/10	9/10	9/12
21.72 mm.	4.34 mm.	14.93 M.	0.33	6/10	7/10	8/10	8/12
26.56 mm.	5.31 mm.	18.26 M.	0.27	5/10	6/10	7/10	7/12
32.49 mm.	6.50 mm.	22.34 M.	0.22	4/10	5/10	6/10	6/12
39.74 mm.	7.95 mm.	27.32 M.	0.18	3/10	4/10	5/10	5/12
48.66 mm.	9.71 mm.	33.42 M.	0.15	2/10	3/10	4/10	4/12
59.46 mm.	11.89 mm.	40.88 M.	0.12	1/10	2/10	3/10	3/12
72.72 mm.	14.54 mm.	50.00 M.	0.1	0	1/10	2/10	2/12
145.44 mm.	29.08 mm.	100.00 M.	0.05	0	0	1/10	1/12

C. L.

Dimmer, War Injuries and Sympathetic Ophthalmia. Klin. Monatsb. f. Augenheilk., v. 57, p. 257.

Sympathetic ophthalmia has certainly occurred only very rarely during the present war. In the clinical material of the Vienna University Eye Clinic, not one case had been noted up to July, 1916.

v. Grosz had not seen a single case of sympathetic ophthalmia during the first year of the war. The number of injuries included in his report is very large. He saw 406 injuries from rifle bullets, of which 145 cases became blind in one eye and 40 in both eyes. In 168 cases of shrapnel injuries, unilateral blindness resulted 121 times and bilateral blindness 15 times. One hundred and eighteen injuries were due to explosion; in 69 of these, one eye alone became blind and in 7 both eyes. Further, there were 31 contusions, among which were 12 scleral ruptures and 8 stab wounds, with unilateral blindness in 5 cases. Two hundred and fifty-four eyes were enucleated: 158 of these were bullet injuries, 59 shrapnel injuries, 31 explosion injuries, 4 scleral ruptures, and 4 stab wounds.

Salzman in Graz has not observed any sympathetic ophthalmia among those injured in the war. Uhthoff treated 252 direct injuries of the eyeball, among wounded soldiers with total blindness in 48 percent of these eyes. Uhthoff saw no case of sympathetic ophthalmia. R. Oleynik in a report on eye injuries, makes the direct statement that no case of sympathetic ophthalmia had been observed.

Positive cases of sympathetic ophthalmia following injuries in the present war are reported by Birch-Hirschfeld, M. Sachs and Krusius. Birch-Hirschfeld reports an injury by a splinter of a bomb, 18 days before the case came to the hospital. The eye showed a mild iridocyclitis; few precipitates on Descemet's membrane; cataract; globe slightly tender to the touch; and movements visible directly in front of the eye. Enucleation was resorted to at once. Two days later, the fellow eye

showed typical signs of sympathetic disease. M. Sachs made an oral report of a case. The eye was enucleated late, and shortly after the enucleation, typical sympathetic disease appeared in the fellow eye. The statements of Krusius are too general to permit of any definite conclusions.

v. Grosz, Jessop and de Lapersonne refer to the great number of cases of sympathetic ophthalmia during the Franco-Prussian war, 1870-71. Grosz remarks, that this disease claimed many victims during the Franco-Prussian war as compared to the present war.

Dimmer noted the striking disproportion between the large number of cases of sympathetic ophthalmia during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71 and the very few cases observed in the present war; but could not convince himself, that this could be attributed to the better treatment of the eye injuries today. He questioned whether all the cases published in the war of 1870-71 were really sympathetic ophthalmia, and what was the character of the process in those cases which can be regarded with certainty as sympathetic ophthalmia.

In the Military Report of the German Army in the war with France, 1870-71 Dimmer found recorded 99 cases of sympathetic ophthalmia among the German wounded. After a careful study of the histories of these cases, he comes to the conclusion: that among the 99 recorded, not a single case of undoubted sympathetic ophthalmia can be found; and that the statements in the literature concerning the large number of sympathetic ophthalmias in the German army in the war of 1870 and the resulting great number of cases of blindness, should be rectified, since the reports at hand show, that altho sympathetic irritations were observed repeatedly, not one case of undoubted sympathetic ophthalmia could be ascertained.

Returning to the question of sympathetic ophthalmia in the present war, he repeats that this disease certainly occurs very rarely, and that this is by no means inconsistent with conditions in the war of 1870-71, as shown by a study of the case histories. He urges that the question of sympathetic ophthalmia among the injured in the present war be studied more minutely with especial reference to the following points: The question of the sanitary measures, and the question of pathogenesis of sympathetic ophthalmia. Some of the results of the investigations will yield information in both directions. If, for instance, we determine the period of time between the injury and the enucleation, we are informed on the one hand, whether the injured were properly treated, and on the other hand, it will be of scientific interest, should it be shown that sympathetic ophthalmia was observed, altho rarely, notwithstanding the fact that the injured eyes in a large number of instances were removed in due time.

Reviewing the war injuries of his clinic, with reference to the time that had elapsed between the injury and the enucleation, he found the following: The total number of enucleations was 142, including cases enucleated elsewhere which came to the clinic for examination. Of these, 60 were gunshot injuries, 16 bombshell, 36 shrapnel, 3 stone splinter, 8 hoof kick, 5 stone cast 3 bayonet stab, 1 cartridge, 1 explosion, 1 glass, 1 tree branch, 1 blow. In 11 of these cases the date of the injury could not be obtained, so that the interval between the injury and the enucleation was ascertained in 131. Of these 22 were enucleated within the first 2 weeks after injury; 46 cases, 2 to 4 weeks; 24 cases, 4 to 8 weeks; 20 cases, 6 to 8 weeks, and 19 cases still later than 8 weeks. This shows that in a very large number of cases (83.2 per cent), enucleation was resorted to later than absolute protection against sympathetic ophthalmia is to be expected.

Dimmer gives the following possible reasons for the rare occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmia among war injuries: 1. Enucleation is resorted to within a shorter space of time after the injury. 2. The healthy condition of the wounded soldier may make him less susceptible to the disease.

Schirmer has shown that sympathetic ophthalmia generally appears within the first year after the injury, and usually after the fourth week; most frequently between the sixth and the twelfth week after the injury. If it could be shown in a very large number of war injuries that sympathetic ophthalmia was observed almost without exception where the injured eye was removed relatively late, i. e., after the sixth week; and if the number of sympathetic ophthalmias is about the same as that which we ordinarily find after injuries or eye diseases which are prone to cause sympathetic ophthalmia, then we would have to conclude: that the marked reduction in the number of sympathetic ophthalmias in war injuries is due to timely enucleation, a fact that would deserve the widest publication.

If the rare occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmia in war injuries, is not due to the early enucleation, but to internal causes, then an explanation of this fact would have to be looked for. There may be a certain predisposition on the part of some individuals; poorly nourished patients and lymphatic children are prone to the disease. Changes in the blood were reported by Ormond and later verified by others.

If internal causes are to be accepted as a reason for the rare occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmia in the war injuries, the physical fitness of the soldier deserves consideration; and whether or not some general condition, overlooked at the time of medical examination, or which developed later in the course of the war, could be responsible in those cases which have acquired sympathetic ophthalmia.

Antonio Alonso. Langrange's and Elliot's Operations in Glaucoma. (III National Medical Congress of Mexico. Puebla, 1918.)

The author gives full credit to Lagrange for the priority of the idea of deliberately forming a subconjunctival fistula for the relief of glaucoma, Holth's method with the punch hole and Elliot's trephine being only varieties of technic. He quotes at large the investigations made on animals' eyes by Rochon-Duvigneaud and Bonnefon, from which it has been proved that the loss of substance in the sclera and also in the cornea, have a great tendency to cicatrization, according to the ordinary laws of physiology.

In glaucomatous eyes, however, the conditions which are necessary for obtaining a good subconjunctival filtration and a permanent reduction of the intraocular tension are not yet known. Lagrange states that only the section in a longitudinal way of one of the borders of the scleral wound, can give constant and permanent results.

Elliot's operation is a good method, easily mastered, which must be applied especially in cases of malignant or hemorrhagic glaucoma, in which the section of the cornea, even a small one, is liable to great dangers for the eye, such as loss of vitreous, lens luxation and profuse or expulsive intraocular hemorrhage. Trephining is also indicated in chronic glaucomas and in some of the subacute and secondary types; but in acute glaucoma the best operation will always be the old von Graefe iridectomy.

According to Alonso, the conjunctival flap, as made by Elliot, is difficult to dissect without perforation. He has used with great advantage a flap made from the sclero-corneal margin backward, similar to that used by Dupuy-Dutemps and Van Lint for cataract extraction. Two lateral sutures are made in order to cover the wound. He recommends also instead of the Elliot's trephine the von Hippel automatic instrument, which is easily applied and without danger.

The paper ends with the report of 15 cases of trephining with good results, in several forms of glaucoma.

URIBE-TRONCOSO.

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ALLIES IN OPHTHALMOLOGY.

The idea of a world congress of ophthalmology, referred to last month, should not be lost sight of; but meanwhile, individual ophthalmologists who can visit the other side of the Atlantic, should try to attend the national ophthalmic associations of the countries they visit.

In Great Britain the Ophthamological Society of the United Kingdom will meet in London, May 1st to 3d. The special subject for discussion will be "Visual Requirements for Aviators;" and Col. Wilmer of Washington is expected to take a leading part. The Bowman Lecture will be given by Morax of Paris, and there will be visits to the blind and myopia schools and to the Central London Ophthalmic Hospital.

When the Oxford Congress meets July 10th to 12th, it is to be hoped that the congestion of ocean travel will be less extreme than it still is; and the opportunity for spending vacation weeks in the rural regions and resorts of Great Britain will again be open to American visitors. It is worth while this year to make a special effort to meet British ophthalmologists on their own ground.

Paris is still almost a closed city to casual visitors, but within the next few months, we may hope that conditions will be returning to near the normal; and in Paris and other continental centers, the ophthalmmologist will meet a new respect for all things American, and a cordiality of welcome rarely known before. The desire to get in closer touch with us is expressed in many ways in the letters received by the editors of the Journal.

A collaborator writes to one of the editors: "When shall we have the pleasure to see you in Paris? Clemenceau said the other day: 'We met as friends and will part as brothers.' You really cannot postpone a voyage to Europe." This is not merely personal, it is the invitation of French ophthalmologists toward their American confreres.

A still more detailed and emphatic invitation comes to another of our edi-

tors from London; it is an appeal that should be heard and heeded:

"I am writing to ask you if there is any chance of your being able to attend the Oxford Congress of Ophthalmology, this year. We have kept it in being right through the war, though it meant a sore struggle to do so. Now we want to open out again, and to recall its former triumphs and to excel them. You know our founder kept before him the ideals that this congress should be free from formality, that all should be welcome there, and that the youngest might speak and be sympathetically listened to by all alike. Above all our watchword is Internationalism. We want to see the peoples who stood by us in the fight for the world's freedom, gathered with us in profitable discussion and in friendly social intercourse. I want your help personally, because I admire your work so much, and the same is true of us all, as a council or as a congress. Will you come and will you do something; show us something new; give us a lecture, or a demonstration; do anything! If you really cannot come, will you try to interest some of your Chicago members to both come, and to do something. They will be sincerely welcomed. I hope you will both come and get others to do so.

"If there is one ideal dearer to me than any other, it is to cement the bonds that unite the Anglo-Saxon peoples, and all who speak the tongue of freedom. To me the English-speaking peoples should be one in sympathy, as they have shown themselves one in all that is best, in courage, in care for the weak, and in sacrifice of all they count dearest for the call of honour and right. Oxford is one of the opportunities of meeting and getting to know each other. Will you put your persuasive pen and your yet more persuasive mind to work to help on our meeting?

"The best of everything to you and to all my many friends under the Stars and Stripes."

The force of such an appeal to both the heart and intelligence must be felt by every American ophthalmologist.

E. J.

TRAINING FOR OPHTHALMIC PRACTICE.

Interest in this subject should not be confined to a few teachers of ophthalmology, and the relatively small proportion of medical graduates who are seeking such training as preparation for special practice. It is important to the whole medical profession and the whole community. The imperfect development of courses in ophthalmology, and their neglect by those who should avail themselves of them, impair the service that they should be fitted to render to physicians and their patients. There are especially important reasons why every one practicing ophthalmology should give active attention and thought to this matter.

When Germany decided that war should be used to achieve world domination, there were in attendance at her medical schools and clinics 298 students from America, of whom a relatively large proportion were studying ophthalmology. For five years this stream of students has been wholly interrupted. For many more years it will be impossible for German universities to give even such instruction as they have given in the past.

Anarchy and arson, war debts, the loss of old teachers, and the interrupted development of new ones, combine to bring about this change; while on the other side the feeling of disgust and contempt for the professors who prostituted their position in the world of science to serve imperial autocracy and militarism, are strongly operative.

Ophthalmology must be taught elsewhere than in the clinics of Germany, and it can best be done in the medical institutions of America. In bringing about a better appreciation of the needs for such teaching, and what such teaching should be, American ophthalmologists must do some active work.

The first thing to do in this direction is to get a general conception of what training for ophthalmic practice ought to be, and how impossible it has been to get the right kind of training in the past. In the last few months we have had numerous expressions with

regard to it. In this number are included two papers with regard to it, and three letters bearing upon it will be found in this issue under the head of correspondence.

The first letter is published without giving its author's name because he is out of the country, and because its significance cannot be appreciated without an explanation of how carefully this well known ophthalmologist had tried to prepare himself for his work. He was a college graduate before he studied medicine. He took a three years' course in medicine when the mass of students were graduating after two five months' courses of lectures. Then he served full terms as interne in one of the best known general hospitals of America, and in one of the largest eye hospitals. After that he studied many months in the great eye clinics of Europe.

Returning to this country, he quickly became the leading ophthalmologist in one of our large Eastern cities. His well used opportunities for special study were greater than those of most of us, yet they were so far below what we have a right to expect in the way of systematic training that he says: "Our generation picked up in the most casual manner what little we got to know."

The other letters were selected from among those which have come to the editor in the last few months, as showing independent views on this subject. One of them estimates the deficiencies of opportunities for ophthalmic training now offered in this country, even when selected with wise discrimination, and used with intelligence and earnestness. The other expresses a hope that has arisen among American ophthalmologists, that something will soon be done to establish schools for preparation for ophthalmic practice. A further account of the army school referred to in the third letter will be published in an early number of this Journal.

When we have gotten a conception of what training for ophthalmic practice ought to be, in this age of educational institutions, laboratories and hospitals, we ought to exert our influence as individuals and thru our organizations to see that the right sort of training is offered and that the inertia of tradition is overcome to utilize it.

In at least a dozen strong universities that have medical departments there should be established courses, chiefly laboratory, on physical and physiologic optics, and on the anatomy, histology, physiology, and pathology of the eye, and on the anatomy and physiology of the visual tracts and centers, and the principles of ocular diagnosis. These are not the only things that are needed in the training for ophthalmic practice; but they are the things that have been most neglected, and can be best taught with a good university equipment.

Every clinical school for teaching ophthalmology should call attention in its announcements to the importance of such courses as preliminary to clinical study. When the mass of its students come with such preparation for its clinical work, it will be able to give far more efficient and satisfactory courses of clinical instruction. The stronger, more ambitious postgraduate medical schools, supplied with fair laboratories, might well undertake to give such fundamental courses in ophthalmology within their own walls.

Every prospective student of ophthalmology as a branch for special practice, will seek the advice of some ophthalmologist as to the best course of study to pursue. Every ophthalmologist, conscious of the difficulties with which he has had to contend, should be ready to advise the student as to how and where he can spend his time, effort and money, to the best advantage to himself and the public he expects to serve. Every graduate in medicine can exert some influence with his Alma Mater or the university of his city or state, to bring about a practical recognition of the need of reasonable training for ophthalmic practice. All influence possible will be needed, to hasten such a desirable advance in the

method of making ophthalmologists, at this time when the students of the world are seeking new centers of medical teaching.

E. J.

DONDERS AND GRAEFE.

All we can learn of these great men must be of interest to ophthalmologists; and we are particularly fortunate in having the letters (published p. 277) which passed between them preserved and so adequately translated into English. Seldom have letters of such deep autobiographic interest been published.

It is interesting to note that Donders, Jaeger and Graefe met when they were all studying ophthalmology in London; and how the enthusiasm of the youngest, Graefe, flamed up in friendship for his older, more self-contained and balanced comrade. His enthusiasm and his appreciation of achievements, which, if greater, were less spectacular than his own, and attracting far less attention at the time, marks the true greatness of Graefe.

In these letters, which reveal the deep desires and hunger for comradeship on the part of the ophthalmologist, who, more than any other one, made Germany the great center for ophthalmic training, we can catch a glimpse of those springs of human action that usually remain deeply hidden in the individual life.

It may be regretted that the corresponding letters of Donders have been destroyed with something of that disregard for all that is of other than German origin that has been creeping like a palsy on the scientific life of Germany since 1870 when Graefe died. But we may well doubt if Donders' letters were so self-revealing, altho they might have contained much of scientific interest. It is unfortunate that of American ophthalmologists who went abroad to study in the last generation, more did not go to Utrecht rather than Berlin. We must suspect that the trend of Graefe's genius, toward striking operative achievements, better caught and held the interest of the "practical" American students. It is interesting to find that he had so just an appreciation of the value of operative achievements as compared with the more purely scientific far-reaching labors of his colleagues.

E. J.

BOOK NOTICES.

COMUNICACIONES DEL HOSPITAL OFTALMOLOGICO. Reports from the Ophthalmic Hospital of Buenos Aires. Vo. I, No. 1, December, 1918. Royal 8vo., pp. 160.

We have before taken occasion to mark the development and activity of a center of ophthalmology in Buenos Aires. These are again forced on our attention by these hospital reports. Making their initial appearance, they are found to bear well a comparison with the first parts of the Reports of the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, London, or Donders' Hospital Reports, from Utrecht. They are not surpassed in general scientific value by any Ophthalmic Hospital Reports that have appeared in the United States.

The scope of the work may be judged by the subjects of the eight reports by as many authors, which comprise the bulk of the work. These are: Sanguineous Infiltration of the Cornea, Acute Dacryoadenitis, Tuberculous Periphlebitis of the Retina, Ophthalmoplegia, Nodding and Rotary Spasm, Megalocornea, Pontine Cerebellar Tumor, and Arteriovenous Aneurism of the Internal Carotid. In addition there is a Review Department of 20 pages containing abstracts of 13 articles relating to ophthalmology taken, not from European sources, but from the medical publications of Argentina.

These reports are well illustrated. The article of 70 pages on Ophthalmoplegia contains 56 illustrations in the text, mostly reproductions of photographs of cases. The paper on Retinal Periphlebitis has a colored plate representing the condition. Every article except the first one has one or more illustrations; and most of them are excellent. We note the absence of an

index, but this may come in a later part.

The appearance of this new series of hospital reports is a subject for congratulation, not only to its sponsors and contributors, but also to the ophthalmologists of the world. If one wishes to make the acquaintance of the Spanish language, and the literature of ophthalmology published in it, we know of no collection of papers of higher scientific value and literary excellence thru which he may enter upon such a study.

E. J.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Training in Ophthalmology

To the Editor:

I cannot resist the temptation to write you a line to say how much I have been impressed with your thoughtful article on Defects of Education for Ophthalmic Practice in the July number of the JOURNAL, which I received recently.

As you say, "Those of us who are engaged in ophthalmic practice are more or less conscious of our deficiencies," and as one looks back it is easy to see how great a proportion of these deficiencies could have been obviated by a little systematic training. Our generation picked up in the most casual manner what little we got to know. I spent a year in the Wills Eye Hospital, but it took me more than a month learning to see the fundus, an accomplishment which I have many times enabled men to acquire in half an hour. The Wills Hospital staff were all capable men, and I found them kind, but they were too busy to give special instruction, *and it was not their business.*

Probably the remedies you suggest are about the best that we can hope for for some time; but I think that in time special schools of ophthalmology will be established in connection with universities in a few (perhaps the fewer the better), of the large cities. These schools will give a thorough course, beginning with mathematics, optics, ocular anatomy, etc. The diploma given by these institutions will be so desirable that they will attract more and more men. Their examinations will be severe as the instruction will be thorough. Such schools in the nature of things cannot be self-supporting, but the example of Carnegie and Rockefeller will doubtless be followed by others, so that endowments may be expected. * * *

To the Editor:

After reading, again and again, your paper in the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY, (v. i, p. 482), I write you, telling how I appreciate your opinions and expression on this subject.

In the fall of 1915, I gave up my general practice, and took up my studies of the eye as well as the ear, nose, and throat. I wanted the best school, so I thought my selection was a wise one when I went to New York and entered the New York Post Graduate School. I was surprised at my capacity to apply myself. I worked harder than I did in my undergraduate school, for over eight months. Feeling that I was not getting as good instruction as I wished for, I worked during my spare time at the Eye and Ear Infirmary. I spared neither money, nor effort. But when I left New York I felt that I had failed to attain what I sought and desired.

So I wondered and thought, and tried again and again to examine myself. While I realize that my deficiencies are many, I can't help but conclude that the teachings, or rather the methods of teaching in all the Post Graduate schools, especially in the special, are very sadly deficient. I feel too modest and humble to undertake a crusade on the subject of post-graduate schools. Altho I approached several postgraduates on the subject and they agreed with me, yet I do not feel of enough force to be able to carry any reform thru. Reading your paper revived my spirits, and I feel that I must be right, as others are thinking the same.

I am writing to express my appreciation and approval of your opinion on

the subject, and expressing my hopes that you will continue vigorous action toward a reform. I hope that the American Medical Association will some day take this matter up; and institute some regulations in the matter of postgraduate schools and thereby protect the many physicians who honestly and earnestly are seeking to improve themselves for the good of the profession and humanity.

As for myself; I shall not get discouraged. I shall plug along, read, observe, and work diligently until some day I hope to attain the position of the efficient; and hope that if I ever rise enough to be heard, I shall enter into the effort to cause a reform, with all my might and with all my influence.

Very truly yours,
M. H. Heldman.

Great Falls, Montana.

To the Editor:

I have read with intense interest Colonel de Schweinitz's account of the Army School of Ophthalmology. Such a school located in one (or more) of the large cities (Baltimore, Philadelphia, Chicago, Denver), is certainly needed.

A majority of the four thousand American oculists would enjoy and profit by such courses at times. At the same time, if properly conducted, with well paid teachers, the school would furnish a standard of efficiency for those wishing to study and practice ophthalmology as a specialty. The difficulties were great (and have not been lessened, I believe), in getting instruction of the kind detailed in Colonel de Schweinitz's article in your issue, December, 1918. Well trained teachers, if well paid, might easily be attracted to such service.

I earnestly wish you could propose such a permanent School of Ophthalmology.

Yours truly,
Edward F. Parker.

Charleston, S. C.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Dr. John B. Hazel, Hoopeston, Illinois, aged 69, died at his home, January 20th, from heart disease.

Dr. John G. Hersh, East Greenville, Pa., aged 66, died at his home, February 2nd, from bronchial pneumonia.

PERSONALS.

Dr. J. W. Jervey has just announced the opening of a modern Eye, Ear and Throat Hospital in Greenville, South Carolina.

Dr. Luther Peter of Philadelphia has been elected Professor of Ophthalmology in the Post Graduate School of the University of Pennsylvania.

Dr. Ervin Wright, of Huntington, Indiana, has gone to Rolla, Missouri, to continue eye, ear, nose and throat practice.

Dr. William Campbell Posey, after twenty-five years of valued service as Surgeon to Wills Eye Hospital, Philadelphia, has resigned from the institution and has been succeeded by Dr. T. E. Conrad.

MILITARY NOTES.

Dr. W. E. Kershner, Major, M. R. C., has resumed practice at Bath, Maine.

Dr. J. J. Smith has returned to practice in San Francisco after service in the United States Army.

Capt. A. B. Middleton has been released from the service, and has resumed his practice at Pontiac, Illinois.

Dr. H. M. Krebs of Huntington, Indiana, has been promoted to Lieut.-Col. and has resumed his practice in Huntington.

Capt. W. A. Sedwick of Denver has been transferred from Camp Grant to U. S. General Hospital, Biltmore, North Carolina.

Capt. Alfred Cowan of Philadelphia, Instructor in Ophthalmology at Camp Oglethorpe, after a year of service has resumed private practice at 2018 Chestnut street.

B. F. Baerr, Jr., of Philadelphia, who went abroad as Ophthalmic Surgeon with Base Hospital Unit of the University of Pennsylvania, has been relieved from service and has resumed private practice at 2037 Chestnut street.

Lieut. Wm. M. Bane, who was with Base Hospital No. 29, A. E. F., London, has returned to Denver to resume his association with his father, Dr. Wm. C. Bane.

Capt. Wm. C. Finnoff has returned to his home in Denver to resume practice. He will be associated with Dr. Edward Jackson. Dr. Finnoff had a most valuable experience with Base Hospital Number 29 as ophthalmologist.

Major George W. Jean, M. C., U. S. Army, returned from France early in February. While overseas he was chief consultant on the eye for the five Base Hospitals located at Rimaucourt, Haute-Marne. After two months in California he will resume his practice in New York City.

Major Burton Chance, who was assigned to the U. S. Hospital No. 11, Cape May, New Jersey, May, 1918, in charge of the Division of Ophthalmology, was released from service December 6, 1918, and has been appointed Lieutenant-Colonel, Medical Corps, U. S. Reserve.

Captain Charles M. Stiles, of Philadelphia, began his Army service by a brief period of training at Camps Greenleaf and McClellan, and on October 16, 1917, was placed in charge of the Division of Ophthalmology at Camp Wadsworth, South Carolina, where he remained for fourteen months. Captain Stiles has recently been released from service, and has resumed his practice.

Colonel Gilbert E. Seaman, after returning from overseas duty, recently gave Doctors Howard Ford Hansell, and G. Oram Ring of Philadelphia the pleasure of a brief visit. Colonel Seaman served in the Philippines from 1898 to 1900. He entered the U. S. Service in connection with the recent war as Lieutenant Colonel, and was made Chief Surgeon of the 32nd Division of the Sixth Army Corps. He will shortly resume his Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat practice in Milwaukee.

COMING MEETINGS.

Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, Atlantic City, New Jersey, June 9-13.

American Ophthalmological Society, Atlantic City, New Jersey, June 13-17.

Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmic Society, San Francisco, California, August 4-6.

American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, September 2-3.

Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom, London, May 1-3.

Société Française d' Ophtalmologie, Paris, May 5th.

Oxford Ophthalmological Congress, Oxford, England, July 10-12.

MISCELLANEOUS.

A Seventh Trachoma Hospital established by the U. S. Government has been opened in La Moure, North Dakota, under the charge of Dr. Clarence E. Downs.

Soldiers blinded in war, who are receiving vocational training at United States Hospital Number 7, Evergreen Junior, have received a gift of nearly $3,000 from the Baltimore committee of the Woman's Homeopathic Base Hospital Unit.

A mass meeting in honor of Sir Arthur Pearson, Mr. Douglas McMurtrie, Lieut.-Col. James Bordley, was held January 28th at Orchestra Hall, Chicago, under the auspices of the New York Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men and the Service League for the Handicapped, of Chicago.

The National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness is asking contributions from public spirited persons toward the sum of $20,000 to further their great work in the prevention of blindness. Checks should be made payable to Mr. George Blagden, 130 East Twenty-second street, New York.

The Chicago Lighthouse is the name of a new institution conducted by the Improvement Association for Blind People, to teach the blind useful occupations so that they may become self-supporting. It is located at 3323 West Twenty-second street, Chicago. Miss Phyllis Bayley is the director, Mrs. Harry J. Ilett, president, and Sir Arthur Pearson, honorary president. The Board of Advisers is composed of eight of Chicago's prominent men.

Four new books from the pen of Sir. J. W. Barrett, of the University of Melbourne, are announced by H. K. Lewis and Co., of London. Now ready, "The Australian Army Medical Corps in Egypt," and "The Twin Ideals, An Educated Commonwealth," (reviewed in this Journal, v. 1, p. 871); and in press "A Vision of the Possible, What the R. A. M. C. Might Become," and "The War Work of the Y. M. C. A. in Egypt."

Harry Gulf, of Gallatin County, Wis., has returned to his home with a war record that makes one feel that the war should be resumed. In the Argonne, the last battle of the war he was wounded and taken prisoner by the Germans. The Hun monsters who captured him, wounded and completely at their mercy, actually punched out his eyes, forever destroying his sight. At this time the young man's left foot was torn off by a shot, and numerous other wounds inflicted.

According to the *Shelbyville Republican* people in that part of Indiana have been learning by costly experience the ways of the traveling oculist, or the swindler who calls himself an oculist. Two such adventurers by pretending to find a growth on the eye and doing a fake operation to remove it, were able to effect the actual removal of two hundred and seventy-five dollars from one patient, and one hundred and sixty from another.

The first number of the "Comunicaciones del Hospital Oftalmologico" was issued in December, 1918, from Buenos Aires, A. R. Its object is to collect and publish the papers of the staff of the Hospital Oftalmologico, which has fourteen oculists and five physicians for consultation in neurology, medicine, etc., and two internes. This hospital examined and treated 15,000 new patients last year. There are eight papers and a review of the Argentine literature in this issue.

The American Board of Ophthalmic Examination will hold its next examinations at the Wills Eye Hospital, Philadelphia, June 6 and 7, 1919. This is the fifth examination to be conducted by the Board, which is composed of representatives of the American Ophthalmological Society, the Section of Ophthalmology of the A. M. A., and the Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology. The many war activities have interfered with the work of the board for the past year, but from now on it is expected that great activity will prevail. Complete information can be had by writing Dr. Wm. H. Wilder, 122 South Michigan avenue, Chicago.

The Council of British Ophthalmologists appointed a committee consisting of eminent ophthalmologists and physicists to determine standards of illumination for Snellen's test types for distant vision. The committee reports: 1. There is a rapid rise in acuity as the illumination is increased from zero up to about two "foot candles." 2. Above three foot candles there is scarcely any rise in acuity. It is possible to lay down precise and simple rules. Two ordinary 20 Watt tungsten lamps, with straight filaments are fixed vertically fifteen inches in front of the plane of the test card, one on each side at a horizontal distance of twelve inches from the vertical normal to and bisecting the card. One lamp is placed higher than the other, one being opposite the junction of the upper and middle thirds of the card, the other opposite the junction of the middle and lower thirds. Opaque, non-reflecting screens are fitted so as to prevent direct light from reaching the candidate's eye.

The days of the blind beggar are numbered. The familiar figure with his tin cup, his dark glasses and his sign, "Please help the blind," was largely the creature of circumstance. There was nothing else for him to do. Today a blind man finds it possible to be reeducated and to continue a useful member of society. Sir Arthur Pearson, a millionaire publisher, of London, totally blind, is in this country, telling us of the wonders that have been accomplished for blinded soldiers and sailors at St. Dunstan's Hospital, London. It was the wonderful progress made by the blinded soldiers of England that prompted that nation to make such enormous strides in the reeducation of its blind, and it is to be hoped that the remarkable capacity of our own blinded heroes, just returned from the battlefield, will direct the thought of our nation to our own civilian blind. It is a matter for state action and is a field that the wealthy can work in. What could be more satisfying in one's declining years than to superintend the erection of an institution for the reeducation of the blind and then endow it with funds to perpetuate its existence, that it might act as a living monument of usefulness to the donor's name forever?

As stated in the circular memoranda for Editors of Medical Publications issued by the Surgeon General's Office on March 27th and May 22d, 1918, it is required by paragraph 423, Manual of the Medical Department, that all medical manuscripts by medical officers, U. S. Army, intended for publication shall be first submitted to the Surgeon General's Office, Washington, D. C., for approval. This regulation, which has been very courteously complied with, to date, is still in force as far as medical officers on active duty are concerned. In the case of medical officers recently retired from active duty, it is requested, as a courtesy to the Surgeon General and in aid of assembling material for the Medical History of the War, that all medical manuscripts based upon military or official records or upon military experience during the War, be submitted as heretofore, to the Secretary, Board of Publications, Surgeon General's Office, Washington, D. C., for record and approval, and that such MSS. be accompanied by a carbon copy. Upon approval, the original copy will be forwarded to the journal designated, for publication, and the carbon will be filed in the records of the Medical History of the War.

For the Surgeon General:

(Signed) C. R. Darnall,
Colonel, Medical Corps, U. S. A.,
Executive Officer.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

DIAGNOSIS.

Bader, A. Differential Tonometry. Münch. med. Woch., 1917, p. 1116.

Dixey, W. A. Illumination of Snellen's Test Types. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 95.

Elschnig, A. Study of Magnified Reflex Images of Eye. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 23-26.

Gonzalez, J. Examination of Eye. Med. Ibera, v. 5, p. 289.

Hagen, S. Photography of Background of Eye. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 59, pp. 17-18.

Heine, L. Ophthalmoscopy in White and Colored Light. (2 col. pl.) Graefe's Arch. f. Ophth., v. 97, pp. 271-274.

Isakowitz. Stereoscopy of Background of Eye. Münch. med. Woch., 1918, p. 682.

Koeppe, L. Microscopy of Background of Eye. Graefe's Arch. f. Ophth., v. 97, pp. 346-381.

Schwarz, O. Perimeter, Exophthalmometer, and Binocular Loup. Münch. med. Woch., 1918, p. 1414.

Sichel, A. W. Test Types for Detection of Malingering in Army. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, pp. 117-120.

Stumpf, P. Pocket Lamp with Ophthalmoscope. Münch. med. Woch., 1917, p. 271.

Sym, W. G. Familiarity with the Ophthalmoscope. Lancet, Feb. 8, 1919, p. 232.

Trendelenburg, W. Instrument for Measuring Distance Between Pupils. (1 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 564-566.

Wallace, W. Epidiascope Showing Fundus. Roy. Soc. Med. Sec. on Ophth., Feb. 5th, 1919. Lancet, Feb. 22nd, p. 300.

Wertheim-Salomonson, J. K. A. Photography of Background of Eye. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 147.

Wiedersheim, O. Improvised Adaptometer for Field Work. (4 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 58, pp. 507-510.

Repeated Titles. **Roelofs.** (v. 1, p. 811.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 147.

THERAPEUTICS.

Binder, K. Physostol. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 559-562.

Gradle, H. S. Clinical Experience with Optochin. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 55, pp. 362-365.

Gros, H., and **Fromaget, H.** Analgesic Action of Weak Faradic Current in Ophthalmology. Clin. Opht., v. 23, pp. 32-38.

Scalinci, N. Ocular Radiotherapy. Riforma Med., v. 35, p. 10, and p. 92.

Schanz, F. Light Therapy in Eye Disease. Münch. med. Woch., v. 64, p. 526.

REFRACTION.

Bardsley, P. C. New Form of Bifocal Lenses. (3 ill.) Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, pp. 97-101.

Boegehold, H. Anastigmatic and Orthoscopic Spectacles. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 59, pp. 108-114.

Descola, P. Myopia. (2 ill.) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, pp. 35-52.

Gould, G. M. Myopic Spectacles for Hyperopia. Amer. Med., v. 14, p. 88.

Greef, R. Standard Sizes for Lenses and Fittings. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 58, pp. 545-547.

Lence, S. Principles of Refraction in Eye. Prog. de la Clin., v. 6, p. 364.

Löwenstein, A. Aviators' Spectacles. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 507-568.

Mallwitz, A. Subconjunctival Salt Injections for Intraocular Complications of High Myopia. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 55, pp. 365-381.

Pavia, J. L. Dynamic Retinoscopy. Semana Med., v. 25, p. 2184.

Peters, A. Asthenopia, Amblyopia and Suborbital Neuralgia. Cent. f. p. Augenh., May-June, 1917. Abst. Clin. Opht., v. 23, p. 54.

Raum. Determination of Cylinder Axes. (3 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 596-597.

Rönne, H. Anastigmatic and Orthoscopic Glasses. (3 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 58, pp. 285-299.

Criticism of Katral Glasses. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 666-676.

Siegrist, A. Treatment of Keratoconus. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 400-421.

Stock, W. Reading Glasses for Amblyopes. (8 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 55, pp. 217-229.

OCULAR MOVEMENTS.

Damel, C. S. Ophthalmoplegia. (56 ill.) Rep. Ophth. Hosp., Buenos Aires, v. 1, pp. 24-93.

Eaton, E. M. Stereoscopic Vision and Visual Estimation of Distance. (4 ill.) Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, pp. 63-78.

Elschnig, A. Convergence Cramps and Intermittent Nystagmus. (Bibl.) Klin. M f. Augenh., v. 58, pp. 142-150.

Fernandez Castro, A. Oscillating and Rotary Nystagmus. (1 ill.) Rep. Ophth. Hosp., Buenos Aires, v. 1, pp. 94-104.

Fisher, L., and **Babcock, H. L.** Reliability of Nystagmus Test. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, pp. 779-782.

Heine, L. Lumbar Pressure in Disease of the Outer Eye Muscles. Münch. med. Wochenschr., 1918, v. 65, pp. 419-424.

Hönig, H. Oculomotor Paralysis as the first Symptom of a Frontal Brain Abscess. (1 ill., Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 55, pp. 382-387.

James, J. N. Facts and Fallacies Concerning Squint. Med. Rev. of Rev., v. 25, pp. 163-165.

Jickeli, C. Unilateral Sympathetic Paralysis after Shot Wound. (2 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 538-541.

Levy, L. Vestibular Reactions in 541 Aviators. (Nystagmus.) Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 716.

Löhlein, W. Psychogenic Unilateral Ophthalmoplegia. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 541-545.

Löwenstein, A. Recurring Oculomotor Paralysis with Contraction of Pupil Sphincter. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 59, pp. 148-151.

Moreau, F. Three Cases of Nystagmus after Concussion. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, pp. 236-238.

Onfray, R. Physiologic Examination and Treatment of Convergent Strabismus. Clin. Opht., v. 23, pp. 10-19.

Pascheff, C. Nervous Ocular Disturbances in War Injuries of Head. (11 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 684-697.

Pattee, J. J. Postdiphtheric Paralysis. Dis., Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 157.

Sherrington, C. S. Sensual Role of Proprioceptive Nerve Supply of Extrinsic Ocular Muscles. Brain, v. 41, pp. 332-344.

Souques. Ophthalmoplegia Externa with Exophthalmic Goiter. Clin. Opht., v. 23, p. 64.

Uhthoff, W. Recurring Oculo-motor Paralysis. Berl. klin. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 54, p. 1022.

Verwey, A. Fixation for Objective Observation. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 146.

Wehrli, E. Six Cases of Latent Rotary Nystagmus. Klin. M. F. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 444-468.

CONJUNCTIVA.

Allport, F. Fourteen Points Concerning Ophthalmia Neonatorum. New York Med. Jour., v. 109, pp. 353-355.

Bartels, M. Conjunctivitis in the East. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 58, pp. 150-164.

Bartok, E. Lymphangiectasis of Conjunctiva. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 59, pp. 53-62.

Britto, J. Trachoma. Ann. Paulistas de Med. e Cir., v. 9, p. 169.

Carreras, B. Metastatic Blennorrhagic Conjunctivitis. España Oft., v. 4, pp. 84-95. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 764.

Elschnig, A. Formation of Nodules in Conjunctivitis thru Fat Impregnation. (2 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 569-570.

Epidemic of Diplobacillus Conjunctivitis. Deutsche med. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 43, p. 1184.

Koch-Weeks Conjunctivitis. Deutsche med. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 43, p. 1216. Also München med. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 64, p. 1148.

Grüter, W. Pneumococcus Infection and Action of Optochin. München med. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 64, pp. 41-44.

Leon y Leon, F. Trachoma in Peru. Cronica Med., v. 35, p. 360. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 903.

Loeb, C. Trachoma. Illinois Med. Jour., v. 35, pp. 133-136.

Mohr, M. Conjunctivitis caused by Typhusbacillus. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 56, pp. 523-525.

Morax, V. Total Symblepharon and its Operation. (2 ill.) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, pp. 223-228.

Nestlinger, V. Epidemic of Conjunctival Catarrh in Budapest. (1 pl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 497-508.

Ricchi, G. Pseudomembranous conjunctivitis from the Micrococcus Catarrhalis. Abst., Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, p. 259.

Salus, R. Suppuration of Conjunctiva and Lacrimal Sac from Micrococcus Catarrhalis. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 52, pp. 238-243.

Szily, P. von. Abortive Bacteriotherapy in Acute Ophthalmoblennorrhea. München med. Wochenschr., 1917, v. 64, p. 131.

Wirths, M. Conjunctivitis Petrificans. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 61, pp. 606-609.

CORNEA AND SCLERA.

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RECURRING GROWTH EXTENDING ON THE CORNEA IN VERŃAL CONJUNCTIVITIS
(GONZALEZ, CASE 7, P. 239)

THE RIGHT EYE SHOWS CHARACTERISTIC MASSES ON THE EVERTED UPPER LID. THE LEFT EYE SHOWS WHITISH VERTICAL SCAR FOLLOWING PREVIOUS EXTIRPATION WITH THE GALVANO-CAUTERY, AND THE RECURRING GROWTH EXTENDING FROM THE NASAL LIMBUS IN FRONT OF THE PUPIL

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CONCERNING CONCUSSION AND CONTUSION INJURIES OF THE EYE IN WARFARE.

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PHILADELPHIA, PA.

This paper reviews a subject of which our knowledge has been greatly extended by the experiences of the present war. It was read before the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, February 5th, 1919. Authority to publish granted, Board of Publication, S. G. O.

It is plainly evident that in the insistent work, nervous energy and scientific curiosity of life man tries to be "ever reaping something new." Therefore it is that the question is constantly asked by laymen as well as by physicians: "What are the new discoveries, new methods of procedure and new therapeutic measures which the science and art of medicine and surgery have acquired and put into practice during this war, now happily in abeyance?"

They, the investigations of the laboratory and the work of preventive medicine, contribute a long catalog in which ophthalmology has obtained a not inconspicuous place. We could with profit discuss with one another the improvements and advances which have been made in blepharoplasty and keratoplasty, in prosthesis, in dermic and epidermic and cartilage implantations and props, in the extraction of metallic and nonmetallic intraocular foreign bodies, in the prevention of sympathetic ophthalmia and of ocular sepsis and in the improvement of "first aid" technic.

Interesting as such a discussion might prove to be, with your permission, this communication shall concern itself only with some of the results of ocular concussion and contusion—injuries in warfare, and makes mention of some of the pathogenic problems which they present, of certain of the differences which are evident as compared with the results of such injuries in civilian life, and of one or two new clinical pictures.

The experience on which the observations are based was obtained in three "eye centers" of the British Medical Service in France, and two General Hospitals to which wounded were evacuated in England, one French "eye center," and in all of the "eye centers" except one which have been established in this country since the wounded have arrived in large numbers. In the last-named "centers" naturally none of the lesions was of recent date, most of them having occurred weeks, and many of them several months prior to their examination.

Already a large literature has accumulated on this subject and is scattered thru various journals published in France, England, Italy and Germany, and at least two important Atlases have been produced, namely "Atlas d'Ophtalmoscopie de Guerre,"[2] by Lagrange, and "Atlas der Kriegesaugenheilkunde," by v. Szily.[2] Colonel W. T. Lister[3] of the English R. M. C. has made notable contributions, for example, "Pathological Aspects of War Injuries of the Eye." No attempt is made to analyze the scattered literature, but to the text of the two atlases named and to the recorded observations of Colonel Lister constant reference shall be made.

Causes.—In general terms the fundus lesions now under discussion are caused *directly* by a blow, or sudden forceful pressure, on the eyeball, behind, from the side, or tangentially; or *indirectly,* by the transmission of concussion or shock.

In the first instance the lesions are classified as *lesions by contact;* in the second instance they are *lesions by concussion.*

The contact lesions are caused, for example, by a missile which grazes the globe but does not rupture it, or by a fragment or portion of a fractured orbital wall or floor or roof, thrust harshly against the eyeball.

The concussion lesions are caused: (a) by concussion at a distance, for instance, violent displacement of air by the explosion of a shell (Lagrange); (b) by transmission of concussion or shock thru the bony facial structures; and moreover, not only thru those near to the eye, to wit, the malar bones and orbital margins, but thru the superior maxilla (especially if the missile passes thru the antrum), and the inferior maxilla, some authors, notably Lagrange, believing that the vibratory concussion proceeds to the orbital contents thru the pterygo-maxillary fossa and fissure; and (c) by slight blows on the anterior part of the eye, the concussion being transmitted thru the transparent media to the posterior pole (Lagrange).

The lesions as usually described may be summarized thus: (1) Lesions by concussion, (2) lesions by impact, and (3) combined lesions, i. e., both by concussion and impact with the lesions in front of or adjacent to the spot of contact, and also immediately opposite to the site of impact; or, in another sense, as lesions which are not associated with and lesions which are associated with fracture or perforation of the orbit (passage of a missile thru it). This rule in the distribution of lesions makes ophthalmoscopic examination of great value in determining the course of the missile.

In the first case, as before noted, the concussion is transmitted from a distance (par ébranlement de l'air), or thru the bony facial structures, or thru the cornea and transparent media, the orbital walls, floor, roof or cavity not being directly injured.

In the second instance, there is traumatism of the frontal region and radiating fracture of the orbital vault, or passage of a missile thru the orbit behind with injury of the optic nerve, but not of the bulb, or passage of a missile thru the orbit tangentially to the eye, grazing it but not rupturing the globe. Should the lesions of the inner membranes result from a concussion at a distance, their development has been attributed to the commotion of the air-column shaking the ocular wall in the same manner as it shakes the door in a room. Should the concussion waves reach the eye in a line of transmission thru the bony facial structure, the effect has been likened to the lifting up and shaking of a ship by a ground swell, and the entire adipose envelope is concussioned, resulting in ruptures of the inner ocular coats (Lagrange).

In this connection it may be interesting to quote from an editorial review of Bonnet's[4] recent contribution to the study of the effect of shell explosions on the human organism, published in the Journal of the American Medical Association, February 8, 1919. Bonnet explains the nervous and pulmonary lesions which follow shell explosions by assuming "that the aerial wave-compression acts primarily on the superficial capillaries and bloodvessels, as well as those of the abdominal cavity; in short, those not protected by nature from pressure. There is thus formed a blood column which is driven like a battering ram into incompressible cavities, like the thorax and the cerebro-spinal cavity. As a result the smaller vessels in these cavities may rupture, causing varying amounts of injury. The eye and the ear are especially liable to suffer, the former by its position exposed to pressure, and the latter by its physiologic adaptability to receiving pressure."

Symptomatology.—Of external manifestations there may be none at all, or often at most edema of the lid, diffuse redness, or a patch of congestion or ecchymosis. In other words, absence

of outward signs is not necessarily an indication of lack of intraocular lesions, and moreover, of extensive ones: Therefore routine ophthalmoscopic examination of the eyes of wounded soldiers, whenever possible, has revealed many times elaborate retinochoroidal and vitreous changes. Thus, I examined an English soldier within forty-eight hours after he was hit. He had severe arm and leg wounds and probably tangential orbital injuries. Externally his eyes were practically clear, and yet in both of them there was much vitreous hemorrhage and extensive concussion changes in each fundus.

Naturally, the character and degree of the visual depreciation depends upon the extent, situation and age of the lesions. An interesting and evidently an important fact, dwelt upon by Colonel Lister, is that in severe concussion resulting in commotio retinae, presently to be referred to, vision may be completely lost for several days, followed by a return, and as a matter of course in the serious types there is often permanent reduction of visual acuteness.

The visual field changes evidently depend upon the location of the lesion and its depth and character. But to the correlation of lesions of the retina with defects in the field of vision much study has been given, especially by Colonel Lister. As a matter of interest his observations may be quoted in summary thus: "Lesions above or below the horizontal plane were found to cause defect in the field out of all proportion to the local disturbance, a "distribution defect" being found in addition to the local defect due to the lesions. This is due to the fact that not only was the spot struck damaged, but also nerve fibers in the immediate vicinity which were passing on to a more peripheral portion of the retina. This distribution defect is fan-shaped, the expanded portion being peripheral and the nearer the lesion is to the disk, the greater is the blind sector, and vice versa. When the lesion occurs in the horizontal plane there is no "distribution defect" found, as the fibers supplying the retina in the horizontal line arch around from the disk to their destination, and therefore these lesions can only involve the nerve fibers at their terminations."[5] Scotomas of various shapes may interpret the macular and paramacular alterations.

Marked reduction of intraocular tension is common in many of these cases. The statement that lowered eyeball tension is an important sign of perforating scleral wounds, and especially of diagnostic import when, for example, a small penetrating wound of the sclera is covered with tumid, and it may be swollen, conjunctiva, must not be taken unreservedly in view of the many observations in this war. Indeed, as the late Mr. Nettleship said in the discussion of a case of prolonged hypotony after contusion recorded by E. Treacher Collins,[6] the practical interest in the report consisted in the demonstration that reduced tension of the eye does not necessarily mean wound or rupture of the globe.

Collins suggests that diminished tension of short duration is due to increased rate of excretion of intraocular fluid thru expanded normal channels of exit, or to arrest of secretion from paresis of intraocular nerves; and that diminished tension of long duration is due to the formation of new channels of exit, or to rupture of the pectinate ligament, or detachment of the pars ciliaris retinae. Magitot[7] ascribes the variations in ocular tension to the action of the trauma upon the intraocular vasomotor nervous system.

The ophthalmoscopic pictures of the variously transmitted *concussion* and *impact* effects necessarily vary according to the stage of the process at which they are examined, but in general terms may be divided into *primary* and *secondary* changes.

The commotio retinae of Berlin, so often noted in civilian practice, after blows on the eye, for example, the impact of a tennis ball or a flying cork, may be summarized as follows: Hyperemia of the globe marking the position of contact of the missile; clear media; and gray opalescence of the retina, especially in the macular region,

but also around the papilla, which may be somewhat hyperemic. If the retina under the point of contact is visible, this also may exhibit the white infiltration. In addition, several pale, yellowish spots, and, occasionally, small hemorrhages may be present. The vessels are unchanged, or, in some instances, are contracted (arteries) or distended (veins) and pass *over* the gray area. A central scotoma may exist. The gray infiltration forms quickly and is also absorbed with rapidity, usually having subsided at the end of two or three days, altho the visual defect may last for longer periods.

The commotio retinae produced by such war injuries as have been referred to differs somewhat from the Berlin type in the presence of more numerous hemorrhages, the yellow tint of the so-called retinal haze, its longer duration and more circumscribed character.

An interesting but evanescent picture has been observed and particularly described by Colonel Lister in the later stages of commotio retinae, after disappearance of the haze; namely, peculiar striae in the vicinity of the macula, almost certainly due to the wrinkling of the swollen retinal layers.

Lister calls attention to the "grossly concussioned fundus," where in the early stages there are widespread clouds of hemorrhage, many gleaming and glistening white particles, which gradually fade, become converted into fibrous tissue, and represent originally patches of coagulation necrosis from rupture of retinal and choroidal vessels.

Lacerations of the choroid and retina, or of their vessels, or of both, followed by hemorrhage beneath the retina and into the vitreous, are common. They depend in part upon stretching of these membranes by the vibrations in the vitreous. They are frequently placed at the posterior pole of the eye and near the papilla. These situations are peculiarly liable, according to some observers, probably because the sclera, thicker around the entrance of the optic nerve than elsewhere, does not readily stretch. Its resistance in this regard causes the effect of the force to be more potent on the tissue just in front of it. Accumulation of transuded serum and of hemorrhage between the choroid and retina, and between the choroid and sclera may cause detachment of the retina and of the choroid.

The lesions just recited are *primary*, whether due to concussion, contusion, or impact. They naturally lead to the *secondary* lesions, the most important being atrophic chorio-retinitis (spots of atrophy, exposed scleral areas and pigment distribution, heaping and fringing), and proliferating chorioretinitis. If the extravasations on the retina and choroid are absorbed, many of the well-known appearances of pigmented atrophic chorioretinitis are evolved, tho frequently its elaboration is most extensive, especially in fan-shaped, pigmented granular areas. Blood may escape, and often does, into the vitreous and be absorbed, leaving all manner of opacities in its place.

This chorioretinitis proliferans is essentially a cicatricial process; there is organization of hemorrhage, but this is of less importance than its irritating effect on the connective tissue of the retinochoroidal layers, inciting the active proliferation and the formation of tracts, areas and masses of fibrous tissue. The whole process and picture differ materially from the so-called proliferating retinitis of recurring hemorrhages in the vitreous and retina, especially in young subjects, often noted in civilian practice. In the type which follows war injuries the retina and choroid have been ruptured, and the cicatricial process leads rather to a pinning down of the retina by opaque, plastic-looking material than to its detachment, so frequent in the ordinary variety, in which the proliferation arises from extravasated blood, and the numerous membranes, following the vessels, often partly translucent, protrude freely into the vitreous. As you know, Lagrange has constructed in tabular form the chief differential diagnostic points, as briefly indicated.

In the concussion-contusion injuries of the eye in civil life the so-called "holes" at the macula are comparatively common, while, according to

Colonel Lister, these holes in military practice are rare. This, however, has not been my own experience. Within the last six weeks, among about twenty-five cases of the types we are considering, I have seen four typical holes in the macula, the surrounding areas splotched with pigmented retinochoroidal changes.

Some authors, for instance Lagrange, have occasionally noted defective vision, central scotoma and no evidence of ophthalmoscopic change in the macula. This I have not observed, but I have seen a fundus free from pathologic signs, except a delicate stippling of the macula and a minute Y-shaped choroidal rupture; one case recently studied with Major Suker followed a blow delivered on the orbital ridge of the affected eye. It required careful focussing to detect it.

On the other hand, in place of the usual impact and concussion lesions, there may be extensive disorganization of the interior of the eye (without rupture): liquefaction and infiltration of the vitreous, widespread masses of yellowish-white exudation and large detachment of the retina. In a remarkable case recently investigated the soldier had been wounded in the head, probably by a missile passing thru both orbits, and the X-ray showed a large fragment located near the Gasserian ganglion. In the right eye the vitreous was thickly infiltrated, the fundus difficult to see, but covered with yellowish exudation, and the retina detached below. In the left eye, over the disk and partly hiding it, there was a mass of fibrous material; otherwise no changes, and vision 20/xxx. While under observation this left disk within two weeks developed a typical choking of 7 D., depending on late formation of pus in the track of the missile.

Notable are the cases of injury of the optic nerve in the canal, by a missile passing thru the orbit posteriorly, which sometimes cuts across the nerve, or the nerve is injured by a radiating fracture of the orbit. Mostly the result is an irremediable atrophy of the nerve and blindness. Hematoma of the sheath of the optic nerve has often been found, resulting in atrophy. Peripapillary hemorrhage in these cases is rare; but a peripapillary brown ring, due to hemic pigment, is a diagnostic symptom in the later stages. Atrophy of the nerve is the usual result.

Avulsion of the optic nerve, which is jerked from its socket, is not infrequent. After the hemorrhage absorbs a traumatic excavation is visible — a kind of "coloboma or surgical conus," as Lagrange calls it. This may be filled up later with proliferated connective tissue. The retinal vessels above and below the excavation may be comparatively normal. This has been often noted, and recently well figured and commented upon by Edward Jackson.[8] In the report of Parsons' case of division of the optic nerve by a stab-wound, quoted by Jackson, Parsons[9] states the vessels refill thru direct and indirect cilioretinal anastomosis, the blood being derived from intact anterior and posterior ciliary arteries. In a case studied within the last two weeks, the missile, i. e., a fragment of a high-explosive shell, entered at the lower and outer angle of the left orbit, shattered the eye, passed behind the root of the nose and probably thru the frontal sinus and certainly thru the posterior part of the orbit and came out beneath the skin of the right temple. The right eye had extensive retinochoroidal changes and the optic nerve had evidently been partly or completely jerked from its entrance. This entrance was covered in with a proliferated fibrous mass, but the vessels were fairly well intact.

Frequency and Distinctiveness of the Lesions.—In general terms, contusion and concussion injuries of the eye in this war have been frequent, and those which have followed oblique wounds of the facial bony structures have represented about 6 to 8 per cent of the whole number. Thus Rollet and Velter, among 3,915 wounded, noted 343 examples of lesions of the deep coats of the eye without disorganization of the eyeball, a percentage of 8.76.[9] It is of interest to note that a concussion sent thru the maxillofacial area of one side and causing ipsolateral ocular le-

sions is probably prevented from producing like lesions in the opposite eye because the nasal accessory sinuses prevent the concussion or shock from passing to that globe.

There seems very little doubt that lesions of the inner eye by concussion from a distance, by concussion transmitted thru the bony facial structures and following blows on the point of the eye, by preference are located in the macula and paramacular area; that impact lesions are equatorial and always adjacent to the site of contact; that a contact lesion may spread toward the center; that posterior pole and equatorial contact lesions may approach and join each other; and that missiles traversing posterior to the bulbus and radiating fractures of the orbital vault are responsible for most of the direct optic nerve injuries. Whether it is safe to say that impact lesions are always, or almost always, retinochoroidal and concussion lesions choroidal, as Lagrange contends, it would seem is not settled.

Unquestionably the difference between concussion changes of the fundus encountered in civil and military practice depends, as Lister points out, in greatest measure upon the fact that in ordinary circumstances the blow is delivered by a comparatively slow-moving object, while in warfare the missile passing thru the orbit moves rapidly.

As special types of concussion and contusion injuries as observed in warfare in comparison with those seen in civil practice, we may note the character of the commotio retinae, the elaboration of the severely concussioned lesions and in particular the distinctive character of the traumatic proliferating chorioretinitis. Finally, it should be noted that all observers comment on the analogy between the mechanism of these concussion injuries of the eye and those of the brain.

Treatment.—In the hope of stimulating extravasated blood and exudation, the usual alterative, diaphoretic and lymphogog remedies (the iodides, sweats and dionin), may be tried, as may electricity, especially for those eyes with much vitreous change. Thyroid extract is also employed. I am frankly skeptical whether remedial agents have much influence, and more than skeptical as to the value of subconjunctival injections. In a certain number of apparently severely concussioned eyes after long periods of time there has occurred notable improvement in vision. Transitory astigmatism after direct concussion has often been noted

[The paper was illustrated and the various types of concussion and impact injuries portrayed by means of a series of diagrams taken from Lagrange's and v. Szily's Atlases, and some water colors by the late Miss Margaretta Washington of concussion injuries in civil practice. Drawings which are to be made of the fundus lesions studied in the various American Eye centers were not at the time available.]

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ACTIVITIES OF THE DIVISION OF SURGERY OF THE HEAD, OFFICE OF THE SURGEON-GENERAL.

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This resumé of the organization and work of the Division of Surgery of the Head in the Office of the Surgeon-General of the United States Army was read before the Section of Ophthalmology of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, December 19, 1918. Authority to publish granted, Board of Publication, S. G. O.

In May 1917 the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense at the suggestion of Dr. James Bordley Jr., appointed a subcommittee in ophthalmology and in August of the same year authorized a subcommittee in otolaryngology. The personnel of these committees was made up in part at least of members of the committees previously appointed by the special national societies and special sections of the American Medical Association, at the request of the chairman of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense.

The personnel of each committee was as follows: Ophthalmology—Dr. James Bordley, Jr., chairman, Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Dr. Allen Greenwood, Dr. Nelson M. Black, Dr. Walter R. Parker, Dr. W. H. Wilmer; Oto-laryngology—Dr. Charles W. Richardson, chairman, Dr. Harris P. Mosher, Dr. Burt R. Shurly. The work of the subcommittee of Ophthalmology began with the preparation of a catalog of the ophthalmologists of the country which included nearly nine thousand names. To each name a questionnaire was mailed on June 13, 1917 and as a result over fourteen hundred signified their willingness to serve.

The subcommittee of Oto-laryngology later made a similar list of the oto-laryngologists of the country and questionnaires were sent to fifty-six hundred oto-laryngologists.

Later the two committees were consolidated and a representative from the army and navy added, together with a representative of brain surgery and oral and plastic surgery. The personnel of the committee as finally constituted was as follows: Dr. Wm. H. Wilmer, chairman, Dr. Nelson M. Black, secretary, Dr. James Bordley, Jr., Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Dr. Allen Greenwood, Dr. Walter R. Parker, Dr. Charles W. Richardson, Dr. Charles Bagley, Jr., Dr. Harris P. Mosher, Capt. V. P. Blair, Major T. C. Lyster, M. C., U. S. Army, Surgeon G. E. Trible, M C., U. S. Navy. The new members of the joint committee, viz: Dr. Chas. Bagley, Jr., representative of brain surgery and Capt. V. P. Blair representative of plastic and oral surgery, proceeded by means of questionnaires signed by their respective committees, to classify the surgeons in the country who were qualified as brain or plastic and oral surgeons.

The Surgeon General of the Army had been kept in close touch with all phases of the development of the work of these committees and had determined upon the establishment of a division of surgery of the head in his office to be under the charge of Major T. C. Lyster. This plan was authorized July 9, 1917, and quarters in the Surgeon General's office were assigned and opened with the following personnel: Major T. C. Lyster, chief of the division, Major Nelson M. Black, in charge of Ophthalmology, Major Harris P. Mosher, in charge of Oto-laryngology, Capt. Chas Bagley, Jr., in charge of brain surgery, Capt. V. P. Blair in charge of Plastic and Oral surgery. The personnel thus formed in the surgeon general's office worked with the remaining members of the committee, who were on volunteer service in Washington, to secure personnel and develop the organization.

August 15, 1917, the Surgeon General authorized the organization of a special head hospital of one thousand

beds to be operated in connection with the hospitals of the A. E. F. Special committees were appointed to carry out these plans.

With the increased activities of the Division of Surgery of the Head in the Surgeon General's Office it became necessary to increase the personnel of the organization, until finally by the last of September every member of the original committee of the Council was in uniform and all but three on duty in the Surgeon General's Office. Major James Bordley, Jr., was assigned to the Division of Reconstruction, Major Wm. H. Wilmer to aviation, Major Burt R. Shurly was director of the Red Cross Hospital No. 36 which went to France early and is still functioning overseas. Three additional officers were added to the staff in the Surgeon General's Office making the personnel of the Division as follows: Major T. C. Lyster, in charge of the division; Major Nelson M. Black, in charge of Ophthalmology; Major Harris P. Mosher, in charge of Oto-laryngology; Capt. Chas. Bagley, Jr., in charge of Brain Surgery; Capt. V. P. Blair, in charge of Plastic and Oral Surgery; Capt. Robert H. Ivy, assistant in Plastic and Oral Surgery; Major M. G. Seelig, Assistant in Brain Surgery and in charge of publications; Capt. H. H. Kerr, Assistant in Brain Surgery; Major Walter R. Parker, assigned to the Section of Ophthalmology in charge of the construction of Special Head Hospital No. 115; Major Allen Greenwood, assigned to the Section of Ophthalmology with special duties in reference to the personnel of Special Hospital No. 115, Major George E. de Schweinitz, assigned to the Section of Ophthalmology in charge of equipment of Special Hospital No. 115 and especial publications. Later Major Kerr was assigned overseas and Capt. (now Major), Grover C. Pemberty, was assigned Assistant in Brain Surgery.

Major, now Brigadier General, Lyster, in company with Major, (now Lt. Colonel) de Schweinitz and Major, (now Lt. Colonel) Mosher, made a tour of inspection abroad. During the absence of this committee Major, (now Colonel), Walter R. Parker was placed temporarily in charge of the Division of Surgery of the Head and later was made Officer in Charge. Later Major Blair went overseas and Captain, (now Major), Ivy was left in charge of Plastic and Oral Surgery. Still later Major Ivy went overseas and Major G. V. I. Brown was assigned to his duties.

In the Section of Ophthalmology Major Greenwood went overseas in charge of the Optical Unit. Lieut. Colonel Nelson M. Black soon joined him and when he left the office Lieut. Colonel de Schweinitz was put in charge of Ophthalmology and Major William E. Bruner was assigned to duty in the Surgeon General's Office in connection with Ophthalmology.

During Major Mosher's absence abroad Major Charles W. Richardson was put in charge of Oto-laryngology and later Captain Harry A. Barnes was made assistant in this section.

In addition to classifying the officers available for service, the activities of the division consisted in the selection and standardization of equipment, the preparation of a course of instruction in the base hospitals, organization of special schools and laboratories, assisting in the revision of requirements of registrants, the publication of manuals and periodicals and the recommendation of assignments for overseas duty.

Under the head of equipment might be enumerated the following activities: (1) Standardization of instruments and material; (2) Selection of instruments for base hospitals and for special hospital for surgery of the head (No. 115); (3) Selection of equipment of Optical Units; (4) Standardization of spectacle frames and size of lenses for military use; (5) Investigation of possibility of domestic production of glass for artificial eyes; (6) Standardization of an efficient goggle for aviators.

Under the education activities were included: (1) An outline of the course of lectures to be given at the cantonment base hospitals and at the Medical Officers' Training Camps; (2) List of books for libraries at base hospitals; (3) The organization of the special schools at Ft. Oglethorpe; (4) The

compilation and publication of the following books:

1. The Section of Ophthalmology—Manual of Ophthalmology—published by the Government Printing Office.

2. At the request of the Publishing Committee of the Council of National Defense, three members of the Section of Ophthalmology, Cols. Greenwood de Schweinitz and Parker, prepared a Manual of Ophthalmic Military Surgery including chapters on Trachoma and Examination of Malingerers, published by Lea & Febiger.

3. The Section of Brain Surgery prepared a book on War Surgery of the Nervous System published by the Government Printing Office.

4. The Section of Plastic and Oral Surgery revised Blair's book on Surgery and Diseases of the Mouth and Jaw.

5. The Section of Oto-laryngology prepared a Manual of War Surgery on Oto-laryngology.

6. Survey of Head Surgery. A monthly publication.

The following schools and laboratories were established:

1. Officers' School of Plastic and Oral Surgery, Northwestern University Dental School, Chicago, Illinois.

2. Thomas W. Evans' Museum of Oral Surgery, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

3. The Neuro-surgical Schools in Chicago, Philadelphia and New York.

4. The Neuro-surgical, Plastic and Oral Surgical School of St. Louis.

5. School for Medical officers at Ft. Oglethorpe.

6. The laboratory at Baltimore for the investigation of neuro-surgical problems.

7. The laboratory at Ann Arbor for the investigation of peripheral nerve lesions.

The school at Ft. Ogelthorpe was represented by each of the Divisions in the Surgeon General's Office including not only medicine, surgery and laboratory but also the Divisions of Special Surgery. The Department of Ophthalmology was organized by Lieut. Colonel de Schweinitz.

The clinical activities incident to the return of injured soldiers led to the consideration of the appointment of consultants in the various sections of the Division of Head Surgery.

The complete record of the activities of the four sections of the Division of Surgery of the Head would not be of interest at this time so I shall give in detail only those pertaining to the Section of Ophthalmology.

The total number of ophthalmologists sent to training camps, base hospitals in this country and overseas was seven hundred and fifty-nine. Of these, two hundred and eighty were assigned to foreign service. In addition to this number three hundred and sixty-seven were transferred to other service making the total of officers assigned by the Section of Ophthalmology eleven hundred and twenty-six.

During the year several extensive inspection tours to study the work of the Division of Surgery of the Head in a large number of the hospitals of the cantonments of this country were made by Lt. Colonel Black, and less extensive similar tours by Major Harris P. Mosher, Major Allen Greenwood, Colonel Walter R. Parker and Lt. Col. George E. de Schweinitz. The work of Lt. Colonel Lyster and his committee overseas included an inspection of all the American base hospitals in operation at that time (from November 19, 1917 to January 31, 1918), three Red Cross hospitals, one Naval Base Hospital and a number of base and general hospitals in the British service and one French sector as well as the general and special hospitals in England, and

Note: Since reading this paper the following appointments were made Dec. 24, 1918: Consultant in Ophthalmology, Lt. Colonel G. E. de Schweinitz; Consultant in Otolaryngology, Lt. Colonel Harris F. Mosher; Consultant in Plastic and Oral Surgery, Lt. Colonel V. P. Blair, and Consultant in Neuro-Surgery, Major Charles H. Frazier.

a study of the method of caring for blinded soldiers in France and England was made by Lt. Col. de Schweinitz.

An elaborate study of the trachoma question was made from all standpoints by Lt. Col. Black, which included the trachoma hospitals and concentration camps, to observe the work of the U. S. Public Health Service in preventing the spread of disease. A standard test for the detection of malingers who feigned visual defects was compiled by Colonel Parker.

After the standardization of the spectacles to be worn by the soldiers was perfected by Major (now Colonel) Wilmer and his committee, a plan was perfected whereby glasses could be supplied through the Post Exchange at wholesale prices. Later this plan was changed and the government now furnishes the soldiers spectacles gratis.

To meet the demand for spectacles for soldiers overseas a central optical unit was established in Paris with fourteen auxiliary units to functionate as mobile supply stations. A central plant and eight units were taken to France by Major (now Lt. Colonel) Greenwood, who was afterwards made Senior Consultant in Ophthalmology of the A. E. F. and who now has with him as assistants Lt. Colonel Nelson M. Black and Lt. Colonel George Derby.

Pursuant to the authorization of the Surgeon General for the development of the base hospital particularly devoted to surgery of the head to be established in France, a special base hospital was organized at Cape May in February, 1918, was called for overseas duty the 24th of May, 1918, and is now functioning in France with Lieut. Colonel E. C. Ellett as commanding officer and Captain Francis, of Buffalo, in charge of ophthalmology.

The work of the various sections as it is carried out in the base and general hospitals is more or less familiar to all. In closing I wish to speak especially of the complete spirit of cooperation of all who have been associated in this work and of the courtesy and consideration extended to all by the Surgeon General and his entire staff.

SCHOOL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY.

Medical Officers Training Group.

Camp Greenleaf, Ft. Oglethorpe, Ga.

MAJOR MEYER WIENER, M. C., U. S. ARMY.

U. S. GENERAL HOSPITAL, NO. 11, CAPE MAY, N. J.

This paper details the schedule and actual work of the School of Ophthalmology, the organization and development of which was described by Lt. Col. G. E. de Schweinitz (A. J. O., v. 1, p. 817). Read before the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, Feb. 5th, 1919. Authority to publish granted, Board of Publication, S. G. O.

The Army School of Ophthalmology was the outgrowth of plans laid out by our distinguished and able confrere, Lieut. Col. George E. de Schweinitz, who, after several trips to Camp Greenleaf and Ft. Oglethorpe, selected the site, equipment and finally the instructors to direct and develop the school.

I arrived at Camp Greenleaf under War Department orders on July 19, 1918, and started on my course of military training with no idea as to what work I was to do, or where I was to be assigned. On July 30, I was ordered to report for duty to Lieut. Col. de Schweinitz, as instructor in the school of Ophthalmology. The length of the course had already been determined by the proper authorities, to be four weeks, and the hours from 9 to 11:30 and 1:30 to 4, daily, excepting Saturday, when the hours were limited from 9 to 11. Col. de Schweinitz thought from the beginning that the two hours Saturday morning could be taken up to best advantage with written and

oral quiz, and this proved so satisfactory that the plan was continued thruout the life of the school. There remained 25 hours each week, or a total of 100 teaching hours for the course. I was asked to submit a schedule, including two hours of didactic teaching each day, which made a total of forty hours, leaving sixty hours for practical work. After several conferences Col. de Schweinitz finally determined upon a tentative schedule and the school was formally opened on August 12, 1918, with eight student officers. This number rapidly increased, until at one time we were teaching a class of 63 student officers, taxing our facilities to the utmost.

At the time of the organization of the school Captain Alfred Cowan and Lt. L. G. Campbell, then serving in the eye department of General Hospital No. 14, and Lt. M. E. Brownell lent most effective aid and the heartiest cooperation in establishing an efficient course. Later Lt. F. O. Schwartz, Lt. T. J. Moran, Capt. S. T. Hubbard, Lt. Nicholson, Maj. H. M. Morton, Lt. C. P. Dyer, and Capt. Claude T. Wolfe were in turn added to the teaching faculty. Lt. Moran, a brilliant officer of noble character and splendid training, died during the influenza epidemic, his loss being deeply felt by all who knew him.

The following schedule for the month of December illustrates in a measure the course of study outlined for the school, and from this there was very little deviation:

SCHEDULE OF COURSE IN OPHTHALMOLOGY FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK	*MONDAY*	*TUESDAY*	*WEDNESDAY*	*THURSDAY*	*FRIDAY*
9-10 A. M.	Lecture—Routine of Exam. of Patients—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Retinoscopy—Lt. Brownell.	Lecture—Physiological Optics—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Functional Testing—Lt. Brownell.	Lecture—Lids and Lacrimal Apparatus. Lt. Schwartz.
10-11:30 A. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
1.30-2.30 P. M.	Lecture—Refraction—Lt. Schwartz.	Lecture—Muscle Testing—Lt. Brownell.	Lecture—Surgery of Lids—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Principals of Plastic Surgery—Capt. Davis.	Lecture—Surgery of Conjunctiva—Maj. Wiener.
2.30-3-30 P. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
3.30-3.45 P. M.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.

(Saturday—9-11 A. M.—Quiz.)

SECOND WEEK					
9-10 A. M.	Lecture—Conjunctiva—Lt. Schwartz.	Lecture—Cornea—Capt. Hubbard.	Lecture—Uveal Tract—Capt. Hubbard.	Lecture—Media and Sclera. Capt. Hubbard.	Lecture—Fundus—Maj. Wiener.
10.30-11.30 A. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
1.30-2.30 P. M.	Microscopical Pathology—Progressive Sectional Groups.	Microscopical Pathology—Progressive Sectional Groups.	Lecture—Surgery of Conjunctiva—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Surgery of Eye Muscles—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Surgery of Orbit. Capt. Hubbard.
2.30-3.30 P. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
3-4 P. M.				Lecture—Accessory Sinuses—Maj. Wiener.	
3.00-3.45 P. M.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.		Quiz Conference.

(Saturday—9-11 A. M.—Quiz.)

THIRD WEEK

9-10 A. M.	Lecture—Heterotropia—Lt. Brownell.	Lecture—Functional Testing—Lt. Brownell.	Lecture—Pupillary Reflexes and Visual Paths. Capt. Hubbard.	Lecture—Focal Infections—Lt. Schwartz.	Lecture—Fundus—Maj. Wiener.
10-11.30 A. M.	Practical York.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
1.30-2.30 P. M.	Microscopical Pathology—Progressive Sectional Groups.	Lecture—Fundus—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Surgery of Cataracts—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Surgery of Glaucoma. Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Surgery of Foreign Bodies—Maj. Wiener.
2.30-3.30 P. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
3.30-3.45 P. M.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.

(Saturday—9-11 A. M.—Quiz.)

FOURTH WEEK

9-10 A. M.	Lecture—Injuries—Maj. Wiener	Lecture—Neurology—Maj. Wiener.		Lecture—Accessory Sinuses—Capt. Davis.	Lecture—X-Ray Localization of Foreign Bodies. Capt. Blaine.
10-11.30 A. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
1.30-2.30 P. M.	Lecture—Fundus—Maj. Wiener.	Lecture—Fundus—Maj. Wiener.		Surgery.	Surgery.
2.30-3.30 P. M.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.	Practical Work.
3-4 P. M.	Lecture—Bacteriology and Pathology of Eye—Maj. Keilty.				
3.30-3.45 P. M.	Quiz Conference.			Quiz Conference.	Quiz Conference.

(Saturday—9-11 A. M.—Quiz.)

Practical work in the course includes:

Refraction. Muscle Testing. Outlining visual fields and scotomata.

Examinations of fundi in wards and clinic.

Examination of external diseases in patients in wards and clinic.

Operations on pigs' eyes and on patients in General Hospital No. 14, and in West-Ellis Hospital in Chattanooga. The talks on surgery are illustrated by lantern slides and drawings, and are followed by the operation itself on animal eyes, patients or cadaver.

Also practical paper work in ward and demonstration of method of keeping records and cross indexing.

The purpose of the school was twofold. First, to determine those who were fit for Ophthalmology, from those student officers who had been either held by the Surgeon General's Office for that purpose, or had selected eye work of their own volition. This was done, first, by preliminary examination conducted by the director of the school, who decided whether the student officer had had sufficient ground work to be accepted for the course; and by his final qualification given at the termination of the course as determined by the character of his work, both practical and theoretic, as well as written final examinations.

Second, it served as a postgraduate course for those who would have ordinarily been qualified, but tended to produce even greater efficiency.

The dominant thought prevailing thruout the entire period of instruction was to instill the idea of system in the method of examination of patients and recording of cases; which always, when properly carried, out, makes for thoroness and efficiency.

I wish to state here that the men who stood highest in their profession and proved the most efficient in their work were the ones who were most anxious to take the course and expressed the greatest appreciation for what they got out of it.

One might think that a man's previous experience or standing in the community would be sufficient recommendation, but I can recall one officer who had been practicing his specialty for over twenty years in one of our largest cities, with a preliminary European training, who could not even be accepted in the school, altho on account of his years I endeavored to be most liberal and lenient with him. One officer who had been commissioned a major and who had limited his practice to diseases of the eye, did not answer one single question given him on preliminary examination. Another, who had a flourishing practice in one of our large industrial centers and was teaching Ophthalmology in an accredited university, passed such a poor examination, that we could not accept him for the course. In this particular case where the applicant had been giving special instruction in refraction, he was unable to transpose a prescription for glasses, did not know the action of the ocular muscles and did not realize the influence the mus cle balance had in determining the amount of refractive error to be corrected.

I may mention, that in all doubtful cases, the entire staff was consulted as to the disposition of the particular officer, and that I have access to a file containing the record of each question and the answer given by every student officer examined, should any question come up as to the justice of our decision. Occasionally, when there was some doubt as to whether a man might make good or not, he was given the benefit of the doubt, and taken into the course on trial. If he proved to be unworthy, at the end of a week or so, he was sent back for general duty; if he made good, he continued in the course. A few finished who were able to do careful and excellent refraction work, but whose general work otherwise did not come up to requirements. These were recommended for refraction only. Others who showed unusual proficiency in operative work were recommended accordingly. An unusual opportunity was offered to grade the officers, as each case examined by them was checked up by one of the staff, and every Saturday the entire class was quizzed for one hour by the director, and then in sections by the rest of the staff. On the last Saturday of the course a written quiz was given, one question or more being asked on each of the following subjects: Anatomy, Pathology, Optics, Refraction, Muscles, Diagnosis, Treatment, Ophthalmoscopy, Neurology, and Operations. Each week a conference was held by the staff, the grades of all the members of the class written down by each instructor and submitted to the director. It was surprising how closely these grades coincided, and it was seldom that there was enough difference to even bring up a discussion. When a name came up on which there was a wide difference of opinion by the several members of the staff, his name was recorded by the staff and his work observed more closely than before by all of us. In this manner a satisfactory agreement was always reached.

One interesting feature which developed during the later stages of the school was the quiz conference. It was found that usually the officer finished the case given him to work out in the afternoon fifteen or twenty minutes before closing time and there would be a grand rush to get thru and hasten back to the barracks. We therefore compelled the entire class to assemble the last fifteen minutes of the day and devoted the time to having the student officers ask questions of the instructors on any point which might have come up during the course of their work during that day. This gave rise at times to most interesting, and I think, instructive discussion in clearing up any hazy impression.

The close contact into which I was thrown with such a large number of men practicing the eye as a specialty, impresses me most forcibly with the necessity for a more thoro and sys-

tematic course of training for the specialist.

For our own department, I have thought that some of the heads of the ophthalmologic departments of our leading medical schools might get together and outline a plan for a course of instruction whereby anyone desiring to take up this specialty could be assured of an efficient and effective course of training making for proficiency. I am also convinced that as a fitting climax, each one should strive to secure a certificate from the American Board of Ophthalmic Examiners, as a mark of his capability. I am convinced that this certificate should never be given, as is occasionally the case at present, to a man on his reputation or standing in the community, but that there should be no exception, and anyone desiring this certificate should submit to the same sort of examination.

I believe the leading Ophthalmologists of the country should set an example and express their willingness to cooperate by submitting to this examination, whereby the actual worth of such a certificate would be increased many times and make its possession a goal for which one should strive.

REFRACTION METHODS EMPLOYED IN THE DEPARTMENT OF OPHTHALMOLOGY OF THE ATTENDING SURGEON'S OFFICE, UNITED STATES ARMY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Major John R. Newcomb, M.C., U. S. Army.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

This paper describes the methods in question with especial emphasis upon objective methods, a subjective test for astigmia, the card record kept of each case, and the use of a cycloplegic followed by a miotic. Authority to publish granted by the Board of Publications, S. G. O.

The accurate determination of errors of refraction offers to the ophthalmologist a field which, until recent years, has been more or less neglected and which warrants the very best efforts of every man engaged in ophthalmology. The reason for the dislike and frequent neglect which so many ophthalmologists exhibit toward refraction work is due to but one thing and that is the fact that refraction work has not been done scientifically, the element of chance having played a major role, and the ophthalmologist being a scientifically trained man naturally feels a dislike for that phase of his work which presents to him little other than the humdrum, "Is this better or worse?"

Leaving the selection of a lens to the patient's judgment discounts at once the value of any scientific observations which may have been made. The moment the psychology of visual judgment enters as a positive element into the determination of the lens to be prescribed, just that instant the ophthalmologist fails. Frankly or perhaps subconsciously he admits to himself that his work is not good, that luck is in reality the determining factor in the selection of lenses; and that, no matter how he may temper the patient's visual judgment with his own opinion and experience, the result is and always will be largely a matter of luck. Unfortunately, reference to the patient's visual judgment cannot always be wholly eliminated but it can be made to assume a very minor role.

One thousand consecutive refraction cases have been taken as the basis of the statistic feature of this report. The first one thousand patients under forty years of age have been selected and represent a great variety of professions and occupations. A very small proportion of these patients was com-

posed of others than officers and enlisted men of the army. The statistics are compiled from the case records written by the four officers on duty in The Department of Ophthalmology of The Attending Surgeon's Office; and, are, therefore, of greater value than had they been based upon the work of but one man. My associates, Captain W. H. Chandlee, Lieutenant B. J. Larkin and Lieutenant W. J. Creighton have assisted in every way to insure the accuracy of the records.

An analysis of the first one thousand cases of error of refraction shows the various errors to have occurred in the following percentage of frequency:

Emmetropia	0.5%
Simple Hyperopia	8.5%
Simple Hyperopic Astigmia	5.7%
Compound Hyperopic Astigmia	45.8%
Simple Myopia	3.5%
Simple Myopic Astigmia	3.3%
Compound Myopic Astigmia	16.9%
Mixed Astigmia	15.8%

In comparison with previous statistical reports published the percent of emmetropia is higher; due, doubtless, to the fact that these patients represent, as a class, men whose physical condition was of necessity above the average.

Sixty percent of these patients present hyperopia or its astigmias and the the myopic astigmias are represented by 23.7 per cent. Mixed astigmia is less than I have reported in previous papers being found in but fifteen and eight-tenths percent. This decrease is probably due to the fact that the men presenting the high degrees of mixed astigmia possessed insufficient visual acuity to permit their entering the army and therefore did not come under the observation of this department.

The method of examination will now be described in detail with the hope that the routine methods of this department may show an effort toward more scientific refraction, and that the skeptical may be induced to try to substitute objective for subjective methods. The objective method of refraction is not yet perfected, but with its few imperfections it is far more reliable and infinitely more scientific and accurate than the best of the subjective.

History. The history card illustrated has proven satisfactory in the recording of all necessary information and with but few changes may be made available for use in private practice. Its advantages are simplicity, brevity and practicability. The use of this card is explained by reference to the illustration.

A normal fundus is indicated by outlining the optic nerve and printing within the circular outline of the nerve the letter "N." Should abnormalities of the fundus be discovered, the words, "See Reverse" may be written within the circle and a drawing and description of the ophthalmoscopic findings made on the reverse side of the history card.

The skiascopic findings are recorded within the large circle as shown in the illustration and the axis, as determined in the dark room, indicated by drawing a line in the corresponding position of the axis of the correcting cylinder. The advantages of using this method of recording ophthalmoscopic and skiascopic findings are that the maximum of information is condensed in small space in the minimum of time and that a glance at the history card immediately gives the desired information.

The reverse side of the card is blank and may be used for drawings or extended notes. On this card of four by six inches all data relative to the average case can be quickly, accurately and comprehensively recorded without unnecessary waste of space.

Vision of each eye, with and without lenses, is recorded; extraocular muscle balance, (E.O.M.), determined and the tension of each eye recorded.

In eliciting the history of symptoms it has been found advisable to follow a definite outline of questions. The nurses on duty take the history and in a general way follow the scheme of questions here outlined.

1. How long have you worn lenses? Present correction how long?
2. In what way do your eyes trouble you?
3. Where is the headache usually located? (The location of headache is recorded in the

history as frontal, supraorbital, postorbital, temporal, vertical, occipital or nuchal, the so-called "check-rein" sensation.

4. Do you have pain in your eyes? Sharp or dull? Does it follow close work? Is it present following theater or church? Does it come at any particular time of day?

5. Do your eyelids smart or burn? Is there any secretion present in the mornings?

6. Does the light hurt your eyes?

7. Is your sight poor for distance or for close work? When did you first notice this, and has it become worse slowly or rapidly?

8. Have you noticed anything peculiar about lights at night? No rainbow or halo?

9. Are you subject to nervous depression or to nervous irritability? How does it manifest itself? Do you have difficulty in going to sleep? Do you have peculiar "floating sensations" when you first lie down? Do you have vertigo?

10. Unclassified symptoms.

Needless to say the nurse does not necessarily ask all these questions, for usually when the patient is given opportunity he will recite his train of symptoms without questioning or prompting. However if the above outline is borne in mind a few additional questions will usually suffice to complete the record. The recording of the symptoms presented by the patient is very valuable, and is of great assistance in the guidance of the patient subsequent to the examination.

The history having been completed, and there being no increased tension nor history suggestive of a glaucoma or of a glaucomatous tendency, the cycloplegic is instilled. In this office a solution of homatropin hydrobromat 2 per cent, and erythroxylon hydrochlorid 1 per cent is used for the induction of cycloplegia. One drop of such solution in each eye at ten minute intervals for five instillations is sufficient and the ciliary muscles are relaxed at the end of sixty minutes. There are rare exceptions to this. The ideal method of using this cycloplegic is in the form of B. W. ophthalmic discs, each disc containing one fiftieth of a grain of each drug. These discs have not been obtainable during the war. One of these discs placed on the conjunctiva of the lower lid near the outer canthus will produce a cycloplegia equal in degree to that brought about by the use of five drops of the solution and there does not exist the danger of systemic effect.

Whichever is used it is of the utmost importance that pressure be made to exclude the drug from the nasal

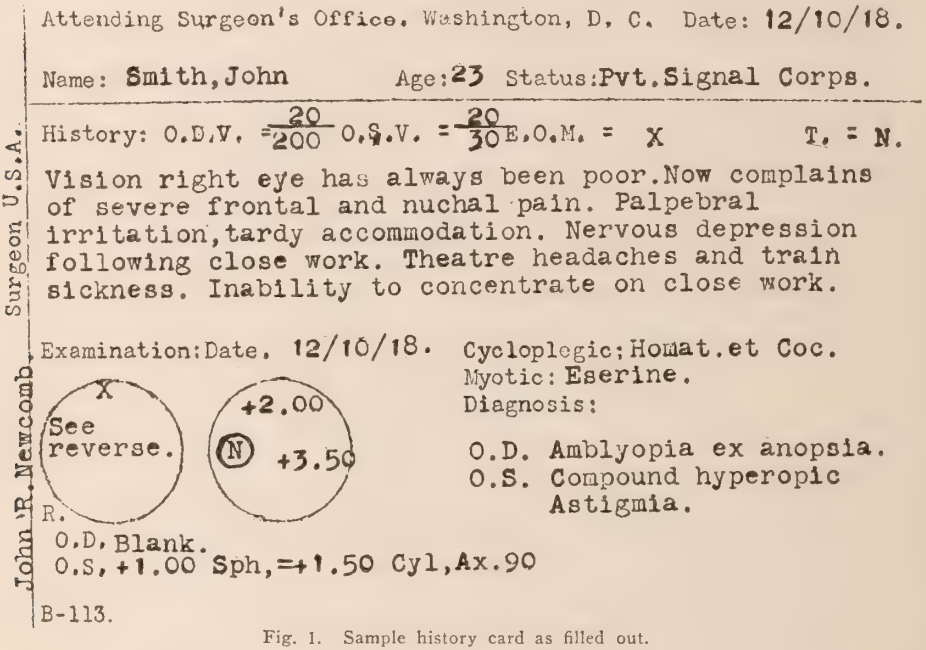


Fig. 1. Sample history card as filled out.

passages. After sufficient time has elapsed for the complete absorption of the drug by the ocular tissues, about five minutes, it is neither necessary nor advisable for the patient to continue the pressure against the side of the nose or to keep the eyes closed. Care must be taken . . . in every case to insure the establishment of cycloplegia as well as mydriasis.

Ophthalmoscopic Examination. It seems needless to mention that a careful ophthalmoscopic examination should be made of every case refracted. However a surprisingly large number of patients who have previously been examined by oculists have stated that no ophthalmoscopic examination had ever been made in the previous examinations. The electric ophthalmoscope has been found superior in all ways and possesses advantages too numerous to mention.

Skiascopic Examination. This is by far the most important phase of the examination and skiascopy is an art which can be mastered only by persistent and unlimited practice and constant practical application. The choice of skiascope is important. The most satisfactory instrument to use is equipped with a plane mirror of 18 mm. diameter, the mirror being preferably of Noviol glass, and the mirror should be tested to insure its being a true plane mirror. Irregularities in the mirror surface will lead to faulty results and this is frequently the cause of unsatisfactory results in the skiascopy. A second skiascope of but 10 mm. diameter has been found advantageous but it requires a great deal of practice with so small a mirror before the use of it becomes satisfactory.

The source of light is very important and in this office the most satisfactory light for skiascopy has been obtained from a 60 watt frosted bulb Mazda lamp such as can be obtained from any dealer in electrical supplies. The lamp should be so jacketed as to keep all light off the patient's face. It should be placed between the patient and the operator on a level with the eyes.

The one meter distance between the eye under examination and the skiascope is of utmost importance and great accuracy in maintaining this distance is to be observed. A variation of one or two inches is inconsequential but beyond this slight variation error is certain to result. It is not necessary to employ any mechanical means to maintain this distance as any such appliance is apt to prove annoying and cumbersome. White marks on the black wall of the dark room indicating the distance of one meter make possible the correct placing of the chair for the patient and the stool for the operator.

Skiascopy with trial frame and lenses: The use of the so-called skiascopic frames is not to be recommended as their use leads to hurried, careless methods and the determinations made are gross determinations and merely approximate the actual correction. Experience has shown that the skiascopic correction of first one principal meridian with a spherical lens and then the correction of the opposite principal meridian with a sphere does not give accurate results in the correction of an existing astigmia. This is very frequently demonstrated in using sphero-cylinder combinations in the skiascopy in the dark room, it being no uncommon thing to find it necessary to change the sphere originally selected when the proper correcting cylinder is superimposed. For example, if a plus one seventy five sphere is found to stop shadow movement in the vertical meridian, but is insufficient for the horizontal; and an additional seventy five cylinder, axis ninety degrees, corrects in the horizontal it is frequently observed that the original sphere of plus one seventy five must be reduced to a one fifty or even less. Had the correction been done with the skiascopic frames the reduction in strength of the sphere for the vertical would not have appeared necessary, and the result would have been an overcorrection in all meridians. For this reason, if for no other, the use of the skiascopic frames is to be heartily condemned. It is the ob-

servation of this office that the use of trial frame with sphero-cylinder combinations in the performance of skiascopy leads to far greater accuracy in results and its use is recommended. The Punktal trial case with the small lenses, and the trial frame or portable phorometer supplied with it, make an ideal equipment for skiascopy. The increased initial expense is more than offset by the very many advantages offered by its use.

The determination of the axis of an existing astigmia is most often made in the dark room examination. This is true only when the skiascopy is done with the trial frame and sphero-cylinder lenses. Practice will enable the operator to determine with the greatest accuracy and ease the axis of astigmia, and recourse to subjective methods is very seldom necessary. To those who are exponents of subjective testing this may meet with disapproval; but the fact remains that such a determination is possible and that in this office subjective methods of determining axis are not resorted to in over five percent of all cases refracted.

Skiascopy can no more be described than can the correct playing of the violin; and the technic of skiascopy can only be mastered by hard, patient, studious effort. Several points, I wish to emphasize. First, that the movements of the mirror should be very limited. A tilt of the mirror of four millimeters is usually all that is necessary or advisable. In some cases this range of mirror excursion will have to be extended but it will be found with practice that the mirror movements can be materially reduced in range. One of the most confusing complications of skiascopy may be brought about by too extensive mirror movements. Tilt the mirror just enough to bring out the true shadow movement and a considerable confusion will be avoided. Second: The establishment of the proper distance between the patient's eye and the skiascopic mirror. This should be one meter. Third: The use of a small skiascope is absolutely essential for accurate results. A mirror of 18 mm. is as large as should be used. Fourth: Proper illumination as described. The electric skiascopes are not good because of the fact that an uneven illumination apparently is not avoidable. In connection with the subject of illumination it should be mentioned that the dark room should be a dark room and not a darkened room. The less outside light entering the room, the better the skiascopy.

Only by recognizing skiascopy as being very difficult of mastery and by hard, diligent practice and observance of all the details of technic can skiascopy be made to serve as it should. Proper application of skiascopy furnishes us the ideal method of determining errors of refraction and the application of proper correcting lenses and if carefully and accurately done it will be found that in most examinations the prescription for lenses may be written directly from the dark room findings without recourse to the subjective methods of examination. This claim will doubtless meet with opposition but such opposition will arise from those who do not perform skiascopy accurately, and from those who do not have faith enough in their dark room work to trust to its practical application in the formulating of the prescription for lenses.

SUBJECTIVE TESTS.

The determination of the axis of astigmia is not always possible in the dark room examination and subjective tests must occasionally be resorted to. Subjective tests for determining axis are numerous and none without its faults. The criticism to be offered concerning the majority of astigmia charts is that they are confusing and that the patient is allowed too great latitude in the formation of his visual judgment. The chart in use in this office possesses faults but its one recommendation is its simplicity which in turn means its greater accuracy. All tests for the determination of axis of astigmia should be made while the patient's eyes are completely under the effect of the cycloplegic and the findings thus made should not be altered, regardless of what the patient's judgment may

seem to indicate, in case a postcycloplegic test is made. Adherence to this point is absolutely necessary and deviation from it means failure.

The astigmia chart employed in this office is illustrated below. It consists of black and white squares, 15 by 15 m.m., alternately placed in the form of a checkerboard. The chart is twenty-four centimeters in diameter and circular in form.

The chart is used at a distance of twenty feet from the patient or at a lesser distance if more convenient or if necessary on account of reduced visual acuity. The patient's eyes being under a cycloplegic and the spherical lens being in place in the trial frame, the proper correcting cylindric lens is placed in the frame at the opposite axis to that which was found in the dark room to be correct, or approximately correct.



Fig. 2. The checkerboard chart as seen by the emmetropic eye.

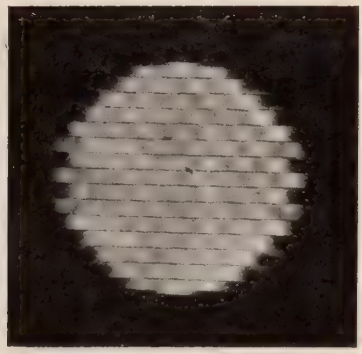


Fig. 3. Checkerboard chart as seen by an eye with simple myopic astigmia of one diopter, axis 90°, the accommodation being entirely relaxed.

Before this lens is placed in position, in the faulty position described, the patient is advised that the addition of the cylinder will result in a very decided blurring of the checkerboard. In the words of the patient, "the squares are all mussed up." Having demonstrated this to the patient, slowly turn the cylinder, having instructed the patient to say, "stop," so soon as there appear clean cut black and white squares. With children this test may readily be turned into a game into which they enter with marked enthusiasm. There is rarely any hesitancy on the part of the patient when the proper axis has been reached, and repeated rotation of the cylinder will prove the accuracy of this test, as the patient will not vary in his selection of axis. The thing is so very simple that almost without exception there is present no confusion on the part of the patient and a repetition of the test is seldom necessary. The test is recommended as being most accurate on account of its simplicity and its use will eliminate much needless confusion and will result in a great saving of time. Its use as compared with the clock-dial and other astigmia tests will very quickly and conclusively prove its superior value.

The following illustrations will demonstrate as clearly as photographs can the principle of this test. The camera is made astigmatic by the addition of a cylinder to the lens system. By adding a plus one cylinder at axis 180° the camera is made myopic to the extent of one diopter in the vertical axis. In other words a simple myopic astigmia is produced. The correcting cylinder, a —1.00 is next introduced into the lens system at right angles to its known proper axis, i.e., at axis 90° instead of at the correct axis of 180°.

Postcycloplegic examinations are sometimes necessary in addition to the dark room findings. As has been stated the postcycloplegic examination is the exception in this office, and when made is really but a verification of the

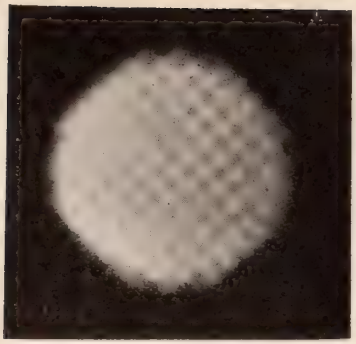


Fig. 4. Same refractive condition as above illustrated with the correcting cylinder placed at 90° instead of at 180°, the proper correcting axis.

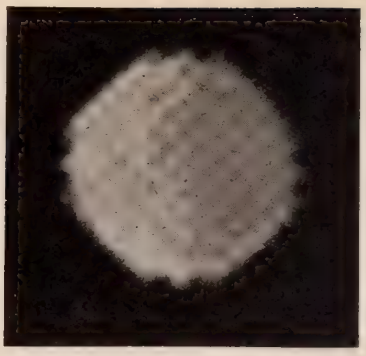


Fig. 5. Correcting cylinder placed 45 degrees from correct position.

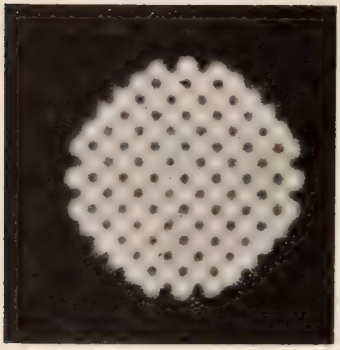


Fig. 6. Correcting cylinder placed 30 degrees from correct position.

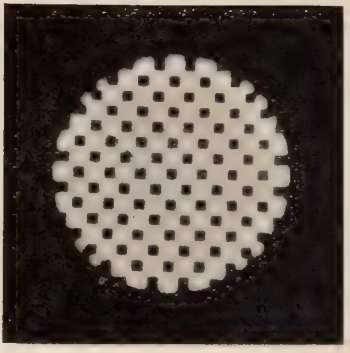


Fig. 7. Correcting cylinder placed 15 degrees from correct position.



Fig. 8. Correcting cylinder placed 5 degrees from correct position.

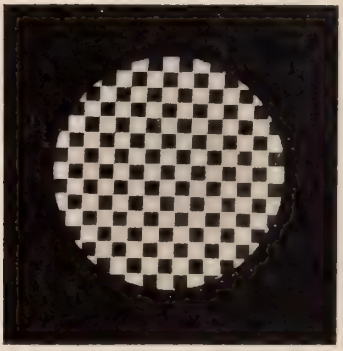


Fig. 9. Correcting cylinder placed 1 degree from correct position.

dark room findings and not a postcycloplegic examination in the broad sense of the word. This is not omitted in an endeavor to save time, but experience has shown these subjective tests to be superfluous in the majority of cases. The postcycloplegic tests for spherical tolerance and axis are made only in those cases in which the axis of astigmia has not been absolutely determined with the skiascope; and in such cases as present an error of refraction of unusually high degree, particularly if the patient has not had previous experience with lenses. The reason for this is obvious. It must again be emphasized that the dark room findings are not deviated from, there being no digression from the actual findings, and the patient is given no opportunity to detract from the value of a scientific refraction by giving his unreliable and capricious opinions.

The routine use of a *myotic* has been both advocated and denounced; and yet the fact remains that it furnishes us with a most valuable aid, and should be used invariably and without exception following the use of a cycloplegic, in all patients over sixteen years of age. In children its use is not to be advocated on account of the very severe and intense ciliary spasm which is apt to result. In adults this is a very rare thing, but one case having been observed over a period of eleven years constant use. It is a grave mistake for an ophthalmologist to permit a patient to leave his office under the effect of a cycloplegic except in those cases where there exists a therapeutic reason for its continued action.

As before mentioned the ophthalmic disc furnishes the ideal method of application, but during the period of the war it was necessary to revert to the use of the solution. One drop of a one percent solution of eserin sulphat placed in each eye will speedily restore the accommodation with no unpleasant effects arising from its use. Previous to its instillation the patient is warned of the slight muscular twitching and spasm of the palpebral muscles which persists for a few minutes.

The advantages obtained from using the myotic are, first, safety. A glaucoma will not be a possibility. Second: Patients are enabled to return to any close work within an hour after leaving the office. There are rare exceptions to this. Very frequently the ciliary function is restored in even less time but in some conditions it is two to three hours before the full effect is gained. This varies according to the error of refraction present, the hyperopic eye requiring more time and the myopic less.

In the prescribing of lenses it may be well to mention that all prescriptions from this office call for *spectacles,* except in cases of simple hyperopia or myopia. If sufficient time is taken to explain to the patient the absolute necessity of having the glasses straight there will be found but little opposition to the wearing of spectacles. When patients remain obdurate it is wise and advisable to refuse to accept responsibility for the unsatisfactory results which are sure to follow the wearing of a cylindrical or sphero-cylindrical lens in any other than a rigid spectacle mounting. After the patient has become accustomed to the spectacles there is no objection to nose glasses for evening wear, for once the eyes have become comfortable following the use of the spectacles the inaccuracy of the nose glasses will speedily be reognized by the patient, due to the return of symptoms.

It has been the purpose of this report to emphasize the importance of observation of all details of refraction work if a uniformity of results is to be expected. It has been possible to dwell upon only a few of the more important features of the work in this report and those selected are the points upon which most ophthalmologists are at variance. The most painstaking examination will be unsuccessful if all the details of technic are not rigidly adhered to thruout the entire course of the examination.

The application of the method of routine refraction which this report has

attempted to discuss may well be adapted to use in private practice without change of material importance. It has been the method followed by the author for eleven years in private practice and the results obtained have proven the reliability and dependability of the objective method of refraction. My associates in the Attending Surgeon's Office have adopted this method of objective refraction; and with the opportunity offered for observing the final results obtained in the refractions performed in this office, it may be said in all fairness that the objective method of determining and correcting errors of refraction has proven itself to be superior in every respect to subjective methods. The proof has been so convincing and conclusive that all subjective methods have practically been discarded, and the refraction work of the Department of Ophthalmology of The Attending Surgeon's Office is based entirely upon objective methods.

FUNDUS PATHOLOGY WITH THE RED-FREE LIGHT OF VOGT.

ROBERT VON DER HEYDT, M.D.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

This paper calls attention to (a) A new Symptom of Retinal Atrophy, and (b) Macular and Foveal Changes. With illustrations showing the apparatus used to furnish the light. Read before the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, February 17, 1919. (See p. 351 for Discussion.)

In the normal fundus the red-free light gives us the first absolute demonstration of the yellow coloring at the macula in the living eye. Owing to an increased contrast new details of the macula and fovea can be seen.

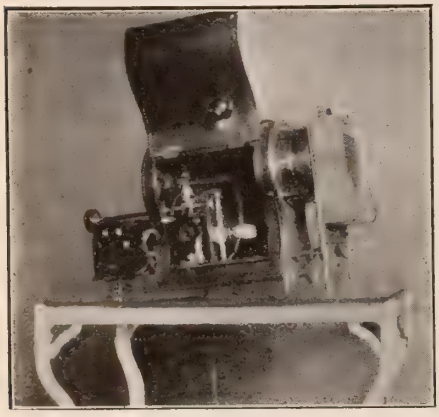


Fig. 1. Lamp with filtration apparatus, after Vogt and Affolter.

With it we can also measure by comparison the yellow discoloration of the lens in age and in monolateral aphakia.

In addition the increased visibility of the retinal nerve fibers with the red-free light is of great importance. In a recent article Vogt draws attention to the fact that optic atrophy with our present method of examination is only diagnosable at the nerve-head and from the vessel caliber of the same. The retina, however, though it no doubt is regularly involved in the atrophic process, shows no ophthalmoscopic changes. With the red-free light he is able to see the nerve striations of the retina and study their pathologic changes.

In optic neuritis and retinitis the nerve fibers are coarser, single bundles intermingle, while elsewhere they are interrupted and seem to recede in step-like layers.

Aside from these inflammatory changes he finds certain modifications of the nerve fiber striations in optic atrophy. In complete postneuritic, as well as in primary and glaucomatous atrophy, also in that complicating retinitis pigmentosa and fracture of the base of the skull, there is found a white, marble-like mottling of the surface.

Most interesting and instructive are the cases where one optic nerve is normal and the other atrophic.

A case of this type, following fracture of the base of the skull, five years ago, in a male, now forty-five years of age, is described.

With the ordinary illumination there are no changes except those of atrophy at the nerve-head and its vessels. With the red-free light, however, we find a total absence of the retinal striations in the atrophic eye. In their place there is a delicately mottled marbleized surface. Also, a thin, whitish line on either side of the vessels, invisible with ordinary illumination. In a case of partial postneuritic atrophy complicating multiple sclerosis there was a reduction in the visibility of the nerve



Fig. 2. Honey-comb appearance of macula.

fibre striae, and in certain zones they were absent.

This herewith described disappearances of retinal striations must be added to the symptomatology of optic atrophy, and must be conceded to be the only known visible ophthalmoscopic sign of retinal atrophy, if we exclude the more or less indefinite picture of shrinking of the vessel caliber. Of especial practical importance are further detailed observations made with the red-free light in retrobulbar neuritis.

In the diagnosis of this quite common and often obscure eye disease, we must at times make absolute dependence on such subjective symptoms as the statement of the patient as to his habits, nyctalopia, central scotoma, etc.

Several authors have drawn attention to degenerative changes in the retinal vessels which accompany this disease. They are, however, not always present and often difficult of diagnosis. If present they are not necessarily pathognomonic of retrobulbar neuritis. The latter is also true of the so-called temporal pallor of the disc, which is often found in normal fundi.

It is therefore of great practical value that we have in the red-free illumination a method at our disposal with which we can diagnose degenerative changes of the maculopapillary bundle in retrobulbar neuritis.

The changes found with great regularity (eight cases) are the above described absence of striation and a substitution therefor of the marbleized zone in the papillomacular bundle.

Vogt has been able to observe similar changes and degenerations in this same retinal zone in cases of ascending atrophy of this central nerve tract in isolated disease, and degeneration of the macular and foveal zone.

Very recent anatomic investigations have proven that the macular zone is practically absent in the eyes of Albinos. The investigations of Vogt and Affolter seem to confirm this as they fail to find the yellow coloration at the macula in the eyes of living Albinos. This leads to the conclusion that the absence of the yellow coloring matter deposited in the macula is in direct or indirect relation to the lack of pigment in general.

In the past few months I have been able to study many fundi with the red-free light. The yellow coloration of the macula is most beautiful. I note a greatly increased visibility of the foveolar reflex of Dimmer. It shows as a most luminous spot, much more glistening, for instance, than any so-called cholesterin crystals I have ever seen.

Further investigation in this zone with the red-free light I am sure will make of greater value the work of Haab, Dimmer, Gullstrand, and others who have made this physiologically so important, and pathologically most vulnerable retinal area, the object of

so much observation, study and research.

Vogt describes certain pathologic honeycomb-like changes of the macula, visible only in the red-free light. They were found especially in cases of retinitis pigmentosa, and continued during certain long periods. A year later, in one case, he found them less marked. In other very advanced cases they were absent.

Vogt also has noted this vacuoli formation, for a period of several months, in cases of injury to the macula following contusion of the bulb. Later on they gradually disappeared. He considers them symptoms of vascular and cystic degeneration of the macula.

Leber has described similar vacuoles of the macula anatomically and presumes that the bursting of some of their thin anterior walls could produce, in time, the condition we know of as "hole in the macula."

Vogt gives a most interesting description of vacuoles of this kind in a case of embolism of the central retinal vein. Two large, nearly circular, spaces in the center of the macula showed a hyphema in their lower thirds. After a few days these two became confluent. Quite a number of other smaller vacuoles, partly containing blood, were visible and remained so for months. If the patient would be examined lying on one or the other side, this precipitate would slide or gravitate to the altered position. On the patient's resuming the upright attitude they would return to their original site in about two minutes.

Following this experiment a distinct clouding of the clear contents of the cyst above the hyphema was repeatedly noted and continued for a short period, due to a whirling or stirring up of the pigment disturbed in its complete precipitation.

All of these observations prove that cystic degeneration of the macula can produce the condition we call "hole in the macula," and account for the great length of time so often consumed in gradually bringing about this interesting pathologic condition.



Fig. 3

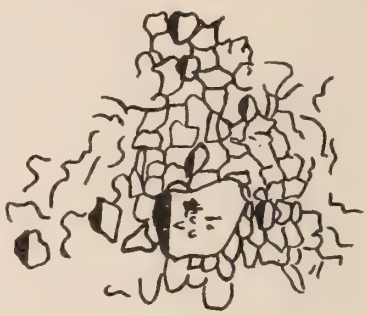


Fig. 4

Effect of change of posture showing gravitation of hyphemae.

Many new reflexes in various parts of the retina and true folds not due to separation or detachment are fully described by Vogt in several recent articles. Affolter also emphasizes the greater visibility of delicate vitreous opacities, deposits on lens and vascularization of the cornea, with the red-free light.

It is not expected that this method will supersede the ordinary light for ophthalmoscopy. Certain conditions, such as exudative zones, the changes of retinitis proliferans, medullated nerve fibers, and the star figuration of retinitis, for instance, are seen in better contrast with our old light. There is no doubt, however, that with the red-free light we have added a most valuable and helpful method of diagnosis.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

FOREIGN BODIES IN THE EYE BALL—THREE ILLUSTRATIVE CASES.

JOHN J. O'BRIEN, M. D.

SCHENECTADY, N. Y.

In the literature and in the books we often look in vain for positive, clearcut guidance in difficult problems presented to us. For this reason, the subjoined narrative of types of some common but serious eye injuries may not be without value in helping to form a judgment, upon the correctness of which a life of light or darkness may hang.

CASE I.

In September last, J. M., aged 50 years, was reaming holes in a locomotive boiler in the local plant of the American Locomotive Company. Reamers are made from very hard steel. As the tapered end of the one he was using would not enter the hole, he hit the other end with a hammer. A piece of the brittle steel flew and penetrated his right eyeball 7 mm. to the nasal side of the limbus and 3mm. below the horizontal meridian.

Within an hour after the accident, the foreign body was located by X-ray 14 mm. back of the cornea, 2 mm. from the retina on the temporal side and 5 mm. below the horizontal plane. The particle was 3x3x1 mm. With a magnet the steel was extracted from the globe thru the wound of entrance. There was a little reaction without, but considerable haziness of the vitreous within the eye. On the 17th, the vision was 7/200 and no details of the fundus were visible. Within a week, as there was no pain and the external inflammation had completely subsided, the man insisted on returning to work, which he did. From this time to the present there has been no pain nor other untoward symptoms. He was put on 5 grains of K. I. in a glass of water t. i. d. The haziness of the vitreous slowly cleared, so that now but a suggestion of it remains. The retina, vessels and papilla are normal and the vision without lens is 20/15 partly.

CASE II.

In July, 1918, J. S., while passing about ten feet away from a man who was chipping a steel casting, was hit in the left eye by what was supposed to be a piece of the chisel. Half an hour after the injury, the eye was quiet and showed a 5 mm. cut thru the conjunctiva and sclera, 12 mm. from the limbus and just below the external rectus tendon. The conjunctiva was loosened and so sutured as to cover the wound in the sclera. Ophthalmoscopic examination showed nothing abnormal; nor did the appearance of the eye suggest a serious injury. The patient was sent home.

An hour later the shop hospital telephoned that there was probably a piece of steel in the eye, so the patient was at once sent for an X-ray examination. The roentgenologist reported a foreign body 1x1½x½ mm. in the vitreous, 5 mm. anterior to the macula lutea. The same day the sutures were removed from the conjunctiva and a magnet applied to the wound. The foreign body was not recovered. An X-ray on the following day showed the foreign body in the original place. Another attempt to extract with the magnet was again a failure. The reaction from this second attempt was severe, so the eye was allowed to quiet. A third X-ray picture by a different roentgenologist was exactly like the two prior ones. A consultant agreed that if the foreign body was not recovered after another trial with the magnet the only safe procedure was enucleation. To this the patient and his parents consented. Another trial with the magnet resulted in another failure. The eye was removed. A most careful autopsy on the eye failed to discover any foreign body. But a subsequent X-ray of the orbit showed

the same foreign body in the same place. It had not entered the globe at all but had passed between the conjunctiva and sclera and lodged in the orbital tissues immediately adjoining the globe.

The roentgenologist of the Manhattan, Eye, Ear and Throat Hospital willingly told me how to avoid a like tragedy in future: Suppose the exposure for the picture is ten seconds. For the first five, have the patient look straight out, then have him change the direction of the visual axis by rolling the eye up as much as possible and complete the exposure. Make another exposure but do not move the eye. If the foreign body is in the globe, the X-ray will show either two bodies or an extension in the direction of the movement of the opacity as compared with the latter picture. When the foreign body is in the orbit or adjacent tissues its position is not affected by any movement the eye will make. There is, however, a slight possibility of error when the foreign body is in an external ocular muscle or tendon. Then it will show some displacement but a careful reading of the picture will discover the true meaning.

CASE III.

Late in the spring of 1918, a boy of twenty was hit in the left eye by a small piece of gunmetal. It penetrated the cornea, iris, lens; and the X-ray showed it as if in the posterior capsule of the latter. The following day the lens was extracted in the hope of removing, with it, the gunmetal. Another picture showed the gunmetal in the original position. A month later an effort was made to remove the foreign body by washing the anterior chamber, using considerable force, but with no better result. The eye recovered so that in a few days it was quiet.

The patient and his father were advised that the safety of the right eye lay only in removing the injured one. They did not take kindly to this advice and consulted another oculist, who took charge of the case. The latter found a nasal sinuitis, treated it and also operated on the eye, with what he believed a very happy result. Two and a half months after the accident the young man was about to be discharged from the hospital when the right eye became inflamed. Prompt enucleation of the exciting eye had no beneficial effect whatever. Notwithstanding the best hospital care and the most approved energetic therapeutic measures, the vision in the right eye dropped to bare light perception, and so remains.

A considerable experience with foreign body cases has convinced the writer that among the very worst are these where copper and its alloys enter within the globe. Failure of prompt removal of the foreign body should at once be followed by enucleation if disaster is to be averted and a tragic ending avoided. Should one be tempted to gamble with fate, or from any motive fail to sacrifice an eye that is, or almost probably will be blind, the associated memories that persist in hovering about such a case are certainly not pleasurable, whatever profit they may give as experience.

CONVERGENCE INSUFFICIENCY AS IT AFFECTS THE RETURNED SOLDIER.

C. E. Hill, M. B.

TORONTO, CANADA.

Men entering the American and Canadian armies were, perforce, examined rapidly in so far as an ocular examination was concerned. This, I infer, would be more noticeable in the Canadian than in the American army, as the call for men was so urgent in 1914 that many men with poor vision slipped thru; and it is needless to say that practically no man was examined for the refined errors of refraction, muscular imbalance and the allied ocular troubles, provided each eye separately had vision equal to the then existing standard. These men, who have been living under new conditions and working in the varied theaters of the war and in all branches of the service, are now returning, and are receiving a thoro examination at the demobiliza-

tion centers before returning to civil life; and it behooves the oculists to see that these so-called minor, but nevertheless very troublesome conditions be recognized and treated accordingly.

In the examination of many hundreds of returned men my attention has been called to the oft repeated complaint, viz.: "I can only do near work, such as reading and writing, for a very short time when suddenly my vision becomes blurred and the lines seem to run together." Following the teaching of Dr. Alexander Duane, I hurriedly ran these men thru the various tests for convergence insufficiency, viz.:

First. Near point of convergence denoted by Dr. Duane as P. C. B.

Second. Screen test for near and far, parallax taken at the same time.

Third. Prism converging power.

Fourth. Prism diverging power.

Fifth. Testing the eyes in the various positions covering one eye then the other.

A. In the primary position at eighteen inches.

B. Eyes looking up and to the right.

C. Eyes looking up and to the left.

D. Eyes looking up in the median line.

E. Eyes looking down in the median line.

F. Eyes looking down and to the righth.

G. Eyes looking down and to the left.

H. Eyes looking to the right.

I. Eyes looking to the left.

These tests are rapidly done and they show at a glance if it is a muscular or an associated movement anomaly.

The following is the average of the results obtained:

P. C. B. 100 mm. or over, many running as high as 200 mm.

Slight exophoria or orthophoria for distance and around 10° to 14° prism diopters of exophoria for near.

Prism converging power of 14 prism diopters.

Prism diverging power of 2 or 3 prism diopters.

Diplopia often found at 200 mm. from the base line.

Muscular balance normal in each eye.

Practically all of these cases had normal vision, or 20/30 vision.

All branches of the service were represented in this class with aviation the chief offender. Care was taken to ask pointed questions as to eye troubles or eye strain prior to entering the army, and invariably the answers were that they never knew what eye troubles were till they returned from the front. Considering that most of these men have previously held office positions and are now complaining greatly because of near work, it would seem conclusive evidence that this condition arose while in the service.

This brings me to the reason for writing this paper, viz.: What compensation should these men receive, and what is the best method of treatment? Basing compensation for the loss of one eye at 45 per cent., the question arises, is a man with one eye more handicapped than a man with two which cannot be used for prolonged near work? As most of these conditions are expected to improve under treatment, nevertheless during such time as he is forced to do work less exacting than his former occupation, with usually less financial remuneration, he should be allowed liberal compensation, which can be adjusted on the half-yearly plan and permanently cut off when he recovers.

Treatment is also along Dr. Duane's lines, which are practically the following: Fixing a definite point and gradually bringing the object towards the eyes until it looks double, then close the eyes and repeat many times, care being taken not to force the exercises but to slowly increase the number of times and the periods of treatment. These cases should not be permitted to do a full day's work because of the danger of fagging their convergence, and everything should be done to improve their physical condition. I might add that since starting this paper many aviators have been examined and they have complained that they cannot land

a machine from a nose dive without allowing a considerable time to get the focus, otherwise they will misjudge the distance and crash their machine.

Let me take this opportunity to thank Col. J. T. Fotheringham, D. M. S., and Professor J. M. McCallum for the opportunity of studying these cases in the military clinic at the Toronto General Hospital.

BILATERAL SUBCONJUNCTIVAL HEMORRHAGES.

Dr. Francisco M. Fernandez.

HAVANA, CUBA.

This case is a trivial one and would not have been published had it not some curious features that may make it worthy of mention.

A young man, 26 years old, consulted us, because during the first days of January, 1919, he noticed some small blood spots in his eyes.

On examination we saw very numerous hemorrhagic foci, studding both bulbar conjunctivæ the size of a millet grain, numbering from 20 to 30 in each eye. The hemorrhagic spots were also present in large numbers in both lower conjunctivae, the upper ones being free from any spots.

The history of the case was negative of any traumatism, lifting heavy weights, cough or vomiting, and the possible explanation of the cause was that the patient had been crying excessively several days previously, on account of the death of his father.

The element of surprise in this case is the possible etiologic factor, and the large number of hemorrhagic foci, as well as the occurrence in both eyes, in a symmetric formation.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE, SECTION OF OPHTHALMOLOGY.

March 28, 1919.

Mr. W. T. Holmes Spicer, President.

Angioid Streaks in Retina.

Mr. Elmore Brewerton exhibited a patient whose retina presented a peculiar series of angioid streaks. He brought the case because of the extensive character of the change. Tho the condition seemed to be rare, he understood Mr. Spicer had seen the appearance in more than one of his cases. On looking into the literature, he found that Ward Holden attributed such streaks to the remains of diffuse hemorrhage in a linear direction, thru the layers of the retina. But the exhibitor could not imagine blood to follow such lines, except in the nerve fibre layer, and these streaks were not in that, but posterior to it.

W. T. Lister believed the streaks to be vestiges of new vessels along whose course were arranged exudates which had undergone secondary pigmentation. The streaks in this case, however, Mr. Brewerton did not think were new vessels, as, in the left eye, they met in a lake or pool around the disc, and one could not think of a vessel extending all the way around the disc. In a case reported by Zentmayer that observer said an extravasation of blood was present while the streaks were visible. His own view was that the streaks were the remains of hemorrhage between retina and choroid. Their brown color reminded him of hematin.

The President did not think any explanation yet given of these appearances was satisfactory. He had a brother and sister with an identical condition, except that the pigmentation in those was more marked than in Mr. Brewerton's case. All four eyes of those two patients were involved in the same way. In them, it seemed im-

possible to escape the view that the lines were essentially blood vessels. Another case in which he saw the streaks was that of a very anemic man, whose condition of health was due to severe hematemesis. In the present case the streaks were not on the surface of the retina, as the retinal vessels could clearly be seen coursing over them; their position must be between retina and choroid.

Pigmentation of Cornea.

Miss Rosa Ford showed a patient with congenital pigmentation of the cornea, the pigment appearing in vertical lines.

The President mentioned cases of the kind he had seen, the pigmentation being quite deep, and the lines being, as in this case, vertical. It was not uncommon to meet with staining apart from ulceration, in which case there might not be vessels in the site.

Tumor of Pituitary Body.

Miss Ford also showed a case of what she regarded as pituitary tumor, tho she was unable to find signs of disturbance of pituitary secretion. There was, however, marked contraction of fields and left homonymous hemianopia, and a scotoma in the right field of the right eye. Skiagraphically, the sella turcica appeared to be normal.

Pulsating Tumor of Orbit.

Mr. Grimsdale exhibited a patient with a pulsating tumor of the orbit, which he regarded as aneurysmal. It appeared to be connected with the supraorbital vessels, and compression of the carotid artery on the same side caused the pulsation to cease. The patient was only 13, a very unusual time of life for such a tumor.

Macular Disease.

Mr. Rayner Batten showed a patient with disease of both macula. Three years ago she had acute papillitis, and in the course of a fortnight lost her sight completely. Three months later she could just discern light. She now had opaque white discs and symmetric disease of the macula. A feature about similar cases he had seen was that the condition occurred at about puberty. This girl had no menstruation for a year.

Intraocular Tumor.

Major Carruthers showed an intraocular growth in a soldier back from the Rhine front. When seen, the left eye was much proptosed, and X-rays showed an increased shadow on the left side. The Wassermann test proved negative. The history given by the man was one of four months—the papers had not come thru—and the first symptom noticed was diplopia. He had 4 D. of optic neuritis. The growth was quite hard. On the advice of a colleague, the man was put upon mercury and iodides, and this was soon followed by a remarkable chemosis, entirely of lymphatic nature; there was no redness, congestion, or vascular engorgement. After 48 hours this cleared up, and the proptosis and optic neuritis subsided a great deal. He was hoping it would turn out to be a gumma, and therefore curable. But the improvement stopped short of cure, and recently there had developed keratitis punctata. He believed the sinuses to be normal.

Putuitary Tumors.

Mr. A. W. Ormond showed a case of pituitary tumor. At first he thought the optic discs were involved secondarily to some nasal trouble, therefore he handed the case over to his rhinologic colleague, who explored both antra and the sphenoid, and removed the anterior end of each turbinal, but without finding anything very definite amiss. He then had the skull skiagraphed, and found the sella turcica much enlarged, so that the body of the sphenoid seemed to be eroded away. The visual fields were atypical, as the hemianopia was more on the nasal than on the temporal side. The optic neuritis on both sides, the fact that the patient was gaining flesh, and the general picture, taken with the X-ray disclosures, made him strongly suspect a malignant tumor of the pituitary body. He asked for opinions as to whether puncture should be done thru the sphe-

noid, on the chance of relieving the patient if it should prove to be a cyst.

Mr. J. H. Fisher agreed there was great probability that this was a malignant growth with very extensive destruction of the sella turcica. The absence of the typical signs of a tumor starting in the pituitary body, and the absence of the secondary phenomena which pituitary tumors manifested in other parts of the body, pointed to its malignancy. He did not advise puncture.

Mr. L. V. Cargill also showed a case of pituitary tumor, in a man aged 22, who looked 16. He had left temporal hemianopia and contraction of the right field. Both discs were pale, and there was considerable enlargement of the pituitary fossa, especially anteroposteriorly.

Mr. J. H. Fisher said this case was much more like one of primary disorder of pituitary than Mr. Ormond's. There were disturbances in the secondary sexual characteristics, and the extension in the sella turcica was of a more typical character. He still had under observation a patient, now 35 years of age, in whom the pituitary trouble had been in abeyance for 20 years. In him there was infantilism, coupled with the secondary sexual characteristics remaining undeveloped. He thought an attempt should be made to differentiate cases of disease of the pituitary body itself, and those in which the growth was in its neighborhood.

Dr. James Taylor agreed with Mr. Fisher's view. Before anything of an operative nature was undertaken, he counselled feeding the patient upon pituitary extract. If that did not succeed in giving relief, perhaps relief would be secured by operation, especially if it proved to be a cyst. Mr. Cargill replied that this patient had been fed upon the extract of the gland.

Captain Maxted read a paper on the same subject. The patient had the usual symptoms. His diplopia was preceded by intermittent headaches, not severe. The right palpebral fissure was wider than the left; the right pupil semidilated and fixed; no consensual reaction. There were attacks of epistaxis, which were attributed to a pharyngitis. He has increasing anemia. Lumbar puncture showed that the cerebrospinal fluid was under considerable tension. The fluid gave a negative Wassermann. Later the patient became dizzy. The transsphenoidal decompression greatly relieved the headaches. The right sphenoidal sinus was explored and found to be filled with a soft hemorrhagic mass, resembling growth; the posterior wall of the sinus was destroyed.

On recovering from the anesthetic, the patient noticed that his sight was much worse, and in a few hours he was practically blind. On the following morning he was completely blind, and neither pupil reacted to light. Five days later the blindness began to clear up. Ten days after the operation vision was R. 1/60, L. 4/60; six weeks after operation, R. 6/60, L. 6/24. The hemorrhagic discharge from the nose continued, the anemia progressed. A further exploration of the nose was carried out, and a vascular growth removed. A tube of radium of 100 mgs. strength was inserted, but five days after that the temperature went up, the patient became delirious, collapsed, and died. At the *post mortem* a large growth was found in the region of the sella turcica, with the optic chiasm stretched over it. There was much erosion of surrounding structures. Both cavernous sinuses were extended to three times the normal size with masses of tumor. There was great destruction of bone in the middle area of the base of the skull.

The paper was discussed by Mr. Fisher and the President.

Migrain.

Mr. J. Herbert Fisher read a paper on "Migrain." He said the primary classical symptoms of the condition were the scintillating scotomata, followed by localizing, and usually unilateral, headache; which latter culminates in nausea, or even vomiting. In his own case at least two other symptoms had been constant: A marked reduction in the pulse rate during an attack, and a definite increase in renal

activity, resulting in copious pale urine. He had never experienced one of the type-symptoms, disturbance of vision. His headache was always in the left temporofrontal position, and nausea was usual. His attacks usually lasted 48 hours. Sometimes his pulse, during attacks, was as low as 46 beats per minute. During a severe attack his alimentary activity appeared to be in abeyance.

Often in this disease there was a familial tendency. In the female the attacks often coincided with the menstrual periods, and in many cases they ceased during pregnancy, ceasing for good with the onset of the climacteric. In the male the attacks usually stopped at about the fiftieth year. The migrain spectrum usually lasted 20 to 30 minutes, as contrasted with the few seconds duration of the visual aura of epilepsy, the latter also being much more highly organized. It probably had a different explanation in the two conditions. The migrain spectrum was always symmetric, but various parts of the field might be involved. He thought the visual spectra of migrain were produced by irritation of the visual nerve fibers at the base of the brain. The hemicrania developing on the side opposite to the homonymous scintillating scotoma well agreed with the idea that the scotoma was initiated in the optic tract.

There appeared to be only one region in which a lesion, varying in character, could reach the various parts of the basal fibers, so as to explain all varieties of the migrain scotoma, namely, the interpeduncular, and he now suggested the pituitary body as the exciting agent. Slight swelling of the hypophysis would result in sufficient pressure to cause irritation of visual fibers in any of the required positions. And the cessation of migrain during gestation, when the pituitary was greatly modified, and at the climacteric, when the sex power was on the wane, all seemed to favor the view. So also did the renal activity, for the pituitary secreted a hormone which has a direct effect on renal epithelium. He had not expected to find visible changes in the region by X-rays, because there were probably no bone changes.

Dr. Gordon Holmes pointed out that Mr. Fisher's suggestion had already been put forward by another observer, the reference he would supply. He was skeptical about the theory. If it were true, one would expect to find migrainous phenomena pretty frequently in pituitary tumor cases, or in those in which that body was enlarged, either by tumor formation or physiologically. He was not aware of such phenomena occurring in those cases. His own migrinous attacks were marked by definite visual changes.

Dr. James Taylor thought the condition of the blood pressure would be a better guide to pituitary influence than pulse rate. He looked upon migrain as simply evidence of cortical irritation.

Mr. Leslie Paton described in detail the features of the migrinous attacks to which he had been subject for a number of years, an interesting point in which was the perception of an organized complex visual aura, always in the same setting.

Mr. M. S. Mayou was similarly afflicted, and his attacks were cut short by copious libations of Contrexville waters.

Mr. J. H. Parsons and Mr. J. B. Story continued the discussion

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COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Colorado Springs

February 15, 1919.

Dr. Alexander C. Magruder, Presiding.

Tuberculosis of the Conjunctiva.

James A. Patterson, Colorado Springs, showed a case of tuberculosis of the conjunctiva in a boy of thirteen years. When the patient was first seen on September 21, 1918, the parents gave a history of enlargement of the parotid gland for some weeks, suspected to be mumps when first observed. The conjunctival trouble had been

present all the summer and had been treated by the family physician with argyrol. The upper lid of the right eye was thickened and gave the appearance of ptosis. A large tumor mass high up under the lid prevented eversion unless great force was used. The bulbar conjunctiva was free from disturbance with the exception of two small reddish elevations near the caruncle. The lower cul de sac contained another elevation, but otherwise the lower lid was free from invasion. There was also at that time great enlargement of the upper part of the parotid gland and of another gland located just below the malar process.

The patient did not appear to be ill, although his appetite was poor and his body weight below normal. He had been brought to Colorado for the relief of asthma, which had disappeared.

There were enlarged tonsils and adenoids, and on account of the difficulty in everting the lid it was decided to accomplish this under general anesthesia given for the removal of the tonsils and adenoids. At the operation on September 25th, the tarsal surface of the upper eyelid was found to be covered with large masses of granulation tissue, the majority of the granules being surmounted with suggestive pale yellow spots. Slightly to the nasal side of the center of the everted lid was a deep ulcer 3 mm. in diameter and penetrating to the cartilage. Thoro scrubbing of the tarsal surface with gauze exposed very tough edges of a linear ulcer extending horizontally along the entire tarsal surface, the ulcer already referred to being as it were the bottom of the crater. The hard edges were trimmed smooth with scissors, and cauterized with nitrat of silver. In removing the tonsils, a large mass of cheesy material was evacuated from the left supratonsillar fossa.

The diagnosis of tuberculosis, originally made from the glandular involvement and the general appearance of the eye condition, was confirmed by microscopic examination of the tissues, the sections showing characteristic areas of caseation and also tubercle bacilli. Photographs were presented showing the condition of the eyelid three weeks after the operation. The further treatment included applications of glycerit of tannin, trichloracetic acid, and formaldehyd. As there had been but slight improvement up to November 9th, on that date the use of 1/10,000 mg. of old tuberculin once a week had been begun; the dose having been first increased three weeks before the meeting, and being now 1/5,000 mg. There was a very slight local reaction after the first two injections, and after every dose of the old tuberculin there had been some lessening in size of the glandular swelling, and at the same time a barely noticeable return of the asthmatic wheeze. Of the local applications used the most beneficial had apparently been the trichloracetic acid, once weekly. There had been some extension of the process inside the lower lid.

Discussion. Melville Black, Denver, thought the general opinion seemed to be that old tuberculin was more valuable for diagnostic purposes than therapeutically; and suggested that bacillary emulsion should be used instead.

George F. Libby, Denver, recalled that in the case of ocular tuberculosis, which he had reported a few years previously, the two principal remedies employed were old tuberculin and direct rays of sunlight in gradually increasing doses. He had been inclined to think that in his case the cure was was largely produced by the old tuberculin, but thought that direct sunlight applied to the affected areas for short intervals would be beneficial in Dr. Patterson's case.

Edward Jackson, Denver, thought that this case had been very well worked out. Parinaud's disease had apparently been thoroly excluded by the pathologic findings.

Radiating Lens Opacities.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, presented a woman aged 40 years whose eyes had been refracted in 1906, when corrected vision of 20/20ths was obtained in each eye; and again in December, 1917, when the corrected vi-

sion obtained was only, Right 20/50ths plus, and Left 20/30ths, and multiple slight opacities were noticed in each lens. At the present time the corrected vision was approximately the same as in 1917. The opacities were ten or twelve in number, extremely delicate, lying peripherally in about the middle plane of the lens. Dionin had been used for about one year.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver. The arrangement of these opacities is the same as in so-called blue cataract, being outside the undilated pupil, and much better seen by oblique illumination than with the ophthalmoscope, with which they appear rather as refractive differences in the lens, and the whole having a bluish appearance. It would be well to examine this case by ordinary daylight, with the pupil dilated. Even if the case is not exactly what is known as blue cataract, it is probably of that general character; and the prognosis may be relatively good, in that the condition may advance very slowly.

Dr. Neeper said the opacities were very noticeable with the ophthalmoscope.

Melville Black, Denver, suggested that in these cases of opacity of the lens in relatively young people it was necessary to assume disturbance of nutrition of the lens through the ciliary body, which might be due to focal infection. The patient had a large number of filled teeth and one tooth broken off. It would be well to radiograph for the possibility of dead teeth.

Cataract with Doubtful Light Projection.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, presented a woman aged 66 years for opinion as to the advisability of extracting a dense cataract from the left eye in view of the fact that this eye was uncertain as to light projection. The vision of the other eye was 20/50ths.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver. It is possible to have a cataract which cuts off light projection completely and yet get good results. This patient apparently perceives the light wherever it is held. Light projection is relatively best in the slowly forming nuclear cataracts, but in a white cataract of this kind the light diffused from the lens probably drowns out the image of a point of light in the fundus. The reaction of the pupil being excellent gives a good prognosis in this case.

Several other speakers regarded the prognosis as good.

Cataract Extraction, Poor Vision Unexplained.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, presented a woman of 67 years upon whose left eye cataract extraction had been done with apparent success, but with unexplained failure to obtain vision. The vision of this eye in January, 1917, was 16/200ths. Light projection was normal. In April, 1918, the vision of the eye was of movements. The atropin used in connection with a successful preliminary iridectomy produced a great deal of irritation. In August, 1918, cataract extraction was done under local anesthesia, and hysocin and morphin hypodermically, no difficulty being encountered. During the first few dressings the patient spoke of good visual results, but the vision soon began to fail and a month later the eye was blind. Later it was discovered that there was slight light perception in the lower temporal quadrant. Transillumination of the eye was normal, but the retina was indistinctly visible, although there was only a very slight capsular opacity. In view of the fact that the vision of the second eye was almost gone, it was important to consider what was responsible for the loss of vision in the eye which had been operated upon. Further, would it be advisable, in operating upon the second eye, to use atropin subconjunctivally?

Discussion. C. E. Walker, Denver, and several other speakers were in favor of needling the capsule, altho recognizing that the opacity here did not explain the visual condition.

D. A. Strickler, Denver, suggested that the more frequent use of hyoscin and morphin in nervous cases of cata-

ract extraction was advisable, such patients being very quiet under this treatment.

George F. Libby, Denver, and W. H. Crisp, Denver, were disposed to think that the retina was detached.

Melville Black, Denver, believed that a broad iridectomy done on the second eye some time before extraction was undertaken would avoid the necessity for atropin.

Edward Jackson, Denver, did not consider it advisable to try subconjunctival injection of atropin. He thought that the extraction could be done on the second eye either with or without iridectomy.

W. C. Bane, Denver, would try the use of salt injections subconjunctivally and of iodides internally, on the basis of the possibility of detachment being present.

Penetrating Injuries.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, presented a man aged 33 years who on September 13th, 1918, had received a number of injuries from gunshot and particles of brick. The left eye had been destroyed and was enucleated on October 29th. The most important wounds of the right eye were one passing through the lower lid, probably grazing the eyeball on the lower side and entering the sphenoid, and another entering the bulbar conjunctiva 4 mm. to the temporal side of the limbus and also passing into the sphenoid. This latter injury did not puncture the sclera, altho the course of the foreign body was indicated by an anteroposterior line of hemorrhage within the vitreous. The remains of this hemorrhage greatly disturbed the vision of this eye; but the exudate was gradually diminishing, and when the eye was kept still vision of 20/50ths was obtained. There was much retinal edema at first, but this had disappeared. There was marked drainage thru the nose from the posterior orbital cavity or from the nasal sinuses. An x-ray report was to the effect that there were fragments three-quarters of an inch behind the eyeball, probably in the sphenoid.

Dr. Neeper also presented a man aged 26 years whose left eyeball had been injured on June 27, 1918, by the explosion of a water glass on a stationary engine. A piece of glass had cut through the left lower lid, laying it wide open and then through the eyeball, making a 7 mm. vertical incision through the nasal side below the limbus, and had left the eyeball at and below the temporal portion of the disc. Both the eyelid and the anterior wound in the eyeball were stitched. The wound of exit was clearly visible, and there was also a ribbon-shaped exudate which hung vertically in the anterior vitreous to the nasal side. Three days after the injury a vertical line 1 mm. wide, and having a gelatinous appearance, showed on the anterior capsule of the lens. This disappeared after several days. Except for a slight hemorrhage into the vitreous at the point of exit, the media generally had been quite transparent all the time. The vision of this eye, which on July 25th was 20/200ths, was now 20/40ths with or without correction.

Dr. Neeper further presented a man aged 36 years, who on April 19, 1918, had received in the right eye a lacerated wound about 14 mm. long. The wound, which was in the general neighborhood of the upper nasal limbus, included the cornea, iris, lens, conjunctiva, and sclera, and the upper lid near the punctum also showed a 4 mm. wound. The vitreous and iris which projected were clipped off and the wounds were stitched. There was comparatively slight reaction and healing was prompt. The irregular pupil was filled with opaque lens matter in the capsule, but this was clearing gradually. Should dionin and atropin be continued? Should the lens matter be removed? Should the eye be enucleated?

Discussion. W. C. Bane, Denver, as regards the last case, would leave the eye alone, in view of the excellent results.

C. E. Walker, Denver, would be inclined to extract the lens. He was surprised, as regards the case of vitreous prolapse shown by Dr. Neeper, and

also as regards cases previously seen with other members of the society, at the excellent results obtained without operative interference with prolapsed vitreous, and by the use of little or no pressure.

W. H. Crisp, Denver, said that this eye would not be made worse by operating, and that it would be well to get the milky lens out of the way.

D. A. Strickler, Denver, had seen an interesting case, in which an eye which had been cut by being thrown against a wind shield, with a resulting large open wound in the sclera. The eye had healed with vision of 20/30ths after practically open treatment with very little pressure.

Dr. Neeper said that it did not seem right to him to leave intraocular tissue strangulated and protruding from the eye, when it could be cut off with scissors.

Dr. Walker remarked that in the cases to which he had referred nothing had been cut off, and no infection had resulted, the protruding part apparently receding into the eyeball.

Obscure Ocular Infection in Infancy.

F. E. Wallace, Pueblo, reported a case of severe ocular infection in a baby between the ages of two and six months. At two months of age the preauricular and submaxillary glands of the right side were enlarged, and a few days later a moderate purulent discharge began from the right eye. The amount of pus increased gradually, and the upper lid became swollen and the eyeball red. About two months later the right ear began to discharge. The patient was under the care of a general physician who did not examine the eye. Dr. Wallace first saw the case on January 22, 1919. The moderately swollen upper lid overrode the lower 5 or 6 mm. There was slight mucopurulent discharge, the preauricular glands were moderately and the submaxillary glands more greatly enlarged. The inner half of the tarsal surface of the upper lid was covered with a dirty yellowish membrane, and there were two smaller but similar areas toward the outer end of the tarsal surface. The membrane, which was not elevated above the general surface, was very hard to loosen and bled freely. The retrotarsal fold was board-like in consistency, and a dirty white in color. The conjunctiva of the lower lid was affected similarly but to a less degree. The bulbar conjunctiva was edematous, was of purplish red color, and had an elevation of about 2 mm. next to the limbus. The cornea was almost uniformly cloudy, and the details of the iris could not be made out. A culture made from some of the tissues was negative for diphtheria, and examination of the pus showed only the ordinary pus organisms. Under treatment the lids improved but the cornea gradually broke down. The case was lost sight of.

Discussion. C. E. Walker, Denver, thought that the infection was likely to have come originally from the orbital tissue, and might perhaps have burrowed thru the sphenoidal fissure.

Iritis from Antrum Infection.

A. C. Magruder, Colorado Springs, presented a woman in whom bilateral iritis had been due to an infection in the left antrum. The case was first seen on January 14, 1919, when the conjunctiva of each eye was intensely congested, and there was severe pain with photophobia. The irides were sluggish and the pupils were small. The condition had lasted two or three weeks. There was pain on pressure over the left frontal sinus and over the left antrum. The antrum was washed out thru the nose and only boric acid solution was used in the eyes. The next day there was improvement in both eyes and in one week the patient was discharged, the antrum having been washed out four times. The infection was with pneumococcus and staphylococcus.

Discussion. W. C. Bane, Denver, mentioned a case of destructive ulcer of the cornea as the result of which the eye was lost. During treatment of the eye it was discovered that the corresponding antrum contained pus. For some days after washing out the antrum there was marked improvement

in the eye, but the iris was so bound down that it was impossible to get satisfactory drainage within the eye.

Syphilitic Optic Atrophy.

A. C. Magruder, Colorado Springs, presented a man of 37 years who, on January 4, 1917, had come with vision in either eye of 1/10. There was atrophy in the temporal side of each optic disc. Under potassium iodid and mercurial ointment the vision improved in three weeks to 4/10 in each eye. The patient had not been seen again until February 13, 1919, when the vision in each eye was 3/10. There had been no treatment for eighteen months.

W. H. Crisp, Secretary.

SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY, COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA

January 16, 1919.

Dr. William T. Shoemaker, Chairman.

Spontaneous Rupture of the Anterior Lens Capsule with Rapid Development of Cataract.

Dr. William Zentmayer exhibited a case unique in his experience. A cataract due to a break in the anterior capsule of the lens revealed by the dilatation of the pupil in an eye with an apparently perforating corneal ulcer occasioned surprise which turned to astonishment on the later occurrence of a similar condition of the lens and its capsule in the fellow eye showing no recent signs of trauma or inflammation. O. M., female, aged 19 years, came to the Wills Hospital October 9, 1918. She was employed in weighing powder in a munitions plant. The left eye had been sore for ten days. There was no history of trauma. She was an epileptic. There was moderate photophobia and lacrimation with marked ciliary congestion. The cornea was hazy thruout and showed a perforated ulcer in its lower inner sector corresponding to the position of the pupillary border of the iris. The iris was engaged in the ulcer and the pupillary area was opaque. This was at the time supposed to be due to exudation. Later, however, when the pupil had been dilated with atropin it was determined to be opaque lens-matter protruding from a rent in the anterior capsule. V. = L. P. In the right eye the cornea showed fine linear and curvilinear gray opacities in its lower and also temporal portion. On the temporal side there was an absence of complete differentiation between the corneal and scleral tissue and there was what appeared to be a small congenital symblepharon. Fundus normal. V. = 6/12.

She was admitted to the hospital, an X-ray was made and appeared negative. Under appropriate treatment the inflammation subsided and when she was discharged on October 21 the globe was white and the anterior chamber shallow, pupil nearly round, there being a slight anterior synechia. The lens was opaque and cortical protruded from the rent in the anterior capsule. V. = hand movements.

After her discharge she was seen a few times in the dispensary for treatment of the affected eye, and on October 25 she again reported, stating that two days previously on arising in the morning she was unable to see to go to work. Vision gradually grew worse. There was very slight ciliary injection; the cornea showed the condition previously noted and the lens was cataractous, cortical matter protruding into the anterior chamber. V. = hand movements. On December 4 a linear extraction was done on the right eye, and on December 16 a needling of the remaining cortical and capsule. January 13: V. = 20/100 + 13 D.

Two possible explanations of the condition present themselves: (1) Tetany and (2) selfinduced trauma. Tetany is a well-recognized cause or accompaniment of cataract. A history of convulsions is present in a not inconsiderable percentage of zonular cataract and there are observers who claim to have found tetany a cause or accompaniment in many cases of senile cataract. It is possible that the associated conditions in the first instance have a common cause in a disturbance

of metabolism arising from abnormalities in the secretion of one or more of the endocrine organs. Whether repeated convulsions could cause a rupture of the capsule in a normal development is doubtful when we consider the frequency of epilepsy and the absence so far as Dr. Zentmayer knew of any previously reported cases of cataract arising in this way. It is conceivable that there may have been a structural weakness of the capsule thru faulty development. The theory of self induction in this case would have had stronger support if the cataract had been combined with a corneal lesion in the second eye. But in this eye there was no evidence of a recent wound or ulcer of the cornea. When the patient presented herself, two days after the loss of vision had been noted, the anterior chamber was shallow and the eye was slightly injected, both symptoms were probably due to the swollen lens.

Dr. Ziegler stated that the three prominent factors to be studied in Dr. Zentmayer's case of ruptured capsule were chemical erosion, ulceration and trauma from the convulsive seizure. Undoubtedly the chemistry of metabolism in an epileptic was always perverted, but whether this could extend to the lens substance was difficult to demonstrate. He had seen a case of exceedingly irritating chemicals in a lens cortex that produced an exacerbation of glaucoma whenever the capsular contents escaped. Ulceration could only be considered by analogy as the history shows such a lesion on one cornea just over the ruptured capsule. Weakening of the capsule, either by erosion or ulceration would undoubtedly encourage traumatic rupture in a case of epileptiform convulsion, but the exact lesion of the capsule could only be determined by withdrawing the ruptured capsule for microscopic examination. This might prove difficult to accomplish.

Dr. Zentmayer, closing the discussion, said the case was seen by Dr. Lucien Howe while he was in Philadelphia and he suggested that it was probably due to injury self induced. Colonel Parker suggested an abnormality in the capsule and thought that possibly rupture of the capsule might have resulted from the falls when the patient was in convulsion.

Extensive Pigment Changes in the Retina Following Injury.

Dr. Krauss presented a case of a boy who was struck by a B. B. shot in the left eye. The X-ray two days later showed the ball very plainly in the anterior part of the orbit. Later X-ray plates showed the disappearance of the ball. As no ball could be found, Dr. Krauss thought that the apparent shot in the eye was made by the staining of the tissues by the lead ball. The retinal changes were very marked in the pigment layers, resulting in many pinhead opacities scattered thru the lower half of the eyeball with a large mass to the temporal side.

Dr. C. R. Heed, in discussing the X-ray plates exhibited by Dr. Krauss, directed attention to the symmetric shadows of the anteroposterior and the lateral exposures, indicating that the body casting the shadow must have been spheroidal in shape. Krauss's explanation that the shadows were made by a filmlike deposit on the eyelids does not bear out the shadows on the plates. It is hardly possible that a film of lead on the lids would be shown on the plates after the rays had passed thru the head, but if we concede that such is a possibility the anteroposterior shadow would be circular while the lateral one would be not much more than a line or a narrow ovoid streak.

Burton Chance called attention to the marked pigmentary changes at the posterior pole of the affected eye in Dr. Krauss's case. Changes such as are there presented have been recorded but seldom in recent years. He was sure that the Chairman, Dr. Shoemaker, had seen, alas, too many cases, while it has been his own privilege to have had under observation 30 cases following direct injury to the globe. And he is certain that similar cases will arise frequently in our practice now that the wounded are being returned. It will be interesting to observe the progress

of Dr. Krauss's case and to note whether in the course of time the pigment masses shall disappear only to reveal irreparable lesions of the choroid.

Dr. Ziegler asked Dr. Krauss whether the crescentic ulcers on the lid margins might not be due to friction burns. If a B. B. shot should spin around after striking the tissues it might produce a burn from friction and also make a deposit of lead that would obstruct the passage of the X-rays in at least one direction. Experiment might determine these points.

Disseminated Unilateral Choroiditis.

Dr. Krauss also reported a case of unilateral disseminated choroiditis, occurring in a seventeen-year-old boy. The lesions varied from a slight yellowish fluffy swelling of the choroid to a more advanced aggregation and absorption of pigment. There were no vitreous opacities. Wassermann, + 1.

Dr. Risley said the ophthalmoscopic picture reminded him of the conditions he had seen follow the intravenous injections of salvarsan in a patient with syphilis, who had been under his observation prior to the injection. The occurrence of ocular disease following these injections had been so frequently observed that he regarded it as a serious menace in the use of salvarsan.

Adventitious Hyaloid Membrane.

Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler again called attention to the adventitious hyaloid membrane which he thought was forming in the case of V-shaped iridotomy exhibited by him last month. Such a hyaloid membrane is liable to form in any case of aphakia where an incision of the iris or capsule exposes the vitreous body to the action of the aqueous. As a matter of fact, it seldom occurs. Dr. Ziegler had only observed it in some six or eight cases during a period of more than thirty years.

The two characteristic symptoms are: (1) A faint opalescent reflex of the vitreous surface when exposed to oblique illumination; and (2) inability to correct the near vision beyond J-10 or 12, altho the distant vision may have been corrected up to 20/30. Such a result, of course, does not yield useful reading vision and is a source of annoyance to both patient and physician. In other words, there is a distinct lack of normal proportion between the distant and near vision in an aphakic eye that may otherwise appear to be perfectly normal.

The proper procedure in such a case, altho no capsular membrane is visible, is to make a *pro forma* incision of the vitreous surface exposed in the pupillary area (V-shaped or otherwise), just as tho the original capsule was still *in situ*. In practically every case of this type that Dr. Ziegler had operated on good reading vision (J-1 to 4), had been obtained by this procedure.

In the case of iridotomy shown last month it will be recalled that the distant vision with correcting lens was 20/70 and the vision for near J-12. The hyaloid film was incised on December 28, 1918, and one week later the same glasses yielded a vision of 20/30 and J-1. That this intangible film was really a tangible membrane was further demonstrated by a distinct sensation of iridic retraction and widening of the pupil at the very moment that the film was incised.

Dr. Krauss stated that he had seen similar cases occurring usually after the extraction of the brown or sclerosed type of lens. The healing in these cases is usually quiet with no capsule remaining. The vision is reduced, tho a splendid view of the eyeground is obtained. Dr. Krauss believes that this fine opacity which is seen only by indirect illumination is due to a wrinkling in the anterior limiting membrane of the vitreous. A very free needling thru the pupillary area gives a good result, altho no membrane can be seen to needle.

Dr. S. D. Risley, discussing Dr. Ziegler's case, said that he had several times been disappointed because of the low acuity of vision after successful extractions of cataract leaving an apparently clear black pupil and good but a slightly blurred ophthalmoscopic view of the fundus, and revealing no serious pathologic change in the uvea

or lack of consistency in the vitreous. In using the plane retinoscopic mirror, however, he discovered, when the light from the mirror fell obliquely upon the pupil, a finely striated, iridescent faint sheen back of the pupil, reminding one of the colored sheen seen on the interior of a clam or oyster shell. He had ascribed this appearance to a disturbance of what the anatomist would call the "anterior limiting membrane" of the vitreous body. With this explanation in mind he had not ventured upon any operative interference.

J. Milton Griscom, M. D.,
Clerk.

CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

FEBRUARY 17, 1919

PRESIDENT, DR. WILLIAM L. NOBLE IN THE CHAIR.

Fundus Pathology With the Red-Free Light of Vogt.

Dr. Robert von der Heydt read the paper on this subject published in full in this journal, p. 334.

Discussion.—Dr. Michael Goldenburg said he became so interested in this lamp when Dr. Von der Heydt first called attention to it that he asked him to loan it to him and spent an entire afternoon looking at cases of various kinds. The lamp at present was not perfect, but he felt that Dr. von der Heydt should be given a great deal of credit for his work so far. The light offered wonderful avenues of approach which had never been available before. He had examined a number of cases; and in one that he thought was an embolism of the central retinal artery with hemorrhages, the free blood looked black.

The vascularization upon the disc of very fine vessels, which was not seen with the ordinary illumination was visible as little black lines running across a white field. We were not sure about the nerve fibers, but thought we could see them in one case. It required a good deal of practice to judge these things, and the three who had seen the case did not think they had sufficient experience to decide. In one case with an apparently normal fundus he had never been able to see the so-called choroidal opacities before, but saw numbers of them when using this light.

Probably the most fascinating part of the red-free light was the ability to see the macula, as bright canary yellow, just like a bright brilliant spot in the blue field. They examined one case that was going through a low-grade form of neuro-retinitis. The patient had had several attacks. He did not feel that he could see the yellow in the macula in that case and neither did Dr. Crossley, but they could see it in the others, of what significance, this might be he did not know.

In the patient he had presented to the Society, where there were fine fibers out to the nasal side, one could see the white lines very thin but visible, and the hemorrhages were apparent, standing out as black spots. He could trace the fibers from the disc out for a way, but not to the macula. but this was probably because he was not familiar with the use of the instrument.

Unquestionably the red-free light would be of unlimited value in the early diagnosis of retinal and optic nerve conditions. In the case of a colored woman examined, he thought his glass had black spots, for in looking at the fundus the ordinary tesselated picture appeared, as definite black and white stripes—a very marked contrast. He had never seen a similar picture.

Dr. E. R. Crossley stated that he had had the pleasure of examining the cases with Dr. Goldenburg and the macula stood out very well. In one comparatively normal case one could see the nerve fibers coming out but could not trace them around the macula as was described. On more experience with the light one might be able to do so. The blood vessels stood out plain and black and it gave a very good view of the macula.

Dr. von der Heydt, in closing, said that Vogt and Affolter had been using

the light since 1913 and had a vast amount of literature on the subject. Last fall he had the filters made and showed them to the Society. With ordinary light it was comparatively simple to use the ophthalmoscope. One could pick up the light anywhere. With the red-free light, however, one had to seek the center of the cone of light. If one got into the periphery one ran into chromatic aberration.

His instrument was so tilted that it threw the cone of light in an upward incline. This enabled him to seat the patient at varying distances, according to his height. He guided himself by the bluish disc, thrown on the window shade, watched the image of the patient's head in it and led his ophthalmoscopic mirror into the center of the cone of light. The colored person, rich in pigment was comparatively a poor subject for the red-free light.

In the embolism case, seen with Dr. Goldenburg, he could not expect to see much more with the red-free light than with ordinary light, because the case was a very recent one. There was still an edema of the retina and it was too early to expect to see the atrophic zones which would later be visible in the fiber layer of the retina.

Orbital Abscesses.

Dr. Robert H. Good read a paper on this subject in which he considered orbital abscesses caused by infections of the anatomic structures adjacent to the orbit, with special reference to the early manifestations of intracranial complications, so that by early operative procedure many cases might be arrested before developing meningitis and brain abscess. These abscesses were either subperiosteal, between periosteum and orbital bony wall, or between the extrinsic muscles with their membranous connections, and the periosteum; or between the extrinsic muscles and the optic nerve in the orbital fat.

Etiology.—1. Subperiosteal abscesses in the orbit were by far the most frequent and were caused by acute and chronic inflammations of the ethmoid, frontal sinus, maxillary sinus and sphenoid sinus. A good stereo-X-ray would show whether the orbital wall was necrosed or not. Fractures of the orbit might cause a subperiosteal hemorrhage, which, if it became infected, formed an abscess. Extradural abscesses might find their way from the anterior fossa of the skull thru the optic foramen external to the orbital periosteum. However, it was more frequent to have the pus go in the other direction, causing an extradural abscess from the orbital abscess. Tumors in the nose, such as polypi, fibroma and sarcoma, were often the cause of this form of orbital abscess. Tuberculosis and syphilis of the orbital bony wall were common.

2. Abscess between the periosteum and the extrinsic muscles of the eye, with their membranous connective sheath, were caused by an extraperiosteal abscess breaking through the periosteum into this space. Trauma, such as blows, causing hemorrhages in the subcutaneous areolar tissue would form an abscess in this space if the blood clot became infected. Penetrating wounds and foreign bodies along the margin of the orbit, external to the extrinsic muscles of the eye and internal to the periosteum, would cause the abscess to form in this space. In dacryocystitis the sac might rupture into this region. Infection from subconjunctival injections of the eye would form an abscess in this space. Abscess of the lacrimal gland might rupture into this space.

3. Abscesses internal to the extrinsic muscles were in the orbital fat around the optic nerve. As the membranous connective tissue sheath between the extrinsic muscles was very thin, it did not form a great barrier to the abscess external to the extrinsic muscles from breaking into this region. Ulcers of the cornea, panophthalmitis and penetrating wounds of the sclera had caused abscesses in this area of orbital fat. Penetrating wounds and foreign bodies posterior to the bulb and thru the extrinsic muscles, or surgical procedures which entered this space, followed by infection, were sometimes etiologic factors. The

sphenoidal sinus was more frequently responsible for an abscess in the orbital fat than the other sinuses. The serious complications were extradural abscess, optic neuritis, optic atrophy, meningitis, brain abscess and thrombosis of the cavernous sinus.

The extradural space was continuous with the subperiosteal space of the orbit and communicated with each other through the optic foramen, so that a subperiosteal orbital abscess might drain into the extradural space and form an extradural abscess. The optic nerve had the same coverings as the brain, namely, from without in, the inner layer of the dura, arachnoid and the pia. The subdural lymph space in the skull extended all along the optic nerve to the eyeball and the subarachnoid space, which contained the cerebrospinal fluid, and communicated with the subarachnoid space of the optic nerve.

The dura of the optic nerve was only the inner layer of the dura, and was thin compared with the dura of the skull, and it was very vascular with many blood vessels entering it, so that toxins would penetrate it much more readily than the dura of the skull. The dura of the optic nerve differed from the skull dura, in that it did not have the properties of forming bone, and, therefore, was much less dense in structure.

When toxins entered the subdural space of the nerve, they might cause cerebral symptoms, and if they entered the subarachnoid space of the nerve, they resulted in cerebrospinal meningitis because this space was in direct communication with the cerebrospinal fluid. An abscess pressing on the nerve with accompanying edema, as well as absorption of toxins, resulted in optic neuritis and atrophy. An abscess around the optic nerve in the orbital fat pushed the eye straight forward and generally ended in blindness or in meningitis. Involvement of the central vein of the retina or the ophthalmic vein resulted in thrombosis which might extend to the cavernous sinus and produce the same symptoms as lateral sinus thrombosis.

The most frequent location of the abscess was at the inner anterior aspect of the orbit in the region of the lamina papyracea of the ethmoid cells which causes the eye to be pushed outward and somewhat downward.

The next frequent location was in the upper and inner angle of the orbit where the frontal sinus wall was the thinnest, and pushed the eye downward and outward. Either of these, if untreated, might break and leave a fistula above the inner canthus of the eye. When due to maxillary sinus infection, the abscess was in the floor of the orbit and pushed the eye up and outward. Orbital abscess from the posterior ethmoid and sphenoidal sinus were rare, but when they did occur the eye was pushed forward and the pain was severe even in chronic cases.

The symptoms varied greatly, depending upon whether it was acute or chronic, the part and extent of the orbit involved, as well as the nature of the infection. In chronic cases the symptoms were usually mild, a slight pain with tenderness on pressure. There was slight swelling of the lids and conjunctiva. On palpation a firm mass could be felt. The febrile symptoms were usually negative. In acute cases we had a different picture, especially if the abscess were between the periosteum and the extrinsic muscles or in the adipose tissue. There was marked exophthalmos and great swelling of the lids and conjunctiva with inability to close the eye. The pain was severe in the orbit, radiating to the temple. The temperature was usually high, from 100° to 103° F. with a correspondingly rapid pulse. The eyeball was almost immovable and the power of accommodation was lost.

When the abscess burrowed along the periosteum or along the dura of the optic nerve, it entered the extradural space of the skull by way of the optic foramen and produced an extradural abscess which caused an absolute change in symptoms and could easily be diagnosed. The swelling might slightly diminish but the pain was greatly increased and deep seated in the forehead. The tenderness in the

eye might be the same or lessened, but when the skull was firmly compressed over the painful area, the pain was much more marked. The temperature dropped to 96° or 97° no matter if the temperature had been 104°. The temperature lingered around subnormal to 99°. The pulse dropped at times as low as 50. In addition the patient complained of dizziness, especially on stooping. The projectile or cerebral vomiting was always present, and the mental symptoms varied from indifference and slow cerebration to coma. The blood pressure was increased.

In these cases, in addition to opening the abscess one must expose the dura by removing the posterior wall of the frontal sinus and the patient would make an uneventful rapid recovery.

When the toxins entered into the subdural space, the symptoms were those of mild cerebral irritation; whereas, if they entered into the subarachnoid space of the optic nerve, it caused a cerebrospinal meningitis; both of which should be treated with Flexner's or Lederle's antimeningitis serum intraspinally.

As to treatment, an incision was made through the skin over the most prominent portion of the abscess, not necessarily into the abscess, then a small curved blunt artery forceps was inserted into the abscess and withdrawn by opening the forceps. Care should be taken to direct the forceps towards the orbital wall, instead of the optic nerve region, so as not to penetrate the extrinsic muscles or their membranous sheath, as most abscesses were external to these. When the abscess was very large and surrounded the bulb, it was wise to drain it in more than one place.

The great majority of orbital abscesses were due to sinus infections, and in these cases the sinuses should be thoroly drained in addition to the above. Where the abscess was outside of the orbital periosteum and the sinus wall was broken down, an intranasal operation on any of the sinuses was insufficient to relieve the orbital abscess. Ten years ago the speaker was of the opinion that the frontal sinus or ethmoids had to be opened from the outside. But his experience in intranasal sinus surgery had proved to him that these cases recovered faster with less tendency to recurrence with the intranasal than the external operations.

Discussion.—Dr. Oliver Tydings complimented Dr. Good on the work and illustrations he had presented. He said he had a case under his care at present who was operated upon by a man who was an expert, but the patient was blind in one eye. The history was unique. The patient had some intense pain which the speaker attributed to an eye trouble, an infective condition. Blindness was due to orbital pressure. She never had any pus but had sinus pain; and the sinus was opened on the left side and following that was a mastoiditis. That was operated upon and from what the patient said there must have been a meningitis which lasted for some days, during which time she claimed to have been unconscious. The patient finally recovered from that but still had a suppurating condition. He did a radical mastoid but had not yet finished the nasal work. The operations described by Dr. Good were apparently safe in his hands but, unfortunately, were not always safe in the hands of some others.

In the treatment of these cases he had followed practically in the line laid down by Dr. Good, except in infants. An orbital abscess due to a sinus condition he thought would not be very safe. He had treated most of those cases and he felt that the fact that he knew so much about nose work might account somewhat for the success he had in treating them. He would make both an external and internal incision, starting down through the projecting portion and making an incision through the orbital plate of the ethmoid and down through the nose, a single incision, usually breaking the abscess down with the knife, being careful not to cut any muscular tissue. He had operated quite a large number of cases in that way, in children perhaps less than two years old,

with very good results. He felt that free drainage was worth a great deal in these cases.

Dr. H. H. Lebensohn thought that an orbital abscess was just like one any place else. It made no difference originally where the infection came from, as to what sort of an infection it was. About four years ago a man of seventy developed a large orbital abscess following probing of a stenosis of the lacrimal duct. Within twenty-four hours after the probing he developed an orbital abscess and they found a pure streptococcus culture. It was opened several times, no pus was found, but it finally got to the eye. The same night he had another case and that was a staphylococcus infection. It was opened and drained and within a week or ten days the patient got well.

In a patient who had recently been discharged, a boy of eighteen, he could not make a diagnosis as to the etiology. It looked like an ethmoid infection with an almost pure pneumococci culture. He drained the abscess and when it was opened he got between three and four drams of pus. He kept on ethyl hydrochlorat with little strips of gauze and it cleared up remarkably well. He thought it was not so much the opening, but advised opening them as soon as possible. He thought the prognosis would depend upon what the infection was. The staphylococci infections have a good prognosis, the pneumococci and streptococci bad.

Dr. R. H. Good, in closing, agreed with Dr. Tydings that establishing a perfect drainage was the best treatment.

In cases of suspected ethmoid infection instead of spending so much time in finding out the nature of the infection bacteriologically, it was a better plan to take a stereoroentgenogram and find out the nature of the condition at once.

Embolism of Central Retinal Artery as a Complication of Influenza.

Dr. Michael Goldenburg exhibited a case of this kind. Mrs. E., aet. 22, married, one child. Had always been in good health On November 20th, 1918, during the virulent epidemic of influenza, she developed this disease, passing through the usual stages, a very sick individual. On about the eighth day, when her temperature was at its highest point, she suddenly felt something had happened to her right eye; then noted that she was blind in that eye; and further states that the eye felt stiff and was wild looking; and later the eye deviated outward. I should judge from her description that the pupil was widely dilated.

On February 12, 1919, she presented herself to our clinic at "The Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary."

Examination: Lids, conjunctiva, cornea and anterior chamber negative. Pupils equal and react to light. Vision, Right: Fingers at two feet and then only in the upper temporal field. Left: 20/20-3.

Fundus, Right: Disc primary optic atrophy, cloudy grayish pink area about two disc diameters noted from disc temporalward beyond macular region. All arteries markedly diminished in calibre, except upper temporal branch which is about half the normal in diameter. Branches running nasalward very thin and end in white lines. Many small hemorrhages in region of macula and on nasal side both superficial and deep. Directly over bifurcation of artery a small grayish dot is noted that I was inclined to think was in the vessel, but could not be positive; other observers would make no definite statement upon that fact.

Left: fundus and media negative.

General physical examination, made by a competent internist disclosed the following: Heart negative. Aortic second sound slightly accentuated, which speaks against a valvular lesion. Lungs: not quite healed. In right upper part of lung still some consolidation that could be tubercular, but most likely an unresolved area. Blood pressure: 120. Urine: Negative.

ABSTRACTS

Fromaget, C. and H. Functional Anisocoria. Archives d'Ophtalmologie, v. 36, p. 277.

Functional anisocoria is a clinical syndrome without organic lesion, due to an instability of the supranuclear center which coordinates the pupillary movements. This definition is analogous to that obtaining for functional strabismus or nystagmus, and it was the study of these latter two that led the authors to study the former and to seek an explanation for the many cases of anisocoria of obscure origin which presented no organic, ocular, nervous, cervical, mediastinal, or other lesion, with preservation of the essential iridic functions.

Observation 1. C——, aged 30, was subjected, on account of his unsatisfactory conduct while under fire, to a medicolegal examination, which, altho thoro and extending over a fortnight, revealed nothing. There was no strabismus, either manifest or latent, and the pupils were equal, regular, and responded to all stimuli. Vision of R. and L. = 6/6, no correction accepted. He was, therefore, notified that he was to be returned to the front. Twelve hours later he complained of blurred vision; his vision was still normal, but a mild transient, alternating strabismus was noticed. Pupils were equal and reacted normally. On the following day the strabismus was more pronounced, and transient inequality of the pupils appeared. Two days later the strabismus was confined to the right eye, and when the object fixed was five meters distant the secondary deviation was equal to the primary, 15°; whereas at 20 centimeters distance, no strabismus could be demonstrated. At the same time the inequality of the pupils became very evident, the right pupil measuring 5 mm., and the left pupil 3.5 mm. in ordinary light, with the eyes fixed on an object in middle distance. The pupils still react well to direct and indirect illumination, but feebly on convergence. Cocain dilates both pupils without causing them to become quite equal. The subjective symptoms are not marked; the patient reads with ease and finds his way about the room without hesitation. Bandaging the right eye for twenty-four hours brought about a complete disappearance of the anisocoria and a marked diminution of the strabismus, but the pupils still remained immobile on convergence. A short time after the removal of the bandage the anisocoria reappeared and the strabismus increased. Bandaging the left eye for forty-eight hours gave the same result. Instillation of atropin for three days caused a still greater diminution of the convergence and elicited a hypermetropia of 1. 5 D. When the effect of atropin had worn off a small amount of strabismus remained, and the refraction again simulated emmetropia; a feeble reaction of the pupils on convergence was present.

Again the nervous system was gone over without yielding any diagnostic point. The spinal fluid was clear, the Wassermann reaction of the spinal fluid and of the blood was negative. Radiographic examination of neck and mediastinum were also negative. A psychiatric examination gave the following: Emotional psycho-neurosis, with psychic, senso-motor sensitive-motor, and splanchnic manifestations. The patient was placed on sedative treatment, both mental and physical, with complete disappearance of all his symptoms, after being under observation for a period of three months. He had been assured that his trouble would disappear completely, and his physical improvement kept pace with his mental amelioration.

The authors call attention to the parallelism existing between functional anisocoria and functional strabismus. This functional inequality of the pupils develops in eyes in which the intrinsic motor apparatus is intact and the iridic functions normal. It arises and persists under the domination of the same occasional factors as functional strabismus. The question arises, are these

phenomena manifestations of hysteria, or, to employ a better term, of pithiatism (*pithiatism*—a state of mind which renders the patient subject to persuasion; a term proposed by Babinski as an equivalent of hysteria)? The symptoms presented by C— do not remind one of the ocular stigmata of the Charcot school, but they fit well into the pcture of Babinski's pithiatism. Two successive emotional disturbances produced the condition: first the shock on the battlefield; secondly, the threat of being sent back to the firing line.

The ocular symptoms are, up to a certain point, capable of being produced voluntarily. Voluntary strabismus is well known, and, if we are not in a position to speak of voluntary anisocoria, the intimate relation existing between the two phenomena allows us to connect them pathogenetically and to claim that in C— they were manifestations of a mind more or less blunted. Thus the anisocoria might be the result of an unconscious associated movement accompanying a voluntary movement. We cannot positively exclude malingering, as the differentiation of malingering and pithiatism is always difficult. Nevertheless, the production of the phenomena described can take place only in a vitiated, desequilibrated subject.

The role of the supranuclear functional centers which coordinate the extrinsic movements of the eyeballs is well known both in its normal and pathologic modalities. We know that strabismus and nystagmus are the visible manifestations of the desequilibrium of these centers, generally brought about by secondary causes, ocular or other, and we must be careful not to confound them with pseudostrabotic deviations or nystagmiform oscillations, paralytic or spasmodic, with an organic base. The coordination of the agents of intrinsic ocular motility has received less attention. Nevertheless, the fact that in most people the pupils have the same diameter in spite of uneven illumination of the two eyes proves that this function of pupillary equality does exist; and, furthermore, the fact that with a given intensity of illumination the pupils vary with the accommodation, and convergence evidences the intimate relations existing between the coordinating center for the muscles of the pupil, the accommodation, and the extrinsic muscles. The persistence of equal pupils in many strabotics, in anopia, and in anisometropia, proves the relative autonomy of the pupillary coordinating function. The anatomic location of this pupillary center is hypothetic; physiologically it is superior to the nuclei of the oculomotorius, which are executive agents, and it is closely associated with the coordinating centers of the extrinsic muscles. It is inferior to the voluntary and reflex centers.

The tonic center of the conjugate pupillary movements, aside from the lateral connections (center of lateral movements, center of convergence, supranuclear center of accommodation) is found bordering on numerous centripetal paths, visual, auditory, vascular, cerebral, kinesthetic, etc. The executive agents are the dilators and sphincters of the pupils. The relation is maintained by the common oculomotor and the sympathetic system. A lesion situate anywhere along the centrifugal part of the system will provoke an organic anisocoria of the known paralytic or spasmodic type; a lesion or irritation at any point of the centripetal system or of the lateral connections will not provoke an anisocoria, providing that the coordinating center displays sufficient activity. If the center is miopragic (underfunctioning) these secondary causes may determine an inequality of the pupils. Functional insufficiency is the basal cause, and this fact justifies the use of the term which we have adopted of "functional anisocoria," in analogy to the term "functional strabismus," in both conditions desequilibrium of the neighboring centers being present.

An understanding of the lateral and afferent connections of the pupillary center will serve to explain the secondary types grafted on functional anisocoria to produce the various clinical modalities. When an underfunctioning pupillary center comes under the

domination of a coordinating center of convergence which is desequilibrated we shall have synchronism of functional anisocoria with functional strabismus, as in our patient C—.

Observation 2. In an aviator aged 22, with negative history, except that of a convergence of the left eye of 15° dating from childhood, and with vision of 6/6 in either eye, the pupil of the left eye was constantly smaller than that of the right eye. This inequality of the pupils in no way interfered with the voluntary or reflex reaction of the iris. Examination of the nervous cerebral, and sympathetic system, radiographic examination of the mediastinum, Wassermann reaction of the blood, all negative. Here again, we see the desequilibrium of the center of convergence entailing a desequilibrium of the neighboring pupillary center. This condition, altho it arose early in life, is not entitled to the name of congenital anisocoria or congenital strabismus.

The association may be a little looser; the anisocoria may outstrip the desequilibrium of the centers of the extrinsic motors, so that the anisocoria is permanent while the strabismus is latent, thus giving, on superficial examination a picture of true physiologic anisocoria, or of the congenital type mentioned by certain authors. The use of a screen will quickly reveal the true state of affairs by converting the latent into manifest strabismus.

The possible occurrence of a triad of symptoms: strabismus, nystagmus and anisocoria is shown here.

Observation 6. R—, aged 24, with 0.3 in the right and 0.1 in the left eye after correction, shows concomitant internal strabismus of the left eye; permanent horizontal nystagmus with slow, narrow oscillations when binocular vision is used, and quick wide oscillations when monocular vision is employed. Unequal pupils under all conditions; under candle light in a dark room the right pupil measures 4 mm., the left 5 mm. Reaction to light well marked on both sides, and good to convergence. Besides there is hippus with wide oscillations. Thus we see that anisometropia will produce anisocoria in subjects in whom the pupillary coordinating center is below par under the same conditions under which a convergent or a divergent strabismus is due to an occasional ametropia. This brings us to the much debated question of unequal pupils due to anisometropia; while some writers deny the existence of an anisocoria of this type, others maintain that it exists, and still others see in it either a physiologic anisocoria, or a congenital morphologic or structural anisocoria. The authors believe that uncomplicated anisometropia is unable to produce anisocoria any more than it can produce strabismus, unless there be some profound anomaly of the centers of coordination, be it of the internal or of the external motor apparatus of the globes. There must be some, however slight, defect of the nervous function. Stimuli may be transmitted from a distance through the connections of the pupillary coordinating center. The influence of the cerebrum, more or less consciously arising, is seen in the case of C. Amongst the sensorial stimuli the most important are those of the visual order. In otherwise normal subjects the greatest variations of illumination will not give rise to pupillary inequality; in subjects under the domination of anisocoria the smallest variation in illumination or the slightest macular lesion will precipitate the functional syndrome. As Roche says: "In lesions of the chorio-retina situate at or near the posterior pole, the pupils are uneven, the pupil of the affected eye being the wider. This anisocoria is always of low degree and the pupillary motility remains intact." The authors think it would be more logical to assume a latent desequilibrium of the coordinating centers of the pupils, the anisocoria becoming manifest when the retinal sensorial inequality precipitates it, just as in eyes which become strabotic late in life through a tardy amblyopia, or as nystagmus appears after the loss of binocular vision.

Again, we meet equal pupils in subjects with severe optic or retinal lesions. In these cases the center of

equilibration is doing the work that was cut out for it. A nurse aged 25, whose left eye had suffered a contusion without visible rupture of the tunics, underwent a reduction of vision in the injured eye until a mere perception of light remained. No response to direct light stimuli, but perfect response to indirect light stimuli and to convergence. The pupils were even at all times.

In conclusion the authors draw attention to a form of anisocoria which they style "matutinal functional anisocoria." This form appears in individuals who have been educated to autoobservation. It comes on after awakening, and is very intense for fifteen to twenty minutes. In spite of its intensity it is highly transitory and disappears after ocular movements or reading. It cannot be provoked by artificial differences of retinal excitation, nor does it lead to any definite new trouble. The iridic functions are perfect.

M. W. F.

Berner, O. A Case of Sarcoma of the Iris. Norsk Magazin for Laegevidenskaben v. 79. No. 12.

The writer presents the clinical and microscopic findings of a case of sarcoma of the iris and gives his theories as to the development of these tumors. The patient was a woman of 37 years of age who presented herself on account of a sudden dimness of the vision of the left eye which however had disappeared over night. The writer explains this symptom by supposing a possible hemorrhage from the tumor into the anterior chamber.

Clinical examination showed a lens-shaped almost round elevation of the iris of about 2.5 mm., diameter at the pupillary margin below in the left eye. It was heavily pigmented, dark brown, while the general color of the iris was bluish gray The iris had besides small brown spots thruout. The patient stated that she had always had a brown spot below the pupil. No vascularization could be made out even with a strong loupe nor could any adhesions to the lens be found. Transillumination of the ciliary region was negative. There was no conjunctival injection, media were clear, fundus negative, and no increase in tension.

A complete iridectomy downward was done. The microscopic picture showed a marked cellular proliferation in the stroma of the iris, especially at the pupillary edge, characterized by small, dark, evensized spindleshaped nuclei. A few sections showed typical giant cells, but in none could any polynuclear leucocytes be found. Pigment cells of two types were very numerous in some sections, the first type a large round cell so heavily pigmented that the nucleus was obscured, the other a smaller cell with a variable amount of pigment. By using Alfieri's method of removing the pigment a differentiation between the retinal and stroma pigment cells was obtained. The author also convinced himself of the presence of "Klumpcellen" in the stroma. All in all the microscopic appearance reminded one very much of that from Casey Wood and Brown Pusey's case.

The author discusses at some length the theories as to development of sarcoma of the iris. Other writers have traced a relationship between the pigmented spots of the iris and sarcoma. It has been pointed out that these pigmented spots are separate and distinct from the regular coloring of the iris In structure these pigment spots consist of socalled "Klumpcellen," large round cells very heavily pigmented; and differ markedly from the small pigment cells of stroma of the iris. He believes that these "Klumpcellen" are really retinal cells detached during embryonic growth and pushed into the stroma layer.

In support of this theory he points out that these cells are most numerous in the posterior region of the iris and also at the pupillary border at which latter place he assumes they are detached at the same time as the retinal cells which go to form the muscle of the sphincter of the pupil. The stroma cells are of mesodermic, while the retinal are of ectodermic origin and hence these pigmented spots which are supposed to give rise to malignant growths

are epithelial in character. This theory may explain the fact that sarcoma of the iris in distinction from other sarcomas, appears mostly in middle life, around the age of 40, and also that this tumor has a predilection for the lower half of the iris, a phenomenon formerly thought entirely accidental, but now assuming some significance in relation to the location of the choroidal fissure.

The iridectomy was done in August, 1916. In April, 1918, no recurrence had taken place.

D. L. TILDERQUIST.

Young, George. Threshold Tests. British Journal of Ophthalmology, July and August, 1918, p. 384 and 430

The writer calls attention to the fact that altho the probable diagnostic importance of the determination of the approximate thresholds for light differences and colors has been pointed out, very little accurate knowledge in this field has been worked up; he suggests that investigations of the subject should be undertaken and notes compared; he offers a rapid and accurate procedure which can be employed by the busiest workers.

The test objects consist of pieces of white blotting paper upon which are produced spots of black, red, green, blue and yellow in dilutions equalling 1/512, 1/256, 1/128, 1/64, 1/32, 1/16, 1/8, 1/4, 1/2 and I, each successive spot being double the intensity of the previous one; for pigments the Windsor and Newton's waterproof inks commercially known as India ink, vermillion, emerald, ultramarine, and yellow are used, the dilutions made in distilled water, and dropped from a pipette of 1 mm. drop surface, from a height of 100 mm. Fifty cards are fastened in the above order both of color and dilution, on each grey page of a photograph album and the value of each card noted in a corner.

The patient must sit so that a good source of daylight strikes the pages of the album obliquely, coming from behind and one side, and the cards are successively presented in the above order before each eye separately, one card at a time. At each card the surgeon asks: "blank or spot?" The black series coming first, gives a rapid clue in cases where the light sense is diminished. The palest black spot recognized is noted as the nearest to the threshold for differences of light intensity. Where this threshold is at fault with no scotoma, those who have a good photometer should use it and help decide whether the light threshold is also at fault in all cases. If this is the case—and Young thinks there is little doubt about it—the test with the black series becomes a direct test of the light sense.

With the color series the same process is performed until the patient answers "spot," when the surgeon must immediately say: "any color?" The palest spot evoking a color sensation, though misnamed, is noted as the nearest to the threshold for that color. In testing for red and green it is often a good plan, after having exposed each card successively on two opposing pages, and no color has been perceived, to uncover both, testing for scotoma.

Young finds the threshold for light differences and that for color coincide invariably, as has been pointed out, but they often vary for the other colors, and "spot" is announced one or two cards before color sensation is evoked; he believes there is little doubt that these color thresholds will frequently prove to be the only pathologic sign, when color vision and field are normal.

A fairly large number of observations shows the following averages in normal eyes, seldom varying to any marked degree: black, 1/512; red, 1/256; green, 1/32; blue, 1/512; yellow, 1/256. With both eyes exposed the thresholds are about twice as keen; ordinary variations of daylight do not matter; reflections interfere and consequently the light should be well chosen and uniformly adhered to; ordinary artificial lights should be avoided tho electric light with suitable bulbs may prove satisfactory.

Rapidity is not only possible, but essential, especially where the color dots are concerned, in order to avoid the element of afterimages creeping in, with the confusion that would re-

sult. To go thru each set rapidly and urge the patient to prompt attention and quick reply, and to pause between each set while noting the number, will eliminate the complication. After very little use, the album test does not take two minutes.

The writer adds a table giving a number of clinical examples which, although too scanty to draw conclusions, are often striking. Thus in a case of hemorrhagic retinitis, yellow is not seen until saturated, while in an example of disseminated choroiditis this color is seen with 1/256 dilution. Interesting also is the reduced light sense, as compared with the color sense, in three examples of glaucoma and the reverse condition in two instances of optic nerve atrophy in which the light sense is only affected very late. Tobacco amblyopia is diagnosed with great rapidity with the red and green cards, the patient at once seeing the color on the opposite page, while missing it on the one he is looking at.

C. H. M.

Macphail, James N.—Importance of Some Minor Eye Operations. (Indian Medical Gazette, June, 1918.) This is an address delivered at the Bengal Branch of the Medical Missionary Association of India. The writer has had a very large experience of eye work in India, and in this paper makes a few remarks about eye operations in general. Speaking of tattooing the cornea and the puncturing of thin scars that sometimes occur, he says that if proper antiseptic precautions have been taken it may do good by relieving tension and preventing the formation of a staphyloma.

Trachoma calls for operative treatment usually. Expression converts a chronic into an acute condition, which is more amenable to treatment. After expression he applies a one per cent solution of corrosive sublimat to the new surface, following Treacher Collins' method. Entropion he treats by splitting the lid and removing a wedge of skin from the skin surface of the lid. Grafting is not done apparently.

Iridectomy Mr. Macphail thinks the operation for acute glaucoma, and he is inclined to doubt if a glaucoma that is not benefited by iridectomy will benefit by an other operation. His experience is that any operation in chronic glaucoma is unsatisfactory. When patients come with a ripe cataract in one eye, he extracts it; and at the same time does a preliminary iridectomy in the other eye. He would do this in all cases if he could.

F. P. M.

Musy, T. Tuberculosis of the Conjunctiva Caused by a Bacillus of the Bovine Type. (Ann. d'Ocul., Mar., 1918, Vol. CLV, p. 144.) A case of tuberculosis of the conjunctiva resembling Parinaud's conjunctivitis was described in 1914. It was not possible at that time to say whether the germ was of the human or bovine type. But by making use of the fact that human tuberculosis produces in cattle only localized infection, at the point of inoculation, while the bovine type rapidly develops into a generalized tuberculosis, the author was able to demonstrate that the germs in his case were of the bovine type.

C. L.

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LESSONS FROM SCLERAL TREPHINING.

The report by Dr. A. E. Ewing of a case subjected to postciliary scleral trephining for acute glaucoma, (Jour. A. M. A., Dec. 14, 1918), is interesting not only from the operative point of view, but more especially from that of the physiopathology of glaucoma.

The patient, a woman 57 years old, had in the right eye the visual field confined to the temporal side, and very much restricted. Tension with Schiötz tonometer equalled 57 mm. Hg., Vision, 8/150. Myotics failing to control the disease, a postciliary scleral trephining was performed, in the upper temporal portion of the eye. After dissecting a conjunctival flap down to the sclera, a 2 mm. trephine was applied and a hole made in the sclera alone, leaving the choroid intact. The conjunctival flap was then replaced and sutured.

There was no appreciable reduction in the tension following the operation, as determined by palpation. Forty-eight hours later the globe was quiet and the cornea clear, but vision was reduced to counting fingers at one foot. During the following four weeks, with the aid of eserin, vision rose to 20/60, but there was marked protrusion of the conjunctiva over the wound. The opening in the sclera could readily be seen through the conjunctiva and shown to be clear by transmitted light.

Three weeks later, the tension had risen to 60 mm. Hg., and vision lowered to 20/120. The protrusion on the conjunctiva was excised, showing a dense fibrous tissue which blocked the aperture. After removing it, the choroid was slit open and from the incision three large drops of vitreous escaped leaving the globe very soft. V = fingers.

One week after this second operation tension was only 9 mm. Vision rose to 20/240. Within a month tension rose to 51 mm., and vision lowered to motion of the hand at six inches. With the use of eserin the media cleared and V=20/250. A marked protrusion of the conjunctiva was again noticed on the wound, which being incised al-

lowed a free flow of aqueous, but no vitreous, and tension was reduced to below normal. Three days afterward the patient was very uncomfortable, the eye being hard and the fundus blurred. The conjunctiva distended; incision gave immediate relief, the sight rising and the media clearing. Three days after the puncture the patient felt severe pain. A new incision produced a free discharge of aqueous, but no vitreous, and immediate relief from pain. Scleral trephining in the same place revealed a new fibrous scar, a free escape of aqueous, no vitreous, was produced; tension lowered to normal and vision rose. But the same symptoms recurred.

Three months later trephining was performed on a fresh spot of the sclera. Finally the sight was lost entirely, and tension rose to 70 mm.; but the eye was quiet and comfortable.

The conclusions which can be drawn from this case are: 1st. That scleral trephining as an operation for the relief of subacute glaucoma, even with slitting of the choroid, is entirely useless, because the wound is rapidly closed by newly formed fibrous tissue, which interferes with the proper drainage of the eye. 2d. The cloudiness of the cornea and vitreous, and the arterial pulsation, can be instantly relieved by drainage from the vitreous, with immediate restoration of the sight. 3d. The loss of vitreous even in such quantity as to leave the eye very soft, is no more cure for glaucoma than is the removal of the lens. 4th. A drainage of the aqueous can be established from the anterior part of the eye through the vitreous and below the conjunctiva.

It is an established fact that the vitreous is never reproduced, its loss being always compensated by a quantity of aqueous which takes its place. For that reason it is not unusual in our opinion, that no vitreous escaped after the incisions of the conjunctiva and choroid. What makes this case interesting is the striking fact that glaucomatous symptoms were always produced when the aqueous accumulated in the eye, notwithstanding the small quantity of vitreous left. This proves that in glaucoma the secretion of the aqueous is not stopped, even when the intraocular pressure is very high, and also that when the anterior outlet is closed it accumulates in the vitreous sponge, and equalizes the pressure all over the eye, escaping freely when an artificial outlet is produced either forward or behind the equator.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Ewing had not made the chemical analysis of the aqueous which escaped after his numerous operations, with the object of ascertaining whether the composition was changed, and if a greater quantity of colloids, albumin, etc., existed. A fact which points to this altered composition is, that the media always cleared to a great extent when the eyeball was punctured.

M. Uribe-Troncoso.

WAR OPHTHALMOLOGY

The phrase, "War Ophthalmology," and its equivalents are used to indicate certain aspects of ophthalmic science and art, that have been rapidly developed or emphasized by war. The literature of the war period has been very largely devoted to ocular injuries, certain forms of which have been relatively very frequent. Yet the eye remaining unchanged, its reaction to external force is very much the same as in times of peace. Looking backward we can surmise from present experience, what took place in former wars; and for the future, the lessons now learned will have permanent value, and will be applicable in an era of peace.

The continuity of war ophthalmology thru successive ages has been treated by our ophthalmic colleague, Dr. James A. Spalding, in his presidential address on "The Eyes in War," published in the *Journal of the Maine Medical Association* for March, 1919. He says "In the beginning of the world, savages fought for similar reasons, and met with just that same sort of injuries around the eyes as are seen today, amongst savages hardly yet more civilized than our remote ancestors." With different weapons and

methods of attack, very much the same damage has been done to the combatants.

Again, as Dr. Spalding points out, the value of the eye, even a single eye, to the warrior, has been recognized in legend and history, in tapestry, and painting. The eyes of the fabled Argus are a prohpecy of the modern army with its observation service. It is extremely interesting to trace, as Dr. Wood has done (p. 220 of this volume) and as Dr. Spalding does in his address, the history of the eye in previous wars.

Dr. Spalding cites Baron Larrey with regard to the Napoleonic wars. His own study of eye injuries during the American Revolution and the War of 1812 reveals nothing more serious than burns of the eyelids and eye from flashings of powder from old-fashioned flintlock muskets or from bits of flint itself." In the American Civil War, the number of cases of sympathetic ophthalmia was notable. Many eyes were injured by buckshot, and shell explosions began to figure as an important cause.

In the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 ophthalmology was recognized as a special branch of surgery. "Soldiers with eye injuries were for the first time carried to the rear and put in charge of ophthalmic surgeons. The left eye was hit more often than the right, due, as was surmized, to the better protection furnished to the right eye by the butt of the rifle. It was now observed that if an eye suppurated after an injury, it was much less likely to induce sympathetic ophthalmia than if insidiously inflamed. Sutures were also now first utilized for sewing over extensive injuries of the sclera, and with unlooked-for good results, many an enucleation being thus avoided. A man of whom I lately heard, lost the sight of an eye totally, the bullet lodging in the orbit and only being removed at death, thirty years later. In another instance, a soldier was hit in the right eye, without apparent injury, but could afterward 'see but half of objects with this eye.' Dynamite and gun cotton explosive injuries were studied, and strychnia utilized hypodermically for optic atrophy following concussions without material injuries. Much was said of the early or late operations for traumatic cataract, and first aid bandages, covered with aseptic ointments, for protecting orbital, eyelid, or other injuries, were utilized in military surgery at this time."

Dr. Spalding goes still more extensively into the lessons that have been learned since 1914, and especially the limitations of the value of our usual tests for visual acuity, color vision, and the equilibrium of aviators. He also takes up the reeducation and provision for the war-blinded.

His interesting address fully establishes the claim thus expressed, "Without detailing a hundredth part of all that might be said concerning the eyes in war, let me here reiterate the main idea of this paper that from time immemorial the eyes have been injured in quarrels of all sorts, and that as such injuries occurred, methods of defense were invented. In spite, however, of all that we can do, injuries will occur; so that the study of their cure will forever be worth the efforts of the keenest minds in medicine."

E. J.

OPHTHALMIC EXAMINATIONS.

The American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations will hold its next examination at the Wills Eye Hospital, Philadelphia, 3 P. M., Friday, June 6, 1919.

This examination will be the fifth to be conducted by the Board. The Board is composed of representatives of the American Ophthalmological Society, the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, and the Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology. By arrangement with the American College of Surgeons, the Board has become the Ophthalmic Credentials Committee of the College, and conducts the examinations of the ophthalmic candidates for Fellowship in the College.

For a certificate of this Board, the examination in ophthalmology consists of first, case records; second, written

examinations; and third, clinical laboratory and oral examinations, or so much thereof as may be adjudged necessary:

(a.) Candidates in ophthalmology are required to submit twenty-five complete case records of which not more than ten should be descriptive of operations. These records should be of cases of ocular diseases and defects of varied character, including errors of refraction or muscle balance; external ocular diseases or diseases of the uveal tract or retina, or of the optic nerve, or glaucoma. The reports should show especially the reasons for the diagnosis, and for the operative treatment and the technic of operations in operative cases.

(b.) The written examination will test the candidate's knowledge of the underlying principles of the science of ophthalmology, including anatomy, embryology, physiology, physiologic optics, pathology, relations of the eye to the other organs and diseases of the body.

(c.) The oral examination will include: The external examination of the eye. Ophthalmoscopy (candidates are requested to bring their own ophthalmoscopes). Measurement of errors of refraction. Testing of the ocular movements and fields of vision. Relations of ocular conditions to diseases of other parts of the body and their treatment. Laboratory examination in histology, pathology, and bacteriology of the eye.

Further information may be had upon request from the Secretary, Dr. William H. Wilder, 122 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

SOCIETY MEETINGS.

The annual meeting of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom, Great Britain and Ireland was held this year, May 1-3.

The Société Française d'Ophtalmologie resumed its series of annual meetings at Paris, May 5th. Dr. F. Terrien made the report on the special subject for discussion on X-Ray and Radium in Ophthalmology.

The following meetings will be held:

Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, Atlantic City, New Jersey, June 9-13.

American Ophthalmological Society, Atlantic City, New Jersey, June 13-17.

Oxford Ophthalmological Congress, Oxford, England, July 10-12.

Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmic Society, San Francisco, California, August 4-6.

The Colorado Congress to be held August 4th and 5th will this year include both ophthalmic and oto-laryngologic papers and discussions.

American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, Cleveland, Ohio, September 1-3.

BOOK NOTICES.

Atlas of Military Ophthalmology (Atlas der Kriegsaugenheilkunde samt begleitendem Text), by **Prof. A. von Szily,** Freiburg, i. Br.; large 8vo.; pp. 195-354, 2d part; plates XVI to XLVII. F. Enke, Stuttgart, 1917; also numerous black and white illustrations in the text; 20 marks.

This is the second of the proposed three sections of von Szily's Atlas, the first one having been published early in 1917, reaching this country some six months ago. The final one advertised for issue also during 1917 has not yet appeared.

The text of the first part of this excellently planned monograph is divided into four chapters; the present part carries the work to the eleventh chapter.

The fifth chapter is concerned with gross lesions of the eye associated, of necessity, with other extensive wounds. Two of the accompaniments of these large traumatisms are enophthalmus and exophthalmus, a subject begun in the first part of the Atlas and ended in the second. Shrapnel wounds of the face, of the walls of the neighboring cavities and of the skull (with ocular injuries), are the commonest examples. These are well illustrated in the text and the treatment—especially in the surgical conduct of the cases—

is fully outlined. One of the outstanding attractions of the chapter is a description of the fundus appearance in several cases of gross injury, which are well reproduced in color.

The pulsating form of traumatic exophthalmus is extensively described and its incidence compared with the experience of the Russo-Japanese War and with civilian occurrences.

Chapter seven deals with metastatic ophthalmia in the war. Von Szily's experience is much the same as that of British and French observers; in spite of conditions supposed to favor the production of this distressing complication, it has been one of the most uncommon sequels of systemic poisoning. Four cases, each with a complete history and histologic report, are given which do not, however, differ essentially from the well known picture of the disease depicted in our text books —the panophthalmitis of pyemia. It may be added that, as in civil life, the double sided ocular metastases, of whatever origin ended almost invariably in the death of the patient.

Axial wounds (Durchschüsse) are naturally found in infantry organizations and consist largely of bullet wounds, but not infrequently the thru-and-thru penetration is the result of shrapnel. Most of these traumas in survivors are lateral or oblique; anteroposterior shots penetrate the brain and cause almost instant death. In these cases it is of course the fundus changes that interest one and the reproduction of the background alterations, altho in the Atlas too highly colored, are admirable. It is remarkable to note the successful efforts made by nature under aseptic conditions, to close the wound by extensive cicatrization, and how well these are shown by the ophthalmoscope.

In this chapter is also shown by numerous diagrams, the narrow escapes (except by neighborhood shock), the eyeball suffers in engagements where the whole atmosphere seems charged with flying bullets. These missiles enter and leave the orbit at all possible angles, sometimes without any permanent injury to eyesight.

The eighth chapter is devoted to bilateral injuries of the globe, mostly from shrapnel.

Chapter nine deals with the war blind (due to wounds) in general. These are (practically) all the result of serious bilateral injuries. Oguchi found 53 such cases in a total of 3,781 ocular injuries in the Russo-Japanese war. Probably the proportion will be about the same in this great conflict, but complete German-Austrian figures are not yet available.

The next chapter deals with perforating wounds of the eye and with foreign bodies in the globe, especially in relation to infection and sympathetic ophthalmitis. Here again the Allied experience is duplicated. Probably owing to early treatment and to the fact that most of the missiles are aseptic, sympathetic disease has been exceedingly rare, probably more uncommon than in any previous war. When it did occur the picture presented is the classic picture familiar to our readers.

We look forward with interest to the final volume of this valuable series.

C. A. W.

The third part of this work containing pages 355 to 590 and giving the last six chapters, has just been received in this country. It reports a summary of the ophthalmic observations and therapeutic procedures for war injuries at the Freiburg clinic up to the spring of 1916, with a brief appreciation of it by "Herr Geheimrath Professor Dr. Th. Axenfeld."

The scope of the work is shown by the subjects of the different chapters, which are I, Cranial Shot-wounds and the Eye; II, Temporal Orbit Wounds; III, War Hemianopsia; IV, Penetrating Wounds of the Orbit and Vicinity; V, Lesions from Shot with Great Destroying Ability; VI, Metastatic Ophthalmia after War Wounds; VII, Penetrating Wounds, with Ophthalmoscopic and Histologic Findings of Chorioretinitis Proliferans and Atrophy; VIII, Bilateral Wounds; IX. Blindness Produced by Warfare; X,

Perforating Wounds of the Eyeball, Intraocular Foreign Bodies and Infections; XI, Macular Changes, Contour Shot Wounds, Contusion and Aerial Shot Wounds; XII, Effects of Gassing, Wounds and Burns from Gassing, Gas Grenades, Fire Bombs, Pistols for Flashing Light, etc.; XIII, Organic Lesions of Mobility and Sensibility with Remarks on the Psychognostic Reduction of Function in Skull Wounds; XIV, Psychogenic War Neuroses; XV, Wounds of the Nasal Sinuses and the Tear Duct; XVI, Plastic Operations in War Wounds.

Each chapter is accompanied by an extended bibliography; and excellent indexes of topics and authors mentioned are appended. The well known talent of von Szily for detailed description is nowhere more appropriately applied than to the description of the clinical characters of ocular injuries.

The mechanical execution of this work is fully up to the standards attained in Germany before the war. The paper is about twice as heavy as that used in this journal; and is highly finished to take perfectly half tone reproductions and color printing.

The whole appearance of the work, with its costly paper and wide margins, is strongly in contrast with the economies forced on the scientific publications of allied countries during the later years of the war.

The hope expressed by Axenfeld, June, 1916, that "this work will be an evidence of our activity in this great time," might apply more widely than as a mere record of the work of the Freiburg clinic.

The last two chapters, illustrated by 130 half-tone pictures of cases, given as they appeared after injury, with results of the "activities" that repaired these deformities, are a hint of the activities that produced them.

E. J.

Transactions of the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, 1917-1918. 8vo, 606 pages, 1 colored plate, 111 illustrations. Published by the Academy.

Owing to obstacles and delays due to the war, when the twenty-third annual meeting of the Academy was held in Denver, last August, the printing of the proceedings of the Pittsburgh meeting, held over nine months before, had not been completed. It was therefore natural to combine the proceedings for the two years in a single volume.

This makes the largest volume of Transactions that the Academy has yet issued; altho each year it was suggested that the annual meeting be omitted because of the difficulties of securing papers for the program. We believe that in scientific value the papers here published will compare favorably with those in any of the preceding volumes.

The part of the volume relating to ophthalmology includes 350 pages. Most of the papers here printed have already appeared in the journals, some of them from the last meeting in the American Journal of Ophthalmology. In general form and makeup the volume corresponds closely to its immediate predecessors.

E. J.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Electric Ophthalmoscope Mirror.

To the Editor:

In the discussion of the article "An Improved System of Illumination for the Electric Ophthalmoscope," by Dr. Carl Koller in the 1918 volume of the Transactions of the American Ophthalmological Society, the reader of the paper states that "the illuminating system used in the instrument sold as the 'May Ophthalmoscope' is the one that was worked out by myself and Mr. R. H. Wappler;" he claims that he has used a similar instrument in his office since 1911 or 1912, and he seems, apparently, to imply that I obtained some of the ideas embodied in my instrument from him or Mr. R. H. Wappler.

I wish to state emphatically that I owe nothing either to Dr. Koller or to Mr. R. H. Wappler in connection with this instrument.

I exhibited and described this ophthalmoscope at the meeting of the

American Ophthalmological Society in 1913, at the meeting of the Ophthalmological Section of the American Medical Association in 1914, at the December, 1914, meeting of the Ophthalmological Section of the New York Academy of Medicine, and at a meeting of the Metropolitan Medical Society of New York in 1913 or 1914. Surely these meetings ought to have given the reader of the paper referred to excellent and abundant opportunity for presenting his claims four years ago.

In 1912, tired of replacing broken mirrors in the electric ophthalmoscopes then on the market, I worked out a model, the essential feature of which was a solid piece of glass which acted as a mirror and was unbreakable. I made my model myself, even to the grinding of the reflecting prism; this model was given to the Wappler Electric Co. as a pattern.

I am not concerned and do not care about priority; if this were the only question involved I would not take up your space in replying to Dr. Koller's insinuations. When Dennett brought out his electric ophthalmoscope, with its basic innovation, he became entitled to about all the credit that can be attached to the instrument. The improvements which my instrument presents are merely details contributing more perfect illumination, convenience and durability. The improved system of illumination has been made use of in the urethroscope and cystoscope, tho I did not know of this until recently. Others had been working on the same idea; for instance in 1914, Dr. Harry Gradle of Chicago, wrote to me and said that my model was so similar to the one he had been working upon that he proposed to discontinue perfecting his.

Since my relations with the reader of the paper have never been cordial and for the past year or more have been "diplomatically severed," I was not even aware that he had constructed an electric ophthalmoscope which he kept in his office for his own use since 1912, without allowing his confreres to share in the advantages, if any, which might accrue from his ideas. Furthermore, I received no hint from the Wappler Electric Co., that they had had any relations with Dr. Koller in connection with an electric ophthalmoscope or else I would, under no circumstances, have given them my model for manufacture, since I had been negotiating with another concern in 1913.

CHARLES H. MAY.

New York City.

Glaucoma with Influenza.

To the Editor:

I have a case which goes to show the wide variation of untoward sequelae following influenza.

The patient, a woman of fifty-five years, presented herself one month after the onset of influenza with an advanced and pronounced glaucoma. Both pupils would not react to light, practically blind in the right eye, and vision reduced to 20/200 in the left; color fields very much reduced. She reports that shortly after she became ill with the influenza, she noticed a hardening of the eyeball. I had never seen so much diminution of visual acuity with glaucoma in so short a time, except in the fulminating type.

L. A. SCHIPFER.

Bismarck, N. D.

Infection Thru the Conjunctiva?

To the Editor:

During the post influenza period, at the time when a lot of talk was current "pro and con" the face mask as a means of partial protection, some one casually observed that not a great deal was to be gained by wearing a mask over the mouth and nose as a protection against droplet infection, because the eyes were a source of infection to the respiratory passages thru mechanical passage of organisms received in the eye and carried down thru the ducts into the nasal cavity, etc. We undertook some simple experiments here, inoculating the eye with easily detected organisms such as Prodigiosus, trying to recover the organism in various portions of the throat and nasal cavity. At

no time were we able to recover such organism.

Before we go into this further, we would like to inquire of your readers as to any work of this kind that has already been done. We are so shut off in this place from adequate library facilities that we continually fear that anything that we become interested in may have already been neatly and completely worked out—vastly better than we could possibly do it here. Would you then favor us with any citations to work of this kind, and also to any available data as to the germicidal or antiseptic action of tears.

CAREY P. MCCORD,
Major, M. C.
Base Hospital Laboratory,
Camp Sherman, Ohio.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Dr. William Cheatham, of Louisville, Kentucky, April 3rd, from angina pectoris, aged 66.

Dr. Wallace Clark, of Utica, New York, March 16th, aged 69.

Dr. William Pearson Cowper, Edinborough, February 1st, aged 38.

Sir William Crookes, in London, April 5th, at the age of 86.

Sir James McKenzie Davidson, in London, April 2nd, aged 62.

Dr. Paul Herman Dernehl, of Milwaukee, at his home, March 28th, from diabetes, aged 40.

Dr. Osee Wallace Hoffman, in Denver, March 5th, of tuberculosis, aged 43.

Dr. R. A. Lundie, Edinburgh, December 18th, 1918.

Dr. E. H. Noble, Elmira, New York, March 6th, aged 53.

Dr. E. W. Nordensen, Swedish ophthalmologist, recently in Stockholm.

Dr. Frank Van Fleet, New York, April 5th, aged 58, of heart disease.

PERSONALS.

Dr. J. N. Reik, of Baltimore, has returned from France, and has resumed practice.

Dr. James E. Carroll, of Baltimore, has recovered from a recent attack of pneumonia.

Dr. Melville Black, of Denver, is spending a few weeks' vacation motoring in southern California.

Dr. Emory Hill, formerly of Chicago, has removed to Richmond Virginia, and opened offices in the Professional Building.

Dr. J. G. Linn, of Pittsburgh, Pa., is mustered out of the service, and resumed practice in the Highlands Building.

Dr. Wm. McL. Ayres, of Cincinnati, is still in France, connected with Base Hospital, No. 110.

Dr. H. H. Stark, of El Paso, Texas, has been honorably discharged from the Medical Corps of U. S. A., and has resumed practice.

Dr. James H. McKellar, of Pasadena, Cal., has reopened offices, 618 Title Insurance Building.

Dr. Charles P. Small has completed his term of government service and has opened offices in Suite 1111, Michigan Boulevard Building, Chicago, Illinois.

Dr. Thomas A. Woodruff, formerly of Chicago, announces his removal to New London, Connecticut.

Dr. Hans Barkan has been transferred from the Base Hospital at Camp Kearney to the Letterman General Hospital at the Presidio at San Francisco.

Dr. George U. Huber, of Coffeyville, Kansas, is convalescent after being ill eight weeks with influenza.

Dr. Harold Gifford, of Omaha, will be the guest of the Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmological Society meeting in San Francisco in August.

Dr. J. O. McReynolds, of Dallas, Texas, as president of the Medical Department of

the air service of the army, the Flight Surgeons' Association, presided over a meeting of the association, which met in Dallas, March 24-26.

Dr. Alan Kinisely, Jr., of Lima, Ohio, has just returned to that city from his army service.

Dr. Howard Hoyt Shiras, after completing his ophthalmic service at the N. Y. Eye and Ear Infirmary last year, was stationed at Camp Greenleaf. He has returned to Cleveland to resume his practice.

Major John R. Newcomb received an honorable discharge from the service April first, and has returned to Indianapolis to resume his practice. Upon his discharge, Dr. Newcomb received a commission as Lieut.-Col., in the Medical Corps.

Col. P. J. H. Farrell of Chicago, who has been commanding officer of two base hospitals in the advance sector in France, was recently in Germany on special duty.

The following Chicago ophthalmologists have completed their terms of army service and have resumed their private practice: Harry S. Gradle, Herbert Walker, E. K. Findlay, Sidney Walker, Jr., Chas. J. Swan, Chas. P. Small, Frank Brawley, G. W. Boot.

Dr. Edward E. Maxey of Boise, Idaho, has received his discharge from the service, and will resume his practice in association with Dr. R. L. Nourse.

Dr. L. S. Moore, who recently finished an internship in the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, is now associated with Dr. P. A. Jordan of San Jose, Calif.

SOCIETIES.

At the meeting of the Section on Ophthalmology of the New York Academy of Medicine, March 17, papers were read by Lieut.-Col. G. S. Derby on "Eye Work with the British and American Expeditionary Forces," and Capt. G. H. Grant, "Restorative Surgery After War Injuries to Eyes." At its meeting of April 21st, papers were read by Dr. Alfred Wiener on "The Radical Treatment of Epiphora," and by invitation, Dr. C. R. Holmes, of Cincinnati, on "Extirpation of the Lacrimal Gland."

The Oxford Ophthalmological Congress, Sydney Stephenson, master, will assemble at Keble College, Oxford, on the evening of Wednesday, July 9th, next, and the meeting will be held on Thursday, the 10th, and Friday, the 11th, of July.

The first day, Thursday, the 10th, will be largely devoted to a discussion on "Preventative Ophthalmology," to be opened by Colonel J. Herbert Parsons, A. M. S., consulting ophthalmic surgeon to the forces. Members intending to take part in the discussion are requested to kindly send in their names to the honorary secretary at their early convenience.

The second day, Friday, the 11th, will be given up to papers, demonstrations, and cases, etc. It is hoped that members will make every effort to contribute to the success of the meeting with cases, specimens, new operations, or novelties of any kind. If, therefore, you have any such that you are willing to bring forward, will you kindly notify the undersigned at the earliest opportunity and your contribution will be welcomed.

The annual general meeting will be held in the evening of Thursday, July 10th.

BERNARD CRIDLAND,
Hon. Secretary.

At the meeting of the Chicago Medical Society on May 7th, Dr. Cassius Westcott read a paper on "The Relation of the Teeth to the Eyes."

Dr. P. A. Jordan of San Jose, Cal., was elected Chairman of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the California State Medical Society, held at Santa Barbara, April 15-17.

On May 12th the Chicago Ophthalmological Society held its last meeting until October. The program consisted of papers and discussions on various Compensation Tables for Eye Injuries.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The St. Louis Medical Society has appointed a committee to organize clinics in that city for the purpose of establishing a method of work to be done in each clinic from day to day in order that the local profession and visiting physicians may have opportunity to observe work done by St. Louis physicians. Dr. E. H. Higbee, Jr., has been appointed chairman of the Committee on Ophthalmology.

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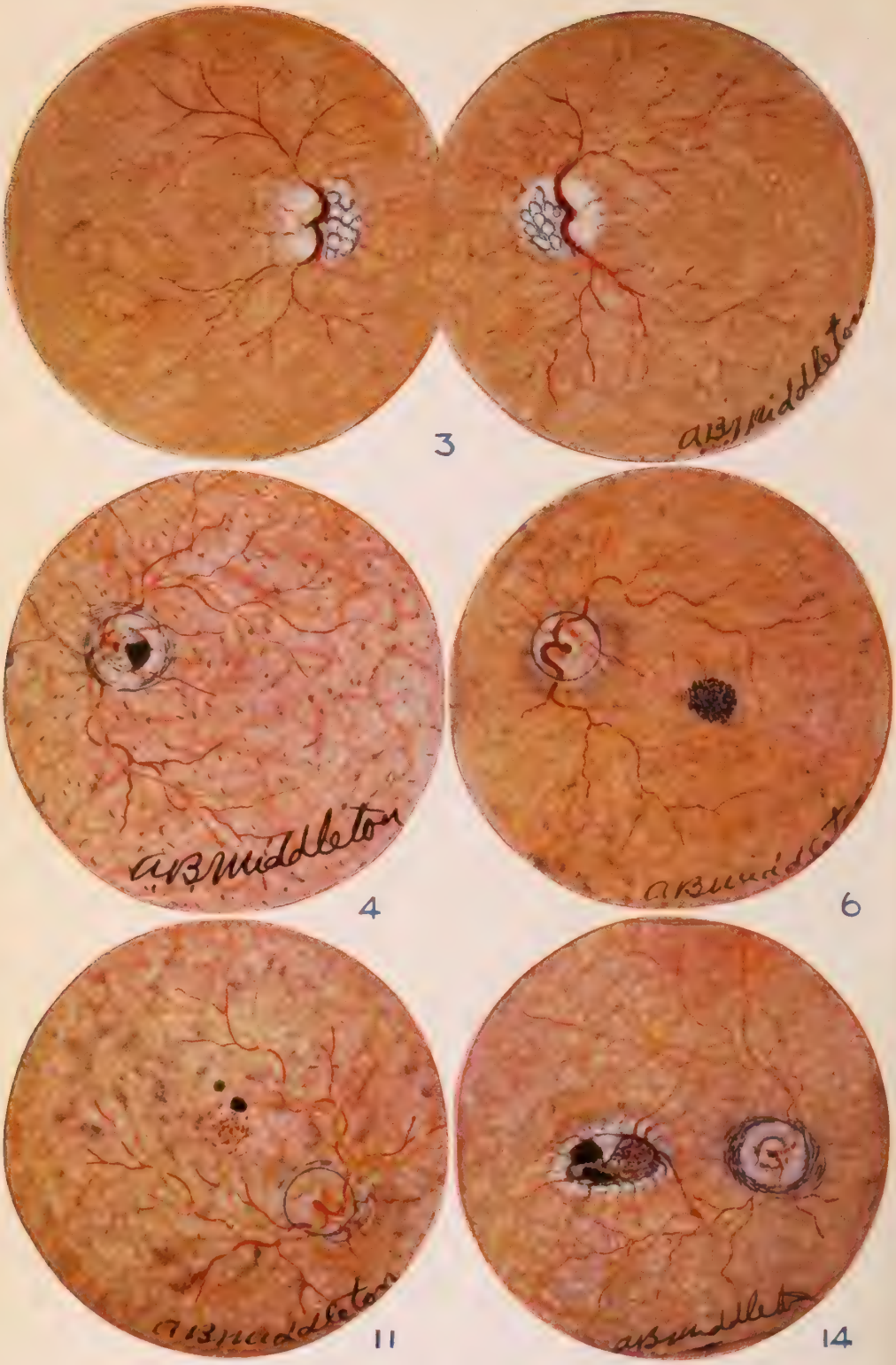
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CONGENITAL EYE CONDITIONS (MIDDLETON)

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CONGENITAL EYE CONDITIONS AFFECTING VISION OUT OF TWO HUNDRED THOUSAND TROOPS EXAMINED AT CAMP TRAVIS, TEXAS.

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PONTIAC, ILLINOIS.

This abstract from the official report describes the conditions observed, with colored plate of the most unusual, and half-tone reproduction of sketches of some of the others. Authority to publish granted by the Board of Publication, S. G. O.

More than two hundred thousand troops were examined at Camp Travis, Texas, before the armistice was signed. Out of the eye cases referred to the Special Medical Examining Board, twenty-eighth had a congenital condition of the fundus or bulb causing a reduction of vision.

The cases were carefully sketched and the congenital defect painted in duplicate shades as per the water color drawing accompanying each history and description. The small number of congenital conditions affecting the bulb and fundus sufficient to reduce vision, taken from a large number of young men in the prime of life must not be misleading and give the impression that congenital eye changes are rarely met in civil life.

No doubt there were many afflicted with congenital eye conditions in this group of troops, who had sufficient vision to pass the regular examining board. The Local and District Boards prevented many from entering the army with insufficient vision, a certain percentage of whom had a congenital defect. These two facts explain the small percentage of cases found.

Time and space will not permit the discussion of each case separately, but the history and description gives all the details. It is strange to note, we found few duplicates.

An interesting thing in the history of congenital eye conditions that affect vision, is the fact that few of those thus afflicted have their eyes examined to determine the cause of poor vision. In this series of twenty-eight cases only one had consulted a doctor with regard to his eyes. Never having had normal vision, they do not realize the handicap from which they are suffering.

CASE 1. MULTIPLE SCLERAL ECTASIA. Private T. J. R., June 28, 1918. Denies specific history. Right eye has not given trouble other than the dimness of vision; did not have eyes examined by a doctor before entering the army; no history of receiving a hard blow over the right eye.

Examination. Age 22 years; white; vision O. D. 10/200; O. S. 20/20; no squint; tension normal; right cornea clear and free from scars; anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear; iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Lens clear: Vitreous clear and not fluid. Macula normal. Temporal side of the field dark. At the disc is a large circular coloboma of the choroid, the diameter of which is equal to twice the diameter of a normal disc. Directly below the coloboma of the disc, separated by an isthmus of normal choroid, retina and sclera, four millimeters wide, is a second circular coloboma of the choroid, two-thirds the diameter

of the one at the disc. The inferior retinal arteries and veins are displaced, passing directly downward from the disc, over both colobomas of the choroid. There is a band of exposed sclera four millimeters wide, within the circumference of each choroidal coloboma, with a sharply pigmented inner margin. The pigmented line is on the outer margin of the congenital hole in the sclera. The depth of each scleral ectasia or pocket is three diopters. On the floor of the scleral ectasia the retinal and cilio-retinal vessels pass over a smooth surface, bending forward over the margin of the scleral hole, continuing on a second, level surface of sclera, exposed by the choroidal coloboma. At the margin the retinal vessels bend forward to the normal level of the retina. The retinal vessels are on the bottom of each hole proving that the retina is intact even tho the choroid is absent. The larger vessels pass into and directly across each hole. The isthmus of retina and choroid between the two holes is normal, having a width of three millimeters. The chorio-retinal vessels are present on the nasal side of the disc but are absent on the temporal side. No choroiditis or choroidal ruptures. Considerable deposit of pigment in the choroidal coloboma area, but an absence of pigment in the bottom of the scleral coloboma or ectasia. The scleral coloboma in both places is larger at the bottom than the top, the vessels disappear before they pass out of the scleral pocket over the choroidal coloboma margin, the same as in an advanced case of glaucoma. The vessels in the upper half of the fundus are normal in size and position. See Fig. 1.

Case 2. Opaque Nerve Fibers. Private C. S., May 1918. Left eye has never given trouble other than reduced vision. Had not had the eye examined by a doctor, before entering the army. Denies specific history. No history of poor vision in the family. Parents not related.

Examination. Tension normal. No squint. Vision O. D. 20/20; O. S. 20/200; right fundus normal. Left cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Lens clear and normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Macular area normal. Disc normal in size and color except the upper half. Extending upward from the center of the disc is a fan-shaped splash of opaque nerve fibers one disc diameter in width over the retina. The opaque fibers cover the retinal vessels almost entirely, but do not follow their course. No choroiditis or rupture of choroid. Field of vision normal. No congenital pigment deposit.

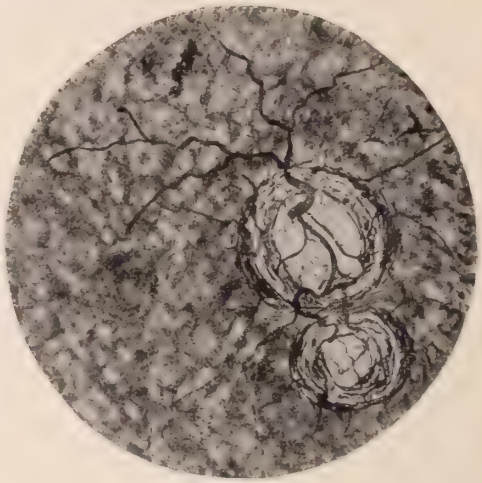


Fig. 1. Multiple Scleral Ectasia.

Case 3. Opaque Tissue on Optic Disc. Private S. H. E., April 5, 1918. Claims to have had syphilis early in life, but no symptoms or indications that the disease ever existed. Discharged from the army December 6th, 1917 (2nd draft) for beginning optic atrophy. During first induction this soldier malingered with regard to his eyes, pains in the body and several ailments, which he claimed were the result of syphilis early in life. After being in the hospital and held under observation for several weeks, was returned to his company. Discharge from the army for beginning optic atrophy, returned home, the local board reinducting him with the seventh increment. The same tactics were followed

in order to avoid the army on the second induction, stimulated with a recent discharge from the army due to optic atrophy. The supposed optic atrophy on a careful examination proved to be a duplicate congenital condition of each disc. The eyes never gave trouble in civil life.

Examination. Tension normal, vision O. D., 20/30; O. S. 20/20. Fields normal; each cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chambers deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupils equal and normal in size, reacting normally to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal; vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. No choroiditis. Lens clear. No change at the macular region. Discs normal in size but bulging resembling a pseudopapillitis. The nasal half of each disc shows ten or twelve elevated circular areas two millimeters each in diameter, giving the appearance of a white blackberry, these nodules do not extend farther than the margin of the superior and inferior retinal vessels as they pass over the disc, the temporal half of each disc being smooth, but bulging. The discs give a very white appearance, the nasal half with its opaque tissue confined to the disc, resembling in color an advanced case of optic atrophy. No pigment in or near the disc. The white elevated areas are confined to the disc and do not show the usual signs found in cases of exudative deposits. Fields normal. See plate VIII.

Case 4. Congenital Pigment in Physiologic Cup. Private C. M., July 5, 1918. Poor vision in left eye all of life. The eye has not given one moment's trouble other than reduction in vision. Has not had the eye examined by a doctor before entering the army. All members of family have good eyes. No specific history.

Examination. White; single; tension normal. No squint. Vision, O. D. 20/20; O. S. 10/200. Cornea of left eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Pupil slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Normal field of vision. Lens clear. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. No choroiditis or choroidal rupture. Disc normal in size and color. On the temporal side of the physiologic cup in the left disc is a densely pigmented triangular area. Each side of the triangle equals one-third the disc diameter in length. The pigmented area does not extend beyond the margin of the physiologic cup, but stops abruptly at its temporal margin. The densely pigmented area extends to the bottom of the physiologic cup. One apex of the pigmented triangle ends at the bottom of the cup, at the point where the central vessels enter the nerve trunk. The pigmented area is not elevated or nodular, but smooth and flat. No vascular disturbance near the pigmented area. No signs of a growth, like a melanotic condition might present. Cilioretinal vessels pass thru the pigmented area, which is nothing more than a congenital pigment deposit on the temporal side of the physiologic cup. See Plate VIII.

Case 5. Congenital Varicose Vessels. Private J. W., June 1918. Left eye has been weak all his life, but has not given trouble other than dimness of vision. Never had the eye examined by a doctor before entering the army. All members of family have good eyes. Specific history denied. No history of trauma.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Vision O. D. 20/25; O. S. 20/200. Field of vision normal. Cornea of the left eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Pupil normal, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Disc normal in size and color, as far as can be determined, there being a congenital varicosity of the retinal vessels in front of the disc. No evidence of arteriosclerosis. At the points where retinal artery and veins leave the disc, they are very tortuous, folding across the disc three times, extending forward

into the vitreous. The disc is not bulged. The veins are not compressed by the arteries. The vessels otherwise normal, continue in a normal position after leaving the margin of the disc. The varicosity is confined to the area in front of the disc. See Fig. 2.

Case 6. Congenital Pigmentation Left Macular Region. Private C. M. W., May 24, 1918. Age 23; occupation, farmer; single, white; left eye weak all of life; never had it treated or examined by a doctor; the eye has not given one moment's trouble other than

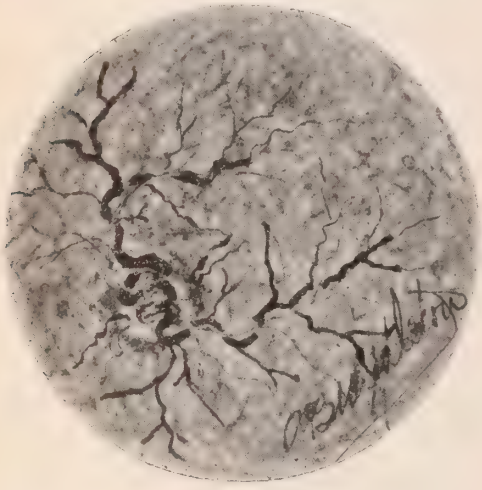


Fig. 2. Congenital varicose vessels of left disc.

dimness of vision. Denies specific history. No blindness or poor eyes in family. No history of a blow to the eye.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Vision O. D. 20/30; O. S. 3/200. Left cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep; aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Disc normal in size and shape. At the macular region there is a densely pigmented circular area three-fourths the disc diameter in width. The surface of the area is smooth, but mottled with very small whitish streaks one half millimeter each in width. The white streaks are not exudative but simply unpigmented retina showing between the heavily pigmented portion. Branches of the retinal vessels extending to the margin of the pigmented area, pass over the pigment. Large central scotoma. Pupil reacts to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence normal. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. No pigment deposits other than the area at the macula. See Plate VIII.

Case 7. Binocular Macular Hole in the Retina, Congenital Private L. A., (Col.) May 9th, 1918. Denies specific history. No mental symptoms present. No history of mental disease in the family. No history of having had a severe blow to the eyes or over the head. Weak eyes all of life, never had them fitted with glasses or examined by a doctor. One eye has always been as good as the other, neither one having given the slightest pain or discomfort other than the dullness in vision.

Examination. Tension normal. Vision O. D. 20/70. O. S. 20/200. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupils equal in size but slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Disc normal in size and color. Vessels normal. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. At the macular region of each retina is a slightly depressed symmetric circular area, the diameter of which is one third the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the hole is a dark mahogany red, color more or less mottled with a slight pigment deposit. The margin of the retinal hole is slightly pigmented giving the appearance of a faint halo. Small central scotoma in each eye. No white exudative specks which are usually present in cases of traumatic retinal hole, the result of hemorrhage at the time of accident.

Case 8. Congenital Opaque Tissue on Disc. Private A. P. E., May 2, 1918. Right eye has been weak all his life, but has not given one moment's trouble other than the dimness of vision. No specific history, or history of poor

vision in other members of family. No severe blow to the eye.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Fields not taken. Vision O. D. 6/200; O. S. 20/20. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. No choroiditis or choroidal rupture. Macular region normal. Disc normal in size and color, but on the nasal side of the disc between the forks of the retinal vein as it passes over the disc is a white circular spot, slightly elevated, two millimeters (apparent size of image) in diameter. No deposit of pigment or signs present to indicate that this might be an exudate.. The elevated area is due to opaque white tissue confined to the disc, this case being one of those that represents a white blackberry appearance of the disc when the elevations are multiple. Left disc normal. Vascular system is not disturbed at the site of the white spot. Disc not bulging in appearance, which is the case where the spots are multiple. No opaque nerve fibers in the fundus.

Case 9. Binocular Pigmentation of Fovea Centralis. Private R. R. (Col.) May 15, 1918. Farmer; single; aged 24 years; had weak eyes all his life, one eye not much better than the other. Never went to school or had eyes examined by a doctor before entering army. Denies specific history. No trauma.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal; vision O. D. 20/200; O. S. 20/200. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep and aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupils slightly dilated but equal in size reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Lens normal. Vessels normal but the fundus is not as deeply pigmented as is the rule with colored people. Field shows a large symmetric central scotoma in each eye. In the macular region in each eye, directly at the fovea centralis is a densely deposited pigmented spot, circular, one millimeter in diameter (apparent size on fundus image) surrounded with light halo one millimeter in width. Disc normal in size and color.

Case 10. Bands Extending Across Physiologic Cup. Private B. F. B. July 1, 1918. Right eye has been weaker than the left all his life, but has never given one moment's trouble, and has not been examined by a doctor before entering the army. Denies specific history; no history of trauma.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Vision O. D. 1/200; O. S. 20/20. Right cornea clear and free from

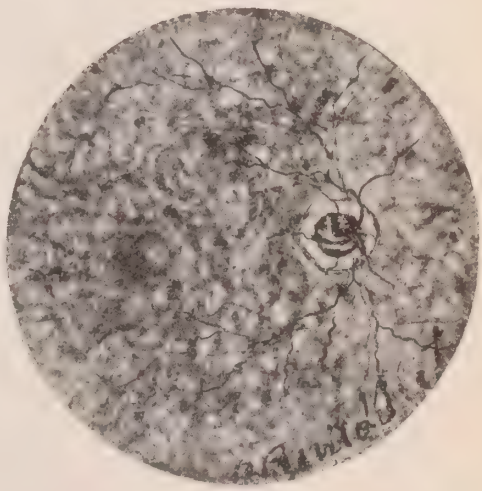


Fig. 3. Bands extending across physiologic cup.

scars. Anterior chamber deep and aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesion and deposit of pigment. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal in size and location. Macular region normal with a bright foveal reflex. Disc normal in size and color with a large deep physiologic cup. Horizontally across the cup are two suturelike bands resembling silk worm gut. The upper band is bifurcated at the temporal end, the bifurcation extending upward to the side of the cup. These bands are given off below the exit of the central retinal vessels and are on a level with the disc. The normal lamina cribosa fibers can be seen plainly in the bottom of the physiologic cup. Field of vision not

taken. Left eye normal. See Fig. 3.

Case 11. Fold in the Retina. Private M. P. (Mex.), June 26, 1918. Denies specific history; has not had a blow to eye. Right eye has been weaker than the left all his life, but never had it examined or treated by a doctor. The eye has not given the slightest trouble other than reduced vision.

Examination. No squint; tension normal; cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal in shape and position. Disc normal in size and color. At the macular region there is a circular area of granular choroiditis of a dark red color one half the disc diameter in width. In the granular area are many small pigment specks one millimeter each in diameter giving a mottled appearance. Above the center of the macula are two densely pigmented circular spots two millimeters (apparent size) each in diameter, on the same level horizontally, three millimeters apart with no evidence of exudate. On the nasal side of the disc is a distinct fold in the retina, two millimeters (apparent) from the margin of the disc and two millimeters wide extending vertically toward and parallel with the nasal margin of the disc. The fold is a light gray color, free from pigment deposit along its margins, which is present in most cases of choroidal rupture. The retinal vessels leaving the nasal side of the disc pass over the retinal fold at right angles bending forward as they pass across the folded retina. No rupture of the choroid. No deposit of pigment or signs of hemorrhage at the site of the fold. Field of vision not taken. See Plate VIII.

Case 12. Dermoid Cyst of the Limbus. Private R. H. July 5, 1918. No tuberculosis in family. No history of trauma. Since childhood has noticed a round pinkish growth on the left eye, never painful or inflamed. Eye has not given one moment's trouble other than reduction of vision. No members of the family afflicted in this way. All have good eyes. No specific history.

Examination. Vision O. D. 20/40; O. S. 20/20. Tension normal; no squint; left cornea exposed, clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Pupil semidilated and kidney shaped, reacting to light and accommodation, but slow in convergence. Iris blue, free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Disc normal in shape and color. Vessels normal. Macular region normal. On the nasal side of the cornea about "3:30 o'clock," on the limbus and slightly beyond the

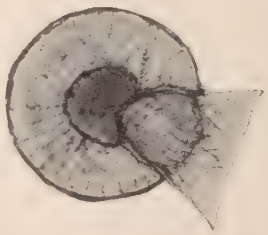


Fig. 4. Dermoid cyst of limbus (congenital).

pupillary margin is a circular, soft, movable tumor, one-fourth inch in diameter, of a pinkish gray color. The tumor is soft, giving the sensation under touch of hairs or varicose veins within the mass. No hairs growing from the surface. A band at the scleral margin of the tumor extends toward the outer canthus resembling a wide, thin pterygium. Many small vessels in the mucosa covering the tumor. Around the tumor in the cornea is a light colored halo. The tumor is freely movable but has a broad base and is six millimeters in thickness, which prevents the lids closing on the temporal side. Field not taken. See Fig. 4.

Case 13. Complete Pupillary Membrane. Private, J. R. M. May, 1918. No specific history. No eye trouble other than the slight dimness of vision in right eye. No tuberculosis in family. No history of trauma. All members of family have good eyes. Has not had eyes examined by a doctor before entering army.

Examination. Vision O. D. 20/20; O. S. 20/30. Tension normal. No squint.

Brown eyes. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Pupil normal size. Iris free from adhesions or deposits of pigment, but there is a thin congenital filmlike membrane, covering the whole right pupil area, attached to the iris equally around the whole margin of the pupil. The membrane is nearly transparent. Examination with the loupe is required, which shows a vertical slit extending from one side of the pupil to the other resembling a cat's eye. The slit is two mm. wide at the center, gradually coming together at each end near the margin of the pupil. Atropin dilated the pupil slightly in the horizontal direction, but not vertically. The opening in the pupillary membrane separated equal to twice its original width under a mydriatic. The distant vision is reduced under atropin to O. D. 20/200. The left pupil is free from membrane or pupillary bands. No signs of inflammation or choroiditis in either eye.

Case 14. Ectasia of Sclera. Private J. L., (Col.), July 18, 1918. Specific history two years; has been blind in the right eye all his life, but it has never given the slightest trouble except the dimness of vision. The eye has never been hit a hard blow; or been red and inflamed. An external strabismus of twenty degrees present that has existed since childhood.

Examination. Vision O. D. 1/200; O. S. 20/20. Tension normal. External squint 20 degrees. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from pigment deposit and adhesions. Pupil dilated, reacting slightly to light, but not to accommodation. No power of convergence. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Disc normal in shape and color. Vessels normal. Field not taken, power of vision too low. Below the macular area in the right eye is an elliptical shaped depression in the sclera three diopters deep. The hole is one and one-half disc diameter in length, and three-fourths of one disc diameter in width. The axis of the ellipse is up and in, toward the disc, at about the angle of eight o'clock. The retina dips down into and covers the bottom of the scleral opening, which is larger at the bottom than at the opening through the choroid. The retinal vessels pass down over the edge of the sclera into the scleral ectasia, disappearing the same as in the case of a glaucoma cup, appearing again, crossing the bottom of the hole making the same turns in their exit. Many small retinal vessels pass down over the margin of the hole, which is not sharp cut but rounded. There is no choroid in the depression, the choroid is very thin over the margin of the hole. The retina is considerably pigmented over the floor of the hole, but is not pigmented over the balance of the fundus. The temporal end of the hole contains a deposit of exudate and two deeply pigmented spots resembling apple seeds. Over them, extending from above, is a fanlike exudate covered with blood vessels. The handle end of the fan extends down into the hole, between the two apple-seed-like pigment deposits, attaching itself to the floor. The exudate and pigment deposit in the temporal end of the hole is the result of a specific choroiditis that has taken place in the congenital opening in the sclera. See Plate VIII.

Case 15. Dermoid Cyst Limbus of Cornea. Private B. S. Dec. 7, 1918. Age 25 years; farmer; single; has had a small pink lump on the right eyeball all of his life. Never has given the slightest trouble. The sight is as good in one eye as is the other. No history of injury to the eye. Each member of his family has good eyes, and no growths upon them.

Examination. Vision O. D. 20/20; O. S. 20/20. Tension normal. No squint. Brown eyes. Exposed portion of right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Pupil kidney shaped, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit; lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Macular region normal. Disc normal in size and color. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid.

Field of vision not taken. At about "7 o'clock" on the limbus of the cornea is a light pinkish circular growth, three-sixteenths of one inch in diameter resting upon the cornea. Around this growth is a white halo resembling an advanced arcus senilis. The margin of the pupil appears to be displaced inward opposite the growth. The tumor is soft, no hairs growing from its surface. The broad base gives the appearance of being deeply attached to the cornea. The mucosa or conjunctiva over the growth is filled with many small vessels. Extending from the outer margin to the bulbar conjunctiva the growth spreads out into a wide band, like a thin pterygium. The eyelids close perfectly. No signs of a growth

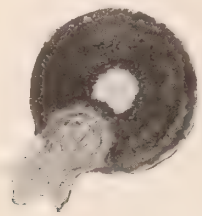


Fig. 5. Dermoid cyst limbus of right cornea.

on the left eyeball. Not painful and never inflamed. See Fig. 5.

Case 16. Fuchs' Coloboma. Private B. E. S. May 3, 1918. Has never been able to see as well with the right eye as the left. The eye has never given a moment's trouble and never had it examined by a doctor. Never had a severe blow to the right or any kind of inflammation.

Examination. Tension normal. No squint. Vision O. D. 20/200; O. S. 20/50. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupil normal in size, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Lens normal. Vessels normal. Macular region normal. Disc normal in color and shape, but directly below the disc is a crescentic coloboma of the choroid, slight yellow color and slightly depressed. The inferior retinal vessels pass over it, making a slight dip in their transit. No pigment deposit. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid.

Case 17. Pigmented Scleral Nevus. Private C. T., July, 1918. Mexican; age 30 years; farmer; married; does not speak English. Interpreter states that soldier claims the black spot on the white of his right eye has been there all of his life, but is not painful and never has been inflamed or sore. No history of injury or severe blow to the eye. The eye has always been blind, never consulted a doctor with regard to the eye. General health good, works hard every day, has not lost any weight. No member of the family afflicted in this manner. No specific history. No tuberculosis in the family.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesions and deposits of pigment. Brown eye. Pupil normal in size, reacting slowly to light but not to accommodation. Power of convergence sluggish. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels and disc normal in size and color. No choroiditis, or rupture of the choroid. Fundus dark and deeply pigmented, a condition that is often present in normal Mexican eyes. Left eye normal. Between lids of the right eye opposite the outer half of the palpebral fissure, on the surface of the sclera is a triangular pigmented area. The base of the triangle is at the limbus of the cornea, the apex extending to the temporal end of the palpebral fissure. The base of the triangle is three-eighths of one inch wide, one-half inch in length. The pigmented area is a dark brown color and not elevated or nodular. No disturbance of the vascular system over or near this area. The bulbar mucosa is elastic and not adherent over the nevus. The deposit is confined to the surface of the outer layers of the sclera. The base of the triangle extends beyond the limbus into the corneal tissue two millimeters. The choroid and retina opposite the pigmented area are normal. The pupils dilated equally with atropin.

Case 18. Retinitis Pigmentosa. Private H. B. F. History. "Have had good eyes all my life but cannot see as well after dark as other people, in fact can't get around without feeling my way with a stick. Several in family have weak eyes, but I don't know what is wrong with their eyes. I am the only one that cannot see after dark. Have had my eyes examined by eye doctors and told that I have night blindness. Father and mother not related; no intermarriage among ancestors." No specific or tubercular history.

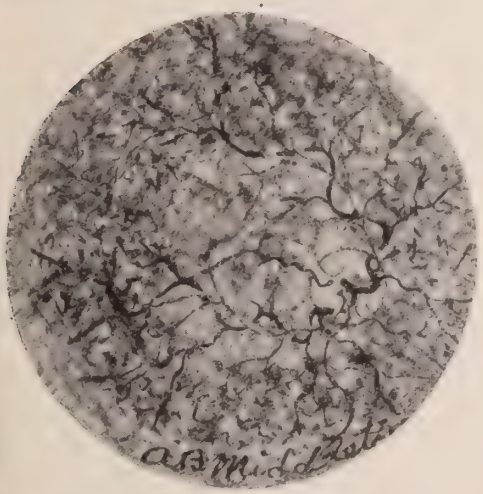


Fig. 6. Retinitis pigmentosa.

Examination. Age 22 years; single; farmer; vision O. D. 20/15; O. S. 20/20. No squint; tension normal; cornea of each eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Lens normal. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels and discs normal in shape and color. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. Pupils normal, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence perfect. Field of vision shows the usual typical field found in cases of retinitis pigmentosa. On the surface of the choroid is a pigmented band completely surrounding the fundus, the extreme outer margin of the fundus being clear and free from pigment deposit. The pigment deposit is spindle shaped, several spindles in a cluster located in the anterior layers of the retina, the retinal vessels passing under the pigment deposits. Fig. 6.

Case 19. Coloboma of the Lens. Private J. K. S. Has had weak eyes all his life; age 25 years; carpenter; married; eyes have never given the slightest trouble other than the reduced vision. Father living; good sight. Mother 58 years old, had a painful trouble with eyes for many years. The last seven years has been obliged to feel her way about the room. Three brothers all have good sight; one sister, age 35 years, has weak eyes; one sister died of appendicitis at the age of 16 years, had weak eyes; one sister has two children, one girl good eyes, one boy E. H., 11 years old, in the blind school, Austin, Texas. Mother's brothers and sisters have good eyesight.

Examination. No squint; tension normal. Vision O. D. 20/50; O. S. 20/20. Both corneas clear and free from scars. Anterior chambers deep. Aqueous clear. Pupils normal in size, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits, but tremulous, the right much more than the left. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Disc normal in size and color. No choroiditis. No coloboma or rupture of the choroid. No coloboma of the ciliary body, iris, or retina. Right lens shows two coloboma notches on its lower margin. The larger notch at the position of "four o'clock," is a perfect semicircle, the apex extending four millimeters toward the center of the lens the base of the semicircle six millimeters broad. A second coloboma notch at the position of "six o'clock," also a semicircle, but smaller, extending three millimeters toward the center of the lens with a base of four millimeters. The colobomas are separated by a strip of clear lens two millimeters in width. The left lens has two incomplete colobomas which are nothing more than slight depressions in the lower margin of the lens. Lenses do not im-

prove vision. Field of vision not taken.

Case 20. Fuchs' Coloboma Binocular. Private B. E. S., May 3, 1918. Eyes have been weak all life, the right weaker than the left. Soldier, illiterate, never had eyes examined by a doctor before entering the Army. No specific history or history of tuberculosis. Eyes never pain or become inflamed. No weak eyes in family. Suffers considerably with headaches, the main reason for not attending school, which increased the severity of the attacks.

Examination. Farmer; 23 years old, single; no squint. Tension normal. Cornea of each eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep; aqueous clear. Pupils normal in size, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal in size and color. Each fundus has a coloboma of the choroid four millimeters (apparent) in width directly below, and connecting with the disc. Field of vision not taken. Retinoscopy under a mydriatic: Horizontal —3, vertical 0, in each eye. Corrected with +3 cylinder axis 90 gives 20/40 vision in each eye.

Case 21. Monocular Guttate Choroiditis. Private L. A. L., April 30, 1918.

Has not seen well out of left eye, and it has been crossed all his life. The eye has not given one moment's trouble other than poor vision. All the members of family have good eyes; the patient only one that is cross eyed. No history of severe blow to the eye.

Examination. Left internal strabismus 25 degrees. Tension normal. Farmer. No specific or tubercular history. Age 22 years; vision O. D. 20/20; O. S. 1/200. Retinoscopy right horizontal +3, vertical +3. Left horizontal +2, vertical +2. Left cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Pupil dilated slightly, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Vessels normal. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. Disc normal in size and color. At the macular region is a circular cluster of guttate choroiditis dots, seven in number, "two millimeters" each (apparent), in diameter, of a yellowish gray color, arranged in a wheel shape, the diameter of which is ten millimeters; one dot acts as the hub and is directly over the fovea centralis. The right fundus is free from guttate choroiditis. Field of vision shows a large central scotoma. Cannot rotate eye outward beyond the central line. See Fig. 7.

Case 22. Binocular Guttate Choroiditis. Private J. A. R., May 1, 1918.

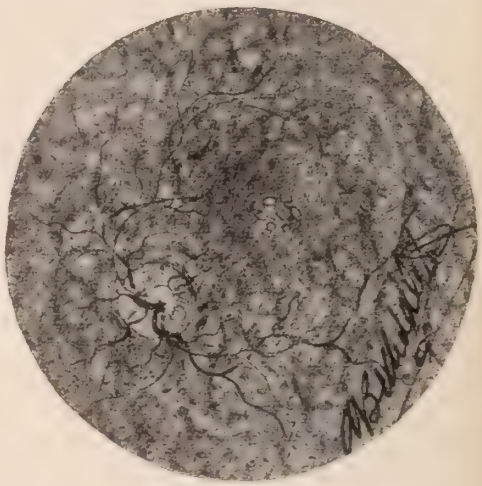


Fig. 7. - Monocular Guttate Choroiditis.

No specific or tubercular history. Vision has been poor in both eyes all his life; but never had them examined or fitted with glasses. Eyes have not given one moment's trouble other than dimness of vision. Several members of the family have weak eyes, the cause not known.

Examination. Farmer; age 24 years; vision O. D. 5/200; O. S. 20/20. No squint. Tension normal. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep and aqueous clear. Pupils larger than normal but equal, responding to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Discs normal in size and shape but both have a dirty gray color. At the

macular region is a cluster of grayish white choroiditic dots free from pigment deposit. The dots are two millimeters each in diameter, the cluster is circular and made up of fourteen. This area is equal in size to the disc. The center of the circle is over the fovea centralis. The fundus of each eye is a near duplicate. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis other than the dots at the macula. Central scotoma each field of vision.

Case 23. Guttate Choroiditis Bilateral. Private C. W. H., April 29, 1918. No specific or tubercular history in family. Never received a severe blow to either eye. Vision has been poor in the right eye all his life, but never consulted a doctor with regard to eyes. Many in the family have weak eyes, but the cause is unknown.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Vision O. D. 15/200; O. S. 20/25. Retinoscopy, right horizontal +4. Vertical +4. Left +1. Horizontal +1. Farmer; 23 years old; single. Guttate dots found in each fundus which are near duplicates. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Pupils normal and equal, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence slow. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Discs normal in size and color. Vessels normal. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis except the circular cluster of guttate dots at the macular region of each fundus. The center of the circle is directly over the fovea centralis; this circle is made up of eleven grayish yellow dots "two millimeters" each in diameter, not pigmented and covering an area equal in size to the surface of the disc. The dots are smooth, located in the choroid. Field of vision not taken.

Case 24. Guttate Choroiditis Bilateral. Private W. R. B., May 3, 1918. No specific or tubercular history in the family. No history of severe trauma. All members of family have good eyes. Vision poor in left eye all his life. The eye has not given trouble other than the reduced vision. Has not had the eye examined by a doctor before entering the service.

Examination. No squint or increased tension. Cornea of each eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chambers deep and aqueous clear. Left pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence reduced. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Discs normal in shape and color. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis except a circular area of guttate choroiditis in the macular region. The area of guttate dots is covered with about twenty-five smooth yellowish gray dots, "two millimeters" each in diameter, nonpigmented. The center of this area is directly over the fovea centralis and covers a space about the size of the disc. Field of vision not taken. Fundus picture the same in each eye.

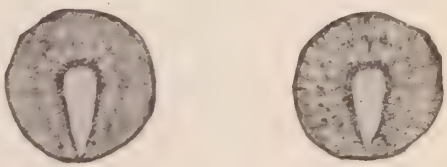


Fig. 8. Binocular coloboma of iris.

Case 25. Binocular Coloboma of Iris. Private J. G., May, 1918. Mother claims that he had "cat's eyes" all his life, due to a scare that she had just before his birth. None in the family have anything of this kind. Parents were not of the same family. Eyes have not given any trouble except poor vision and people stare at them all the time. No history of trauma.

Examination. No squint. No specific or tubercular history. Tension normal. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber shallow. Aqueous clear. Pupil of each eye keyhole in shape with the slot downward, the bottom of the sides coming together at the limbus. Iris blue, free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupil reacts slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence normal. Vision O. D. 20/40; O. S. 20/40. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels and discs normal in size, shape and color. No

coloboma of the choroid, ciliary body, retina or lens. Pupil dilates slightly in all directions with homatropin. Fields of vision not taken. See Fig. 8.

Case 26. Monocular Microphthalmia. Private J. T. (Mex.), August, 1918. Right eye has always been blind and much smaller than the left. Vision in left eye 20/20; right eye has not given any trouble other than the blindness and appearance. Never had any inflammation or a severe blow to the right eye.

Examination. Mexican. Does not speak English; information gained through an interpreter. Right eyeball one-third smaller than the left. Cornea five millimeters in diameter, but clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber shallow, filled with clear aqueous. Iris very narrow, not responding to light. Homatropin produced slight dilatation. Lens clear. Not able to determine fundus condition. Vitreous not clear enough to see the disk or fundus. All motor muscles normal. No squint. No tension. No specific or tubercular history. None of the family troubled in

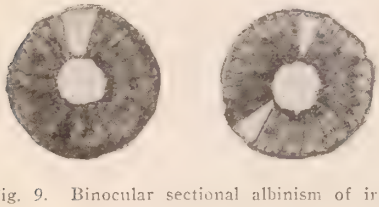


Fig. 9. Binocular sectional albinism of iris.

this manner. Parents not relatives. Farmer, 26 years old; married; children normal eyes.

Case 27. Binocular Sectional Albinism of Iris. Private E. J. (Col.), May, 1918. No specific history. Had white sections in the brown part of eyes all his life. Eyes never painful or become inflamed. Has not had them examined by a doctor. None in the family afflicted this way. No albinos in the family. Cannot stand light without squinting the eyes. Vision always poor in the left eye. No history of injury or tuberculosis.

Examination. Farmer; single; age 23 years; vision O. D. 20/20; O. S. 20/200. Tension normal. No squint. Cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chambers deep and aqueous clear. Lens normal. Pupils normal and equal, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence sluggish. Iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. In the iris of the right eye, which is a dark brown, is a white transparent sector six millimeters wide including the entire width of the iris at the angle of "eleven forty-five o'clock." Through the transparent sector it is possible to see the fundus and the outline of the lens with slight difficulty. With the exception of the one nonpigmented sector the remainder of the iris is one shade, and normal in color. The left iris has two nonpigmented sectors, three millimeters each in width, extending thru the entire width of the iris. One of the sectors in the left iris is at "two o'clock" and the other at "six," they are white and transparent, the same as the sector in the right eye. The pupils dilate easily and equally under atropin. The refraction is normal in each eye. Soldier squints with eyes all the time to avoid the light. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal in shape and color. Disc normal. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. No coloboma of the choroid, ciliary body, iris, or lens. Fields of vision not taken. See Fig. 9.

CLINICAL OBSERVATIONS IN THE OPHTHALMIC SERVICE AT CAMP SEVIER, S. C.

MAJOR WARREN E. KERSHNER, M. C.

BATH, MAINE.

This account of the ocular conditions encountered in such a service is published under authority to publish granted by the Board of Publication, S. G. O.

The class of cases seen in the ophthalmic service of an army base hospital is somewhat different from the cases observed in civil eye clinics. The range of cases is more limited for two reasons: first, the ages of the patients are nearly alike, or have been during the period covered by this study, second, similar or nearly similar environment of the men narrows the field of possible ocular conditions.

From January 1, 1918, to November 1, 1918, the new cases admitted to the clinic for treatment have numbered 1953 or just under two hundred new cases per month. This does not include the many visits for routine vision testing, a part of physical examinations, nor does it include the officers, their families, nor members of the Army Nurse Corps, the records of whom are kept in a separate class for reasons of age, sex, living conditions, etc.

It may be of interest to speak of the refractive work. It indicates the number of young men who go without proper refractive work or who are not constant in wearing their correction. Many such were found, numbering very nearly fifty per cent of those applying for correction of refractive errors. The histories of these patients also demonstrate that excessive near work may not be the chief factor in sending the young hyperope to the ophthalmic surgeon. By far the majority of these cases came complaining of the effect of the wind and especially the sunlight upon the eyes. A proper refraction relieved the symptoms complained of. A study of the refractive work of all the camps will give us the refractive index of the young male American as a class. We did at Camp Sevier 839 refractions of all kinds. About fifty per cent of these had been refracted previously and slightly over ten per cent were still wearing their corrections. All refractive work was done under atropin or homatropin. Retinoscopic and ophthalmoscopic refractions were estimated in all cases and thoro going trial case work was done. The results were as follows:

14% accepted plus spheres
03% accepted minus spheres
10% accepted plus cylinders
03% accepted minus cylinders
53% accepted plus spheres and plus cylinders
06% accepted minus spheres and minus cylinders
11% accepted plus spheres and minus cylinders or minus spheres and plus cylinders.

It should be noted as well that very nearly thirty per cent of the refractive errors showed also an anisometropia of 0.75 D. or over.

CONJUNCTIVITIS. There have been 741 cases of acute conjunctivitis treated at this clinic. These include nearly four hundred cases treated, which were classed as epidemic. But this socalled epidemic coexisted with one of mumps and measles.

In the whole series the pneumococcus was the offending organism in a large percentage of cases. On the whole the findings from a bacteriologic standpoint are not materially different from the series reported by the author in the July number of the American Journal of Ophthalmology, page 480, except a slightly higher pneumococcus percentage, a lower number in which no organism was found, and double the percentage of Koch-Weeks infections.

The conjunctival diseases include, besides some chronic cases, eight cases of self-imposed traumatic reaction and two marked cases of vernal catarrh. In

one of the latter the hyperplasia of the conjunctiva entirely encircled the cornea and presented a decided elevation with a width of two to three millimeters.

Phlyctenular conjunctivitis was seen seven times, with an additional case which invaded the cornea.

Trachoma. Sixteen cases of trachoma have passed through our hands. By permission of the commanding officer we were allowed to keep cases of this disease in the hospital under proper regulation in order to carry out treatment. The so-called Bacillus bulgaricus treatment was tried thoroly in seven cases of chronic or quiet trachoma and upon two cases of the active type. Of the acute cases, both were seen when there was marked congestion, injection, pain and discharge. Pannus was marked in both cases. The treatment increased every symptom to such an extent that this method of treatment had to be discontinued. The cases were then treated with copper stick until the active symptoms subsided and the pannus disappeared when a shift was made to the Bacillus bulgaricus. Again every symptom increased, requiring discontinuance once more. The tablets used were fresh, kept in a cool place and powdered daily. The plan of treatment in these, as well as in the chronic cases, was that described by Crawford, in his paper read before the Nashville Academy, May 16, 1916, entitled "Fourteen Cases of Trachoma or Granular Lids treated with Bacillus bulgaricus" and an article by the same author in the Annals of Ophthalmology of October, 1917, Vol. XXVI., No. 4, page 557. As implied, the treatment in acute cases was not satisfactory, quite the contrary, for the injection and edema increased, the discharge increased, the pain and discomfort were worse and the pannus enlarged under this medication. The treatment simply had to be abandoned after all the trial safety would allow. The seven chronic granular cases were under treatment from three to four months with the freshly powdered tablets. In no case did we see active excitation of the disease after or during treatment. The treatment was not unpleasant to the patients but that is as far as it goes. In no case was improvement seen either before or after manual expression of the granules. In two additional cases the diagnosis of which was doubtful at first, but which were held under observation, we found some slight temporary improvement during the quiet and restriction of the observation and treatment period. Upon return to the wind, smoke, sun and dust of their active army life these cases quickly relapsed. As a result of these few cases treated and studied it is safe to state that there is no field for this treatment in the army. The cases which showed any improvement in our hands have been small. The improvement is temporary. Even if the results were better the time required is too long to be of practical value in the army. The treatment is detrimental to acute cases. As a result of the experience at Camp Sevier, it is believed that the treatment has no influence upon the trachoma.

Conjunctival Conditions. One of the striking conditions constantly met with in great numbers in these young men was pinguecula and pterygium. That age is no barrier to these two conditions in the south and middle southwest was manifest at this clinic. It was seldom that these patients came to the hospital for the manifest condition. On the contrary they came for refractive errors.

Two patients were seen here who presented a rather rare condition, namely blood channels of the conjunctiva. One was a decided blond, the other just as positively a brunet. The history in both cases was unimportant especially in that there had been no history of injury, no foreign body nor other conjunctival change. These "vessels" have been present in one case for a year and in the other for a year and a half. With the channels were also present enlarged veins which were tortuous. Adrenalin was used to get the effect and to demonstrate whether or not there was active injection present. The drug contracted the vessels but not the channels. A section of the

conjunctiva was removed in both cases and submitted to the laboratory for examination and report. The reports were similar and to the effect that the specimen presented vessels with only endothelial cells as vessel walls together with apparently enlarged vessels of normal structure. The normal as well as the abnormal vessels both lay deep and superficial in the conjunctival tissue. In places the channels showed the lumen as flattened septa-like slits lined with the same endothelium cells between these and fibrous tissue. These cases were similar to the section exhibited by Lang at the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital on April 27, 1905, as reported in the American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology, Vol. IV, page 3073.

There has probably been less gonorrheal conjunctivitis in the army than one would expect. Our cases numbered five. Each was correctly diagnosed by the virulent symptoms. The laboratory confirmed the character of the infection by smear and culture in each instance. The treatment employed was as follows: continual cold packs, silver nitrate 2% once daily, flushing of the eye every twenty minutes night and day with boric acid, saturated solution, with argyrol used as a float every hour, protection of the unaffected eye, light diet, continual rest in bed and attention to the bowels. Under the above treatment all cases were germ-free in a week and ready for duty soon after. In no case did the infection reach the sound eye. No complications were present upon the first visit nor developed after treatment began.

Hordeolum and chalazion were common. Nothing of interest occurred in connection with the lid cases.

One case of long standing symblepharon came for treatment because of the irritation and discomfort produced by exposure to the wind and dust of the outdoor life. The adhesion was complete, of the lower lid, the external two-thirds. The attachment was at the corneo-scleral junction and directly outward to the outer canthus. Conjunctival flaps were brought down from above. The flaps healed in place readily, producing a very satisfactory result. The patient went to France with his organization free from symptoms.

Strabismus. There have been forty-one operations for strabismus to date. The majority came to the clinic for relief of the disfiguring effects. In some of these the opportunity to train the muscles after operation was short or did not exist.

The squint cases were classed as follows:

	Number
Strabismus convergens	(28)
Monocular	16
Alternating	12
Strabismus divergens	(11)
Monocular	3
Alternating	6
Secondary to tenotomy internal recti	2
Strabismus verticalis	(2)

All of the patients were between 19 and 25 years of age except one who was 31. The perimetric deviation was from 30 to 55 degrees. In all cases the onset was before the sixth year of life. Glasses had been, or were being worn by but three cases. The glasses and the refractive status were of little practical value as only one was affected or benefited more than 5 degrees by glasses. Eleven of the convergent squint cases had evidently a "working" fusion faculty, as binocular single vision developed after operation. Seven of the divergent type also resulted in binocular single vision. One of the divergent group was converted from a constant alternating squint to one of the occasional type. In three cases of the convergent type a second operation was required in order to secure a satisfactory cosmetic result. In the first class the operation consisted of one of the muscle shortening operations with graduated tenotomy of the opposing muscle in twenty-five of the twenty-eight cases. In the three remaining cases of this group a shortening only was done.

All the divergent cases were operated by complete tenotomy of the external recti muscles. The vertical cases were treated by a graded tenotomy of the superior rectus muscle of the affected

side. Of the two patients with a divergent squint secondary to a tenotomy of the internal recti, one was of four years standing, the second of twelve. The first one presented a left eye, proptosed, with a wide palpebral fissure and limited internal rotation. The capsule of Tenon was opened. The rectus was found and was brought forward to or in advance of its normal position and attached by scleral sutures. The capsule above and below the muscle was advanced as well. In the second case double complete tenotomy of both internal recti had been done, which had resulted in a wide divergence. The operation in this case consisted of opening the capsule on both sides, finding the atrophied muscles and bringing them into proper position and, by scleral suture, fixing them there as indicated in the previous case. Both cases after four months were as follows: from a cosmetic standpoint straight eyes. In the second case we find 4° of exotropia for distance and 11° for near. The binocular single vision in the first case is not constant but up to the present has improved slowly. The excursions are limited in inward duction in both cases. There would seem at this time to be a fair degree of permanency and, considering the length of time the old tenotomized muscles have been out of use, the results are satisfactory.

Lacrimal Disease. Five patients have been operated for obstruction of the lacrimal duct with chronic dacryocystitis. Both sides were operated in three of the cases. Two patients, one with single and one with double obstruction, were treated by the trichloracetic acid method of Gifford. Three treatments by this method were all that were needed to be convincing that the method was out of place in the army. The time from duty was long in each instance. While the end results were all that could be expected the resulting scar was as marked as by extirpation and the extra time for the wound to fill up with granulation tissue made this method less satisfactory. All other cases were operated by extirpation. The end results have been satisfactory and all cases but one have been ready for duty in from five days to one week. The writer can see no comparison between the methods used here.

Corneal Disease. It should not be passed without comment that there have been no cases of ulcus serpens or interstitial keratitis seen at this clinic. Considering that the clinic has been the place of treatment for well up to a hundred thousand young men of all classes, the above statement seems remarkable.

Several cases of dendriform and simple ulcers were treated but require no remarks.

A very interesting and unusual case of disciform keratitis was under treatment. The onset and course was typical and uneventful at first. It was not possible to find a clue to the cause except a positive history of syphilis of six years' standing, but the laboratory findings were negative to the Wassermann reaction. At the height of the clinical course there appeared, opposite the central area on the posterior surface of the cornea, a perfectly pearl-white nodule, fixed and very small. The general reaction in the eye was not marked and there were no evidences of iris or uveal involvement; the iris remaining clear and mobile up to this point. On the fifth day after the appearance of the nodule the central area bulged forward slightly. Pressure was applied but the next day the cornea perforated and the anterior chamber emptied. The eye now began to be somewhat painful. From the first visit of this patient fluorescein was used daily but no abrasion of the corneal epithelium was found. Following the perforation of the cornea a very small tortuous sinus thro the cornea stained. It required magnification to see this well. This sinus remained open for four days even under pressure. At this time and following the closure the general reaction and pain were greater, and a mild low-grade iritis or iridocyclitis developed which gradually resolved as the corneal condition began to take on the characteristics of the more usual form of the disease. The terminal condition is

now what is to be expected from disciform keratitis, namely a permanent opacity, faded, with the discs less distinct. All the indications as described by Fuchs were present, the added element being the nodule on the posterior corneal surface and the perforation.

Injuries. One of the most unique of accidents was a discission of the lens by a safety pin. A soldier, who worked in the shoe repair shops, pulled a pair of shoes from a line. The shoes were fastened together by a safety pin. The pull opened the pin and it hit the eye with enough force to cause the following injury. The point entered the left eye at about 2 o'clock and 3mm. inside the corneoscleral junction, proceeding down and in. The point first hit the lens capsule 2 mm. below the center of the lens, then the lid action in closing applied the force to the long arm of the lever which brought the point of the pin almost directly up, opening the anterior lens capsule for fully 3 mm. Swelling of the lens was prompt and so pronounced that it was followed by a rise in tension. Linear extraction was done. The eye at no time suffered more reaction than if a sterile instrument had entered the globe.

Another case of contusion of the globe was followed by a severe hemorrhage into the anterior chamber, with blocking of the filtration angle and an increase in tension. This was evacuated by opening the anterior chamber and was followed by a second collection of blood which had to be evacuated a second time. There was no injury to the posterior segment of the eye, there was no detachment or tearing of the iris tissue which could be discovered, and the lens was intact.

Miscellaneous. The close association and perfect *coördination between the different services* in a base hospital, especially the Head Section and X-Ray Laboratory, have made it possible to do thoro investigative work in the focal infection cases and place the ocular conditions where they belonged regarding their etiology. The operative work of the dental service deserves recognition for prompt and thoro-going abolition of dental defects which served as causes of ocular pathology. The nose and throat service has been thoro and active in eliminating sinus and nasopharyngeal foci. The cases of ocular disease traced to dental or nasopharyngeal foci of infection have been about evenly distributed between the reflex neuroses and active inflammatory processes. Sinus infections have produced the majority of the muscular and asthenopic symptoms while apical abscesses, tonsilar infection and active ethmoidal infection have caused the majority of the inflammatory changes in the ocular structure. In eleven cases of iritis or iridocyclitis abolition of abscessed tooth roots caused an immediate resolution in the eye symptoms. One case of active exudative choroiditis was traced to an extensive involvement of the ethmoid cells and frontal sinus. The cases of unstable muscle balance, asthenopia, blepharopasm and accommodative deficiency have been much harder to trace and place exactly. Service conditions demand that soldiers be returned to duty with as little loss of time as possible, therefore in these cases the different departments worked together and at the same time. Ocular equilibrium was established by nasal or throat treatment in seven cases after proper and thoro going refraction had failed to relieve the symptoms, and this without altering the refractive correction. The same is true in one case of tooth impaction. In no case did the operative work on the teeth or nose and throat cause an increase in the ocular symptoms.

A summary of the *syphilitic conditions* of the eyes is being made by Captain James M. Blackwood, M. C. The end results in these cases have not been so satisfactory as they might have been. The cases affecting the uveal tract have presented the so-called quiet type and have progressed to a considerable extent before being seen by the ophthalmologist. Treatment of such cases is needed over a considerable period of time and observation over a much longer time still. The constitutional treatment of the syphilis seemed to give slow results in the cases of long

standing and it should be strongly emphasized that the ocular treatment should be just as active, thoro and vigorous as tho the general disease was not known. Especially must this be true for the reason that very active general treatment may increase the local reaction in the eye. There has been one such case here. This was in a late case where full doses of arsphenamine or one of the similar preparations was used. An immense amount of work must be done before the definite relationship of syphilis to eye diseases is placed on a stable foundation, especially the influence of general treatment and the type of constitutional treatment best suited to different phases of ocular pathology.

A considerable variety of *fundus lesions* have been seen. These may be classed for our purpose, into the active cases and the non-active or old cases. Of the active class there have been seven cases of optic neuritis, eleven of choroiditis, four of neuroretinitis, one of retrobulbar neuritis, two of hyalitis and two of choked disc. The old cases were more numerous and for the most part were seen in applicants for refractive corrections; simple optic atrophy seven, secondary optic atrophy five, pigmentary retinal degeneration six, familial optic atrophy four, central choroiditis eight, disseminated choroiditis six and rupture of retina one.

Malingering has been constantly present in one of its many classes or varieties. Much has been said and written on this subject, which has become a rather deep study at present. It seems to the writer that too much classification is confusing. He prefers to divide them into two main groups: The positive group which would include all cases who with intent, "manufacture" their condition or complaint without a basis or ground work for such a complaint, and this without respect to the mental or physical type of the malingerer. Then a negative class who often do have a ground upon which an exaggeration can be used to their advantage, or those who for fear do not fully realize that they are trying to evade duty. All such cases, of whichever type, must be treated as individuals. The author has found nothing short of wonderful the sight-restoring influence of treatment which is not pleasant or is more disagreeable than the "blindness," or "pain," or "neuralgia" or whatever they complain of. Therefore, in the second group especially and in some of the first group, silver nitrat, one or two per cent put into the conjunctival sac, without a local anesthetic, has worked like a charm. After three to six such applications the patients will usually and gladly demonstrate that they can see "lots better," or are less sensitive than when they applied for treatment. The cases are not a few in which the vision has improved (?) from 20/100 to 20/20 or 20/30 under such treatment.

A field which has been much neglected has been a study of the eye findings in the soldiers sent to the hospital for nervous and mental examination. Under the present orders to the effect that all men who seem unstable, hard to handle and excitable be sent to the psychiatrist, there has been a wide field of study of the eye conditions in these border-line cases. Such a study may have an important bearing on the early diagnosis of mental states, especially the functional psychoses. That this work has not been undertaken is due to the fact that there have not been ophthalmologists enough on duty here, to attend to the routine work of the eye department and find time for the extensive observation along these lines at the same time. This work has been recently undertaken and should yield valuable results.

TUBERCULOUS IRIDOKERATITIS—SOME FEATURES IN ITS PATHOLOGY.

CAPTAIN FRED T. TOOKE, C. A. M. C.

MONTREAL, CANADA.

This is a report of the histologic findings in four cases subjected to microscopic study, with comment upon the significance of the appearances observed. Read at the fifty-fourth annual meeting of the American Ophthalmological Society.

Iritis, perhaps more than any other form of ocular disease, has manifested a modification in its classification in comparatively recent years. Even including that evanescent issue, conjunctivitis and its bacteriology, no branch of the subject has made more actual advance than the study of iritis. The text-book of less than two decades ago taught that lues was responsible for 75 per cent of all patients suffering from iritis, and that so-called rheumatism, gonorrhea, tuberculosis, and trauma had to scramble for the balance.

The Wassermann reaction, the complement-fixation test, the careful examination of the sources of autogenous infection, teeth, tonsils, accessory nasal sinuses, and bowel, have modified the classification percentage of earlier days to a very appreciable degree. It is questionable if the figures of Hirschberg, who quotes 12 cases in 60,000, and Terson, 2 in 30,000 eye cases, would stand in the light of our present knowledge. The masterly work of de Schweinitz on uveitis, read before a recent International Ophthalmological Congress, would support such a challenge.

With a preconceived endeavor of exhibiting some of the tuberculous manifestations of the disease I have been peculiarly fortunate, during the past few years, in having material supplied me manifesting tuberculous processes in the iris with other associated features of the disease.

I would, at the outset, record my thanks to those of my colleagues who have by their contributions, made this paper possible.

The pathologic manifestations of this subsection of iritis are no less varied than the alterations of our point of view clinically and etiologically of iritis itself. The pathologic manifestations have naturally many features in common with other forms; on the other hand, each has its own peculiar or particular distinguishing feature.

CASE 1.—Material supplied by Dr. J. W. Stirling, Royal Victoria Hospital, Montreal.

Mrs. G., aged thirty-five years, married. Active, but poorly nourished, and with a marked family history of tuberculosis. A history of trauma of the right eye fifteen years earlier, the condition of inflammation requiring three months to subside. Present attack had been in progress for three weeks before she decided to consult Dr. Stirling. The cornea was steamy, or semi-opaque, the condition being more intense at certain segments, especially in the deeper tissues. Details of the iris could not be determined, and there was marked pericorneal injection.

There was a slight hypopyon but no acute pain. Later the hypopyon became more manifest, and the infiltration of the cornea more intense, with the presence of what appeared to be deposits on Descemet's membrane. There was a general rise of evening temperature to 99.2°; tension was low.

A paracentesis of the cornea was done, and a clot of organized exudate was removed from the anterior chamber without complication. Rapid progress followed this procedure, all signs of inflammation subsided, and in two days' time she was discharged from the hospital.

The specimen supplied resembled a particle of pus or slough. It was irregular in shape, of a yellowish-white color, and of a firm or solid consistence, not disintegrating when immersed in fluid. It measured approximately 6x2 mm. Sections were made in paraffin.

On examination by low power the section appears as a ribbon-like band, curved as though one side had been in contact with the inner surface of the cornea. It consists for the most part of two types of cells. The structure is of a network of new connective-tissue fibers, which are in fairly close apposition at one or two points, but at others the intercellular spaces are fairly well defined. The stroma of connective tissue is most dense anteriorly, bounding that part of the band the curvature of which would appear to conform to that of the adjacent cornea. Scattered through the stroma are quantities of white blood-cells which are distinctly more numerous as one proceeds backward (Fig 1.).

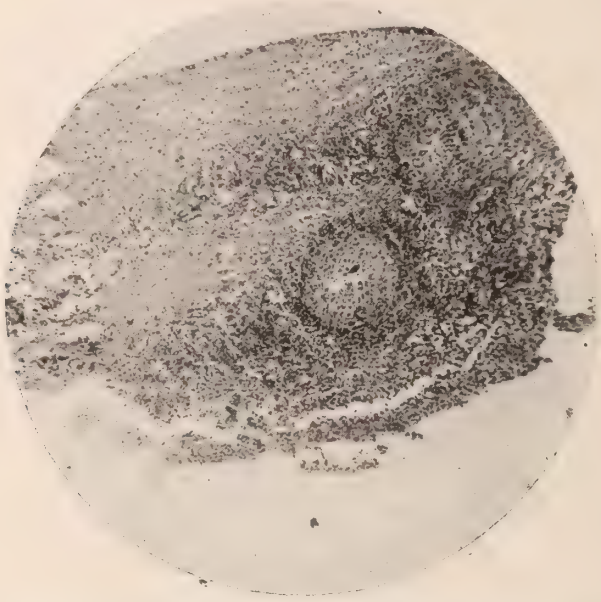


Fig. 1. Case I. Stroma of new connective tissue fibres most dense anteriorly. Scattered thru stroma are innumerable leukocytes and several tubercles best noted in posterior portion of the section (low power).

On examination by higher power one frequently observes that these leukocytes are so numerous as to occupy the field completely. They are of the small mononuclear or lymphocyte group, although some polymorphonuclears as well as occasional large mononuclear blood-cells are present. At the end of the section behind the anterior stroma of connective tissue the lymphocytes have formed definite tubercles. They are round, and their periphery is bounded by a dense aggregation of small mononuclear leukocytes. The tubercles consist otherwise of large epithelioid cells, which occupy the center of each tubercle. Numerous giant cells are present. (Figs. 2 and 3.)

Although actual necrosis or caseation can hardly be said to have occurred, the cells most centrally placed have begun to show evidences of degeneration, being distinctly shrunken in size and contour. Their cytoplasm stains decidedly less distinctly than the cells more peripherally situated. Several sections were stained for tubercle bacilli, but none could be demonstrated.

An especially careful examination was made by high-power magnification for the detection of endothelial cells, which cover the anterior surface of the iris and line the cornea. That none of these cells could be found, and that the section is quite free from pigment cells, with which the iris is more or less infiltrated during chronic inflammation,

precludes the possibility that a superficial nodule has sloughed away from the iris and has formed a second focus of inflammation in the anterior chamber. A more reasonable conclusion would be that of a subacute or chronic inflammation of tuberculous origin, where the exudate particularly from the ciliary processes, consisted largely of lymphocytes, later to coalesce and form tubercles, which subsequently break down, rather than to treat of them as pus cells, as found in an acute hypopyon iritis. The action of light, penetrating a moderately clear cornea, may, in a measure, have arrested the progress of the disease in the anterior chamber, allowing a definite encapsulation of tubercules and lymphocytes more anteriorly to take place.

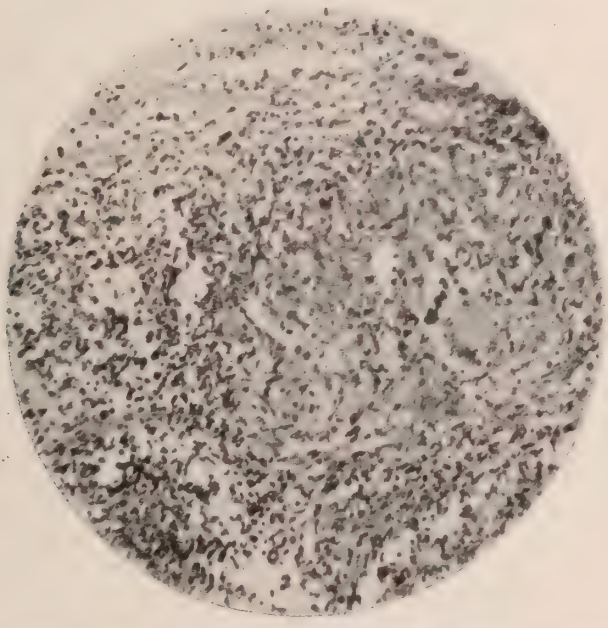


Fig 3. Case I. Section through a tubercle. Infiltration consists mostly of lymphocytes and a few large mononuclear cells and polymerphonuclears. Epithelioid cells and several giant cells also evident (high power).

Case 2.—Material supplied by Dr. Richard Kerry, Western General Hospital, Montreal.

I. R., a young English girl, aged eighteen years, complained of pain and redness of the left eye with intolerance of light. On examination the cornea at first suggested a condition of a superficial interstitial keratitis. There were areas of grayish streaks which tended to coalesce and to become more dense, with apparent roughening of the corneal epithelium. Under palliative treatment the eye became worse, infiltration of the cornea more intense, pericorneal injection more apparent, and the iris studded with a series of small grayish nodules. There were numerous posterior synechiae, the pupil dilating but slightly. There was an associated condition of cervical adenitis, presumably tuberculous; evening temperature, 99.2°.

The anterior chamber was opened on two occasions and iodoform powder introduced; iodoform emulsion was also administered hypodermically. The eye was subsequently enucleated by Dr. Kerry, as it was practically sightless, owing to corneal involvement and to the cataractous condition of the lens incumbent on the generalized posterior or ring synechia of the iris.

The globe was fixed and hardened in the usual way and subsequently embedded in celloidin. The section

shows very little evidence of acute or subacute inflammation at the corneoscleral margin, and the vessels are not excessive in number or altered histologically. There is no apparent infiltration about the walls of the blood-vessels, and the corneal epithelium shows no manifestation of edema or areas of exfoliation. Bowman's membrane is intact. Thruout the substantia propria there are innumerable areas of infiltration, which are most numerous near the limbus of the cornea. Each individual area is small, and does not appear to occupy more space than that of the single corneal cell, or at most of two cells. At no point do these assume a rounded or miliary appearance. The infiltration consists for the most part of small mononuclear leukocytes. There is no evidence of giant cells or of caseation in the cornea.

Descemet's membrane shows no presence of punctate bodies on its endothelial surface. There are areas where dense bands of adhesions have extended from the iris to Descemet's membrane, and where the latter has been ripped away by inflammatory bands extending from it to the anterior surface of the iris. These bands consist of inflammatory connective tissue cells, of various forms of leukocytes, in some instances with giant cell association, typical anterior synechiae.

The tear or separation of Descemet's membrane I interpret as mechanical, probably the result of opening the anterior chamber for the introduction of the iodoform. The iris is markedly infiltrated with large and small mononuclear leukocytes, as well as with some polymorphonuclears, to such a degree that details of the iris stroma and of its component vascular arrangement cannot be determined. Definite tubercles are scattered over the anterior surface of the iris, mostly over the pupillary margin. These consist of fibrinous material and of lymphocytes, with occasionally epithelioid cells, and others

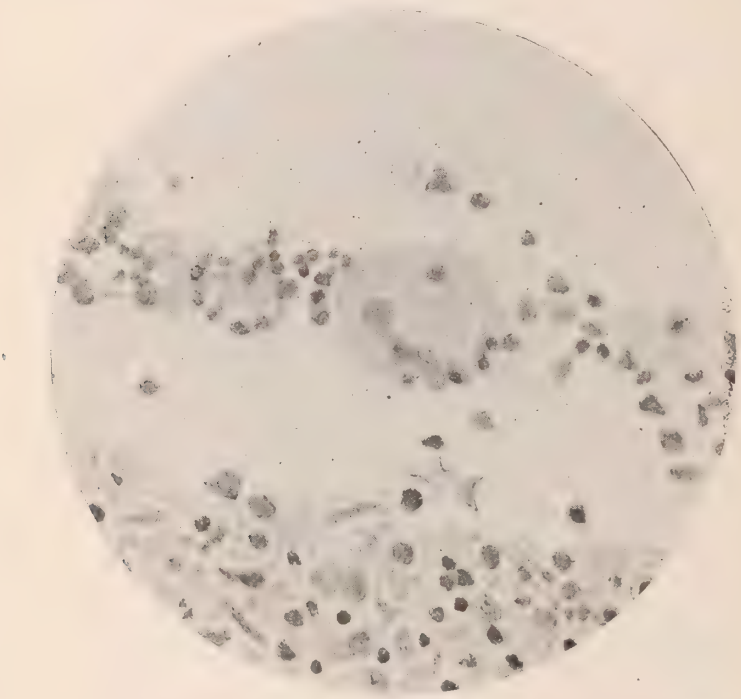


Fig 3. Case I. Practically same as Fig. 2, showing giant cells, leukocytes, fibrinous exudate, and endothelial cells lying free in the anterior chamber. (Oil immersion 1/12.)

in which an early stage of necrosis may be said to have begun. Giant cells are present. There are no evidences of tubercle about the filtration angle, altho one can be detected posteriorly midway between the pupil and the root of the iris (Fig. 4).

The pigment layer of the iris is distinctly disintegrated, and is thrown off into the posterior chamber. It has been collected at certain foci as definite masses, and when plastered down to the anterior lens capsule forms dense posterior synechiae, particularly about what was once regarded as the pupillary margin. At a greater distance from the pupillary margin these synechiae are less dense, and an iris bombe is clearly shown, with occlusion of the filtration angle.

Cataractous changes have occurred in the superficial lamellae of the lens cortex. A mild degree of infiltration is noticed about the ciliary processes, with numerous erythrocytes lying free in the vitreous chamber. The retina and choroid show no associated inflammatory changes. Tubercle bacilli could not be demonstrated in the tissues.

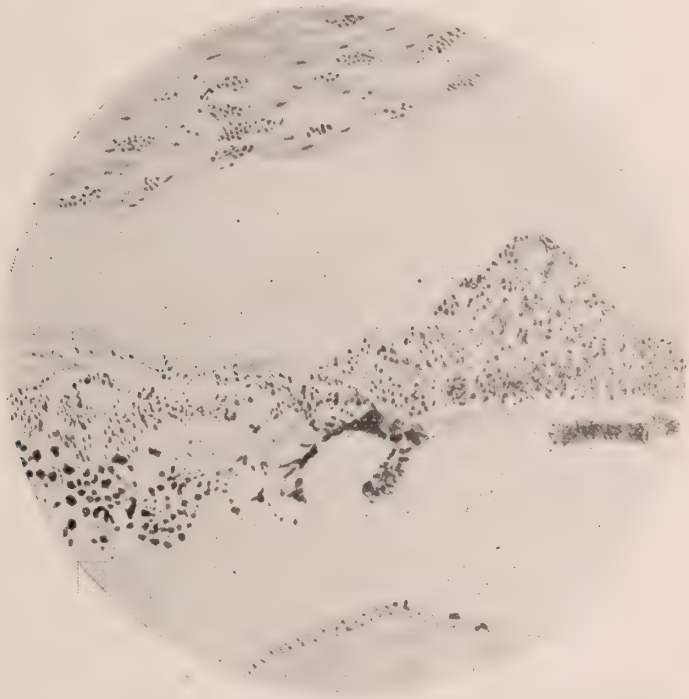


Fig. 4. Case 2. Marked infiltration of iris stroma with lymphocytes. Tubercle formation with giant cell near the pupillary margin of the iris. Pigment layer torn away posteriorly with evidence of its earlier attachment to anterior lens capsule.

Case 3.—Material supplied by Dr. W. G. M. Byers, Royal Victoria Hospital, Montreal

M. Y., female, single, aged twenty-seven years, consulted Dr. Byers for pain and inflammation in the left eye. She gave a history of the eye having been struck by a splinter of wood a month previously, but it gave her no trouble for three weeks' time. It then became red and she could not stand the light. The patient was a very poorly nourished woman, and altho a physical examination was made, no evidence of a general tuberculous lesion could be found. There was no history of tuberculosis in her family.

There was a small central opacity of the cornea, with considerable hyperemia of the iris. There were numerous

deposits on the inner surface of the cornea, apparently mostly central and to the temporal side. The pupil could be kept fairly well dilated. The cornea tended to assume a steamy or edematous appearance, and there was distinct tenderness over the ciliary body. There was no manifestation of tubercles of the iris, but subsequent examination was finally inhibited by a generalized interstitial keratitis.

Approximately one month after admission to the hospital the patient showed marked signs of improvement, although the cornea did not clear up. The evening temperature was 99°, morning 97.3°. She was finally discharged as she had an opportunity for convalescence in the country.

She was readmitted to the Royal Victoria Hospital two months later with the eye in an acutely inflamed and painful condition. The cornea was completely opaque and somewhat staphylomatous. Central ulceration had taken place, and a definite hernia of Descemet's membrane was evident, measuring less than 2 mm. across. She said that this had burst on more than one occasion. Details of the interior of the eye could not be obtained. The eye was naturally soft, and vision was reduced to perception of light only. There were no changes in her physical condition, and the temperature remained as at last entry. A smear of the conjunctival secretion showed a few Grampositive cells, later staphylococcus albus. The eye was enucleated by Dr. Byers. A von Pirquet reaction subsequent to enucleation was positive.

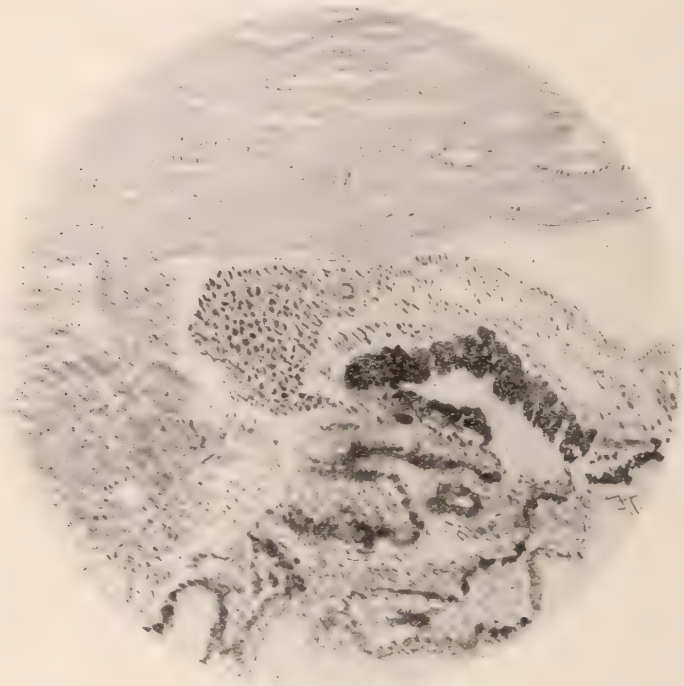


Fig. 5. Case 3. Marked infiltration of iris stroma with definite tubercle formation at root of iris, showing giant cell. Moderate degree of injection of ciliary body with infiltration of leukocytes about the ciliary processes.

On account of the necrotic condition of the cornea, this is the most complicated but by no means the most interesting of the sections. There is a marked condition of superficial as well as of deep injection of the pericorneal vessels. The deep vessels especially show a marked condition of dilatation, with clumps of leukocytes aggregated about the vessel walls.

The superficial layers of the corneal

epithelium are multiplied, and the deeper layers are edematous. The epithelium is distinctly irregular, dipping down into the diseased substantia propria as definite bud or nipple-like projections. Bowman's membrane is intact, but wavy and irregular in its course. Doubtless it is broken in other sections. Directly beneath this the cornea is distinctly vascular—naturally more so at the corneoscleral margin.

The substantia propria is markedly

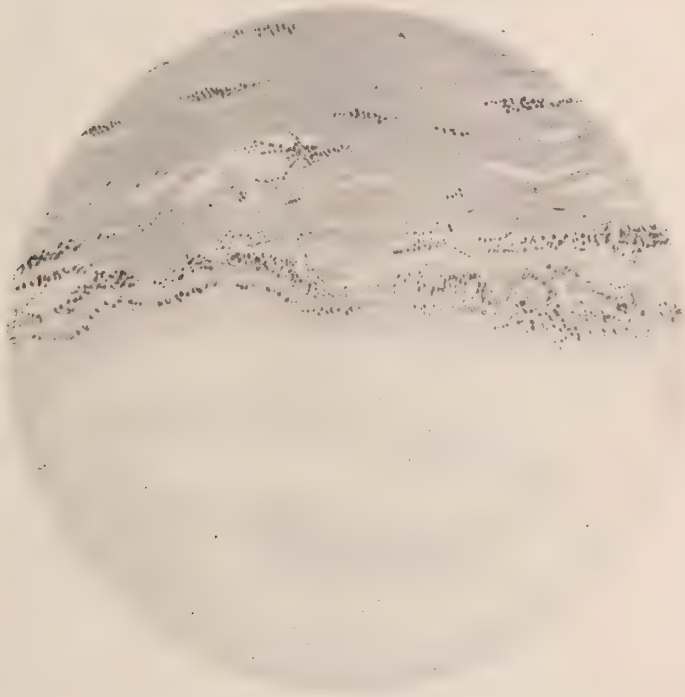


Fig. 6. Case 4. Taken near the filtration angle. Gradual necrosis of Descemet's membrane with groups of leukocytes adherent to its endothelial surface. Above it and between the deeper cells of the substantia propria is a marked infiltration of leukocytes with giant cell formation.

necrotic, the intercellular spaces being crowded with lymphocytes and with some pus cells. There are tiny blood-vessels in the cornea, the more superficial areas showing a condition of perivasculitis. A definite tuberculous nodule is well seen about the center of the substantia propria, fairly close to the filtration angle, and about midway between Bowman's and Descemet's membrane. It stains somewhat pale at the center, but there is no evidence of necrosis or of giant cell formation. The

center of the cornea is distinctly necrotic, being occupied entirely by granulation tissue. The granulation consists of a stroma of amorphous cells in which are included fibroblasts, lymphocytes, and the various elements of a chronically inflamed iris, pigment cells, and a mass of endothelial cells. Descemet's membrane is naturally broken and curled up at the point where the earlier ulcer formed. Where it is intact, numerous aggregations of lymphocytes line its endothelial surface. Numbers of leukocytes and fibrin lie free in the remains of the anterior chamber.

A definite tuberculous nodule with a central giant cell is apparent in the filtration angle, while another is even more evident in the ciliary body of the same side, close to the root of the iris (Fig. 5). The iris is injected and shows small tubercles in the process of formation in its stroma nearer the filtration angle. So much of the iris is

necrotic and amorphous, included in the ulcerated process of the cornea, one may reasonably suppose that the presenting portion may have formerly been more extensively diseased. There are, however, no giant cells in the portion of the iris included in the diseased cornea.

The ciliary body is moderately injected, the lining cells of the ciliary processes showing a manifest exhibition of leukocytes attached to their

oped suddenly seven years previously, when she was out of doors, at which time she experienced a sensation as of a grain of sand having blown into her eye. The eye recovered, but broke out with similar attacks on a number of occasions. It became perceptibly worse six months ago, when variations in temperature and bright lights would cause her a great deal of pain and photophobia. She was referred to the Royal Victoria Hospital.

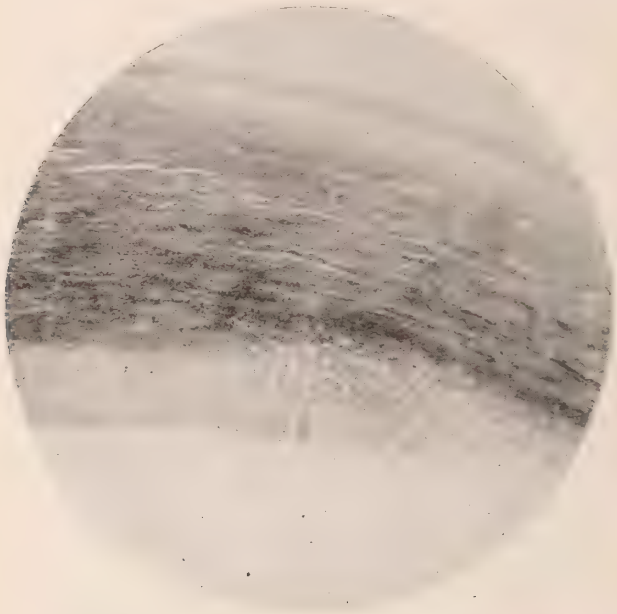


Fig. 7. Case. 4. Intense infiltration of substantia propria, especially the deeper layers. Lowest layer of cells actually necrotic, stain poorly, and innumerable giant cells are manifest (low power).

side, while other cells lie free in the neighboring vitreous, at least one forming a distinct clump—the nucleus of a later tubercle. Some of the retinal vessels are distinctly dilated, with perivascular exudate about their walls and with numerous leukocytes, chiefly lymphocytes and polymorphs, within the lumen of the dilated capillaries. A perivascular tubercle is well shown in at least one section. There is only a very moderate degree of infiltration in the stroma of the choroid.

Case 4.—M. M. C., female, single, aged forty-six years, consulted me complaining of pain and loss of vision in the left eye. The condition devel-

The patient was an unusually large but neurotic woman. Her previous health and family history were good. There was no evidence of focal tuberculosis elsewhere in the body after a very careful physical examination. The eye was moderately injected, with intense intolerance to light. The iris was discolored and would not dilate to any appreciable extent. There appeared to be no deposit peripherally on the endothelial surface of the cornea. The central portion of the cornea, or that considered as the area covering a moderately dilated pupil, was occupied by a dense, regular, deep seated grayish mass. The condition was dia-

gnosed as a tuberculoma of the cornea, and a diagnostic dose of 2 mg. of T. O. was given. The temperature rose from subnormal to 99.2°, and an acute reaction occurred in the eye. Therapeutic doses of tuberculin emulsion were then proceeded with, starting at 1/20,000 mg., but no improvement ensued. As the eye was practically sightless, and the pain was intensely acute, I enucleated the eye at the patient's request.

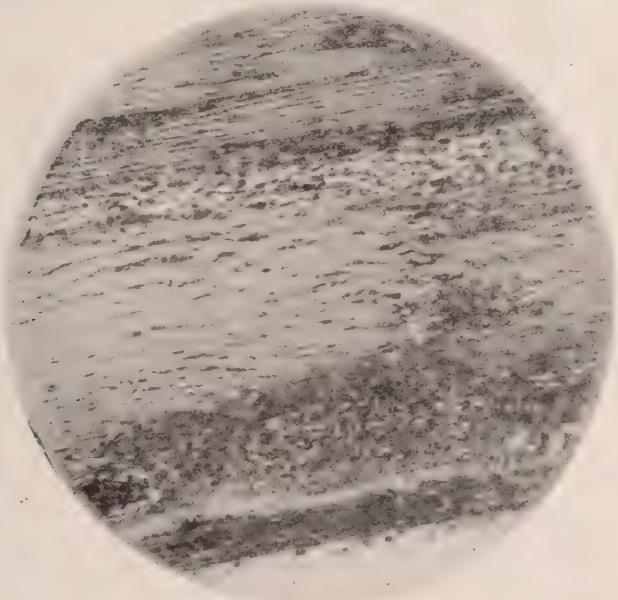


Fig. 8. Case 4. Shows character of infiltrtion of cornea. Deeper layers are actually necrotic, with area of infiltration assuming the form of a tubercle above. Necrosis of Descemet's membrane with marked proliferation of endothelial cells (high power).

There is marked superficial and deep injection about the limbus corneae, the deeper vessels showing a decided infiltration about the vessel walls. The more superficial veins are widely dilated and are filled with red cells. There is no edema of the corneal epithelium. Bowman's membrane is intact and, comparatively speaking, the superficial lamellae of the substantia propria are clear. As one proceeds more deeply there is an intense infiltration of the substantia propria (Fig. 7). This is so evident at the center of the section in the neighborhood of Descemet's membrane that actual necrosis is seen to have occurred (Fig. 8). The infiltration thruout the cornea consists practically entirely of lymphocytes. In the deep layers these have broken down and stain very faintly, constituting what has to be regarded amorphous cellular tissue. Scattered thruout this area are innumerable large giant cells.

Beneath this, at the center of the section, Descemet's membrane is also necrotic and cannot be recognized as such. It is clear, but lined with organized lymph or possibly by proliferated endothelial cells. There are numerous leukocytes or clumps of leukocytes attached to its endothelial surface at the more peripheral parts of the section.

The iris is markedly infiltrated and several small nodules can be seen on its endothelial or anterior surface. One nodule practically occupies the filtration angle at one point, while others may be recognized at the pupillary margin. There is no necrosis or evidence of giant cell formation in the iris, but the iris pigment is markedly disintegrated. The iris is intensely injected, and at one point has fallen forward, completely occluding the filtration angle. There is considerable inflammation of the ciliary body, and the

more anterior of the choroidal vessels show a decided injection about their walls.

COMMENT.

Parsons classifies tuberculous lesions of the iris as follows: (1) Miliary tubercule; (2) confluent or conglomerate tubercle; (3) tuberculous iritis. The last type may be indistinguishable clinically from other forms of chronic iritis, but microscopically sections reveal tubercle systems or the presence of bacilli.

The four cases just recorded may be considered to fall into the last mentioned class, not only on account of the clinical appearance of the various lesions, but also because of the peculiar chronic nature of each individual case when compared with the more acute lesions of classes 1 and 2. Parsons considers class 3 to be the rarest form of the disease in the iris, and refers to cases of Costa and Prunenda, Edmunds and Brailey, Knaggs, and Kalt. There is generally diffuse infiltration and thickening of the iris. Giant cells may be present, but tubercle systems not necessarily evident. Naturally necrosis with an exhibition of pus in the anterior chamber supports the diagnosis. The demonstration of tubercle bacilli is, naturally enough, conclusive evidence, but the diagnosis is not necessarily excluded on account of the inability of demonstrating the microorganisms. Animal inoculation may be of value. Diagnostic doses of tuberculin, in my own clinical experience, are not always necessarily positive.

Comparing the tuberculous with the syphilitic nodule, the opinion has been that the last mentioned occupies the root of the iris. Our more exact methods of diagnosis, as well as some of the more recent pathologic contributions, make us somewhat more guarded in indorsing such an assertion. For, if the statement be reversed, we note in case 2 of my series that the lesion appears anteriorly near the pupillary margin, but a second nodule may also be detected directed backward, and not far from the root of the iris. In case 3 a nodule is definitely at the root of the iris, and one also in the ciliary body, with a secondary or, more correctly speaking, associated tubercle in the substantia propria. In case 4 the infiltration is so intense that actual tubercle systems cannot be detected in the iris.

It is interesting to record in this regard that within the past three months I have had two patients with iritis developing very suddenly and from no apparent cause. In each case the nodule or nodules of the iris were quite evident about the filtration angle below, and an associated keratitis was present to an alarming acute degree. A Wassermann reaction of the spinal fluid was negative, but a positve reaction, both local and general, to tuberculin, in one case to 0.5 mg., in the other to 2 mg., added confirmation to a suspected diagnosis.

In the syphilitic nodule the iris tissue itself is of normal thickness, and the nodules fade away in the surrounding tissue. They may break thru the surface of the iris and communicate with the anterior chamber. They consist of mononuculear cells embedded in a fine reticulum. As in gummata, giant cells may be found, but rarely caseation. There are widely dilated capillaries within the nodules, while tubercles, on the other hand, are avascular.

No little interest is shown in the discrepancy of opinion as to whether the tuberculous focus in the iris is primary or secondary to a preëxisting tuberculous process. Leber, Fuchs, and de Wecker claim the disease invariably to be a secondary manifestation, while Parinaud, Lawford, Bach and others are as positive of the iris itself being the initial source of infection. In case 1, altho no primary source of infection could be actually pointed out, a very suggestive family history of tuberculosis would make one more than suspicious of a latent tuberculous lesion. Case 2 showed systemic manifestations of the disease in inflamed glands of the neck. Case 3, altho the most suggestive in appearance of all four, showed no actual le-

sion after careful clinical examination, but exhibited a positive tuberculin reaction after the eye had been removed. Case 4 was an actually robust, heavy woman, but gave a very marked local reaction to 2 mg. of T. O., with a corresponding general reaction.

It is further of interest to note that each of my cases was a female, ages ranging from eighteen to forty-six years. Seven out of eight human cases reported by Stock were also females, the manifestations of the disease appearing still later in life.

One cannot approach an intelligent appreciation of tuberculous iritis without recognizing the painstaking and scientific endeavor manifested in the work of Stock, on the one hand, and of Verhoeff, on the other. The latter has seen fit to disagree with the former in his work on the experimental production of intraocular tuberculosis in animals, Verhoeff preferring to inoculate dead bacilli or the toxins of bacilli directly into the anterior chamber or into some other part of the eye. Stock, on the other hand, preferred a mild dilution of the actual bacilli, which he introduced into the ear veins of rabbits. Altho Verhoeff's technic would at first glance suggest a more benign form of infection, as possibly more comparable with that exhibited in the actual process as it exists in man, yet Stock, by introducing the bacilli at a point away from the eye, allowed for a liberal dilution, also for such inhibition which the lymphocytes and leukocytes might supply. It is further questionable if, when the microorganism reached the eye, the reaction was more violent in the one series of cases than in the other. We must also not overlook the tremendous care and completness of Stock's undertaking. I can vouch for its thoroness, having been with him when part of it was in progress. Forty-eight animals were inoculated, and a careful clinical and pathologic examination, not only local, but also general, was systematically made of each individual case. That the effect of inoculation was not invariably unusually acute is proved by the fact that some rabbits lived up to two years after inoculation. Furthermore, in cases where tuberculous iritis was induced, healing in some instances took place in from two to five weeks.

Stock, from his experimental work on rabbits, has come to the following conclusions: The first symptom manifested is a general thickening of the iris tissue, without any unusual thickening of the blood vessels. Three or four days later small grayish masses appear in the iris tissue. As I have already given it as my clinical and pathologic experience, Stock supports my contention by affirming that there is no such thing as a site of predilection for the tubercle of the iris. It may appear at the pupillary margin, at the middle of the iris, or at the filtration angle. The nodules on healing leave a white spot. Some animals showed a generalized hyperemia of the iris, with the formation of new vessels and a general appearance of granulation tissue. Infiltration may be so intense that solitary nodules cannot be detected. Later there may appear changes in the surrounding tissues, as parenchymatous keratitis, with manifest pericorneal injection of the deep ocular vessels.

Pathologically the nodules, tho possibly having a site of predilection, are more numerous on the posterior than on the anterior surface of the iris. The nodules consist at first of mononuclear leukocytes without any epithelioid cells. Some nodules may reappear over the site of a previously healed tubercle. When left for a long time and allowed to increase in size, one notes in the center of the nodule large mononuclear cells with pale staining nuclei, epitheliod cells. One can only find giant cells in those cases where the process has been active for months, and tubercle bacilli could be demonstrated only in those cases where central caseation of the individual tubercle had occurred.

In the more malignant form, where a parenchymatous keratitis ensued, the iris was generally studded with tubercles. The center of such tubercles was generally necrotic. The sections, especially those from cases 3 and 4, show

a distinct disturbance of the endothelial cells of the cornea when a keratitis punctata is instituted at the back of the cornea. In the animals inoculated, as well as in the human cases recorded by Stock, Descemet's membrane always remained intact. Case 4 in my series is rather an exception to this rule or acceptance, where a fairly distinct atrophy or actual necrosis of this membrane may be seen to have taken place. Descemet's membrane behind is densely covered with lymph, and above by a distinct infiltration of lymphocytes and numerous giant cells in part of the cornea suggesting an early necrosis. On the other hand, case 3 demonstrates the absolute obstinacy and resistance of Descemet's membrane, presenting itself forward as a knuckle or hernia or descementocele after an actually complete ulceration of the substantia propria has taken place. The resistance of this form of a hyaloid membrane is quite comparable to that already pointed out by me in the case of the membrane of Bruch in cases of tubercle of the choroid. The whole cornea may be diffusely infiltrated, and new vessels may encroach upon the corneal tissue. There is a circumscribed nodule formation in the cornea itself, as well as about its margin.

An infiltration of the cornea is the rule rather than the exception in my experience. The ciliary body is not of necessity always acutely involved in the disease process. In gross involvement of the iris one may find large or small tubercles of the ciliary body. Stock was unable to find the same pathologic manifestations in animals as one would expect to find from clinical observations in the human.

This article would be far from complete were I not to attempt to acknowledge the important scientific work done by Verhoeff. His contribution on animal inoculation, as well as his reports on human tuberculous eyes pathologically examined, is more or less restricted in comparison with Stock's work. But his general approach of the subject and his astutely scientific interpretation of the possible transmission of the disease is more than on a par with the work of earlier writers. By introducing dead bacilli into the vitreous, or, for that matter, into the anterior chamber, he has shown that in several weeks, or even months of time, there may be produced nodules in the corneosclera closely simulating those of sclerokeratitis, as is manifested clinically in man. These have been manifested in a naturally modified form in all my cases, with definite lesions in the iris and ciliary body, and also in the retina, as I have been able to demonstrate in one case. In the case of a marked involvement of the cornea little reaction may be apparent in the ciliary body, a condition attributed to the fact that live bacilli, even tho of an attenuated virulence, will find the cornea and sclera more suitable for their proliferation owing to their avascular nature. The cornea is more involved in experimental work on animals directly inoculated, while the reverse is the case in man. This is as one would suppose or expect—in the one case the inoculation is almost direct thru the medium of the anterior chamber, in the latter instance it is indirect thru the venous capillaries of the uveal tract.

Verhoeff makes the statement that in his experimental cases the size and number of the lesions were greater at the filtration angle than elsewhere, showing that more bacilli lodged there. One might offer as an explanation the fact of the prevalence of tubercles of the iris occurring close to the filtration angle as borne out by Stock, as well as by myself. Sections from the cases which I am presenting do not necessarily always substantiate this fact, altho acknowledging the almost constant association of corneal involvement with tuberculous iritis. In the cases here recorded the iris itself is more involved than any other part of the eye. Furthermore, we notice in this series, as well as in the cases which I have had an opportunity of studying clinically, that the lesion in the cornea is more often opposite the pupillary area than about the filtration angle and ligamentum pectinatum. One may explain

such a condition by the fact of the toxins ultimately reaching that part of the cornea with the most stagnant supply of lymph, as one notices in any form of interstitial keratitis. Further, the aggregation of lymphocytes, with the attendant bacilli, are drawn directly from the posterior chamber thru the pupil to the anterior chamber. From albuminous changes in the aqueous and consequent alteration in its specific gravity these lymphocytes, instead of falling down into the filtration angle, fall more directly forward. Such a condition of so-called punctate keratitis, tho not perhaps an actual source of infection, has at least an influence in inhibiting nutrition from the aqueous, which we are led to believe supplies Descemet's membrane and the posterior layers of the cornea. These layers, with Descemet's membrane, are in consequence attacked from both sides. This interpretation has been shown to be more than a probability in cases 3 and 4.

There was evidence of an active or acute inflammatory condition in the choroid in one case only—case 4. Case 3 shows what might in time have developed into a retinal tubercle—a widely dilated vein filled with numbers of leukocytes, many, strangely enough, being of the polymorphonuclear type. There is distinct evidence of the migration of blood cells thru the vessel walls and of the formation of an early tho definite perivascular tubercle. Verhoeff, in his work, very properly supposes or suggests the probability of the infection, particularly as applied to the corneosclera, as coming from the lymphocytes escaping from lesions occurring in the choroid, retina, or ciliary processes. These clumps of cells, actually nascent tubercles, find their way thru the pupillary area, later to attack the cornea and corneosclera thru the ligamentum pectinatum. The infection is consequently direct and not one of metastasis.

In a former contribution which I had the honor of presenting before this society I attempted to show how, in cases of tubercle of the choroid, the condition extended thru the bloodstream. The migration of lymphocytes thru the vessel walls and the subsequent formation of a perivascular tubercle were demonstrated not only in the vessels about the base of the brain, but also in the pial capillaries extending into the vaginal space about the optic nerve. What is true in the acute form of the disease may, I claim, be equally true in the more chronic phase, tho from its mere chronicity not so easily demonstrable. One may thus account for tubercles found free in the vitreous, about the ciliary processes, in the choroid, and even in the more anterior portion of the retina in tuberculous iridokeratitis.

My observation in cases 3 and 4, while maintaining that the infection of the cornea is due to toxin and is endogenous, may still support Verhoeff's maxims. The aggregation of lymphocytes, or, what I have formerly termed them, nascent tubercles, after reaching the aqueous may find their way to the filtration angle and thru the ligamentum pectinatum, the toxins, or possibly the actual bacilli, to be taken up by the pericorneal lymph capillaries. A condition of parenchymatous keratitis may exhibit actual tuberculous elements other than ordinary manifestations of interstitial inflammation. I do not consider that the necrosis of Descemet's membrane in case 4 has resulted from direct apposition of tubercle upon its endothelial lining, any more than I have been able to demonstrate a diseased process in the membrane of Bruch in the acute form of the disease involving the choroid. My opinion is that a deep interstitial keratitis must first be present, with subsequent necrosis and doubtless with actual bacilli present rather than toxins. Case 3 supports this opinion, as well as the large series of cases prepared by Stock, who was unable to demonstrate a single case of initial necrosis of Descemet's membrane. Compared with his exhaustive series, both comparative and human, my own exception in case 4 would appear as a unique condition.

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HEREDITARY CONGENITAL PTOSIS WITH REPORT OF 64 CASES CONFORMING TO THE MENDELIAN RULE OF DOMINANCE

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This account of hereditary ptosis reporting a large family extending to six generations is slightly abridged from a candidate's thesis presented to the American Ophthalmological Society.

Near the summit of the Great Smokies, in western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee, on the head waters of Laurel and Nolichucky rivers, have lived for more than a century the strong, sturdy, and virile descendants of one Martin Maney, an emigrant from Dublin, Ireland, a veteran of the Revolutionary War, and one of the first pioneers to cross the Blue Ridge and brave the dangers of mountain wilderness and the Indians of those times—strong and sturdy, as evidenced by their ability to cope with the vicissitudes incident to pioneer life, and prolific, as shown by their large families —18 children in one, 10 to 14 in four, and 28 resulting from the union of one man (No. 17*) to three wives—15 to the first, 2 to the second, and 11 to the third.

Until recently these simple, poor, yet honest mountain people, isolated from railroads and thoroughfares, have lived in this sparsely settled country, where the high altitude, pure water, abundant sunshine, and the many other natural resources are conducive to happiness, longevity, and prolificity. Being content with their natural environment and with their innate love for the mountains, they have not cared to migrate into more populous centers, and on account of their segregation it has been possible to construct an accurate family tree, and to study the condition of hereditary congenital ptosis in many of the 64 cases recorded.

Case 1.—W. H. (No. 26), aged fifty-one years, farmer, in good health, has double ptosis, but no other evidence of physical or mental degeneration. Forehead greatly wrinkled, especially on right side. Eyebrows standing high. Width of nose, as between nosepiece of eye-glasses, 6 mm.; distance between inner canthi, 29½ mm.; distance between bridge of nose and inner canthus, 11¾ mm.; width of palpebral fissure, 24 mm.; diameter of cornea, 7½ mm.; distance from cornea to inner canthus, 8 mm.; pupillary distance, 55 mm. Upper lid shows no wrinkles, and covers the upper part of the pupil, necessitating constant action of the occipitofrontalis, and tilting of the head backward, in order to fix objects above the horizon. Patient able to superduct eyes, but this to only a limited degree. No other extraocular muscle impairment or imbalance; no pupillary reflex

*Only 18 of the 28 offspring appear on the family tree because of lack of data concerning remainder.



112 58 113





26 68 124

CASES OF CONGENITAL PTOSIS (BRIGGS)

disturbance nor impairment of the ciliary muscles save that due to presbyopia. When thumbs were pressed firmly against the eyebrows, so as to prevent the associated action of the occipitofrontalis, patient was unable to raise the lids showing total impairment of each levator. Refraction: V. R. E.=0.8, with sph.+0.50⊂cyl.+0.75 axis 15°=1; L. E.=0.8, with cyl.+0.75 axis 165°=1. Presbyopia, 1.50 D.

Patient states that he has never had any trouble with eyes except that due to the ptosis, which is borne out by the fact that he still uses an old cap and ball rifle for squirrel hunting. The patient's son (No. 68), grandson (No. 124), mother (No. 11), grandmother (No. 3), and great-grandmother (No. 1) were similarly affected.

Case 2.—G. H. (No. 68), aged twenty-five years, son of W. H., resembles in general stature his father, and has about the same amount of ptosis, but is the more able to correct the deformity by the associated action of the occipitofrontalis. Position of head slightly back. Patient able to superduct eyes, but this to only a limited degree. No other extraocular muscle impairment or imbalance; no pupillary reflex disturbance nor impairment of the ciliary muscles. Deep furrows in forehead, due to muscular attempt to raise lids. Width of nose opposite inner canthi, 11 mm.; distance between inner canthi, 35½ mm.; diameter of cornea, 7½ mm.; pupillary distance, 61 mm. Can lift upper lids slightly above pupil, but, as in case of the father, has no lifting power of upper lids when the action of the occipitofrontalis is checked by pressure over the eyebrows. Can turn eyes upward when lids are lifted, but this action is slightly impaired. Vision each eye, 1. No marks of degeneration.

Case 3.—C. H. (No. 124), son of G. H., four years old, slightly undeveloped. Has marked ptosis. Upper lids hang below upper margin of pupil, necessitating extreme backward position of head in attempting to fix objects in horizontal field. Small wrinkles in forehead, indicating auxiliary action of the occipitofrontalis. No other extraocular muscle impairment or imbalance; no pupillary reflex disturbance nor impairment of the ciliary muscles. On lifting eyelids with fingers, patient is unable to lift eyes above the horizontal meridian, indicating impairment of the superior recti, but since his father, aunt, and grandfather possess this power of superduction, it is probable that this function will be acquired in later years. Base of nose very broad, measuring 20 mm., compared to 6 mm. of the grandfather and 11 mm. of the father. Distance between inner canthus and side of the nose, 9 mm.; width of palpebral fissure, 20 mm.; height of palpebral fissure, 6 mm.; pupillary distance, 52 mm. Unable to determine vision, but no evidence of defect.

Case 4.—Mrs. McK. (No. 70), aged twenty-three years, daughter of W. H. (No. 26), has the least amount of ptosis observed in any of the genealogy. Has very narrow nose, like her father; eyebrows highly raised; the skin over the forehead corrugated on account of the contraction of the occipitofrontalis in an effort to assist the levator. Ptosis more marked in the left. On exerting pressure over the supraorbital region, preventing action of the frontal portion of the occipitofrontalis, patient still able to slightly raise the upper lid, showing that the action of the levator in this case is only partially paralyzed. The lacus lacrymalis is very broad vertically, extending downward, inward, and forward. Distance from inner canthus to the side of nose, 8½ mm.; distance between inner canthi, 36 mm.; width of palpebral fissure, 23 mm.; vertical width of palpebral fissure, 6½ mm.; pupils, in moderate light, 3½ mm.; crest width of nose, 14 mm.; pupillary distance, 64 mm. On looking straight forward, upper lid covers upper part of pupil. On attempting further upward motion the occipitofrontalis is called more and more into action. Vision above 20 degrees impossible without bending head backward.

Case 5.—Male infant (No. 81), six weeks old, in splendid health, has very marked ptosis. There is no evidence

of action of the occipitofrontalis as an auxiliary aid to the levator, and, as the levator has no action, the lids scarcely separate, there being perhaps about 1 mm. opening. Palpebral fissure very narrow to the extent that blepharophimosis exists. Lifting upper lids causes immediate photophobia, but reveals eyes normal in appearance. Unable to test extrinsic muscles, but no evidence of their impairment.

Case 6.—(No. 111.) Girl, aged fifteen years, in good health, moderate amount of ptosis; total impairment of function of levators. Has congenital contraction of the subcutaneous tissues over the malar, or attached to same, drawing the lids to the outer canthus, especially the lower, far away from the eye. This contraction of the lower lid stretches the lower canaliculus, misplacing the lower punctum 7 mm. from the inner canthus, and gives a general appearance to the eyes of convergent strabismus, but this is only apparent, as there is no muscular imbalance. There is a chronic granular condition of the lids, due to their exposure, and the cornea in the lower outer quadrant, for the same reason, is roughened, rendering the vision 0.5 in the right eye, that in the left being normal.

The six cases above reported represent the fourth, fifth and sixth generations. Cases Nos. 81 and 124, infants in the sixth generation, have seemingly an equal if not a greater amount of ptosis than had case No. 26 or case No. 58 in the fourth generation, or of any shown in any of the photographs, which would indicate that the degree of ptosis remains constant, and is at least not becoming diluted.

Summary.—The cases of hereditary ptosis herein recorded are members of a genealogy extending thru six generations over a period of one and one-quarter centuries. Inheritance in every case is direct, no generation in the lineage of the affected being skipped except in the one instance, Case No. 125, in the sixth generation, whose mother, No. 90, a member of the genealogy, is said to be normal, and to have married one who was also normal.*

Twenty-three families are represented, in 17 of which the father, and in 6 the mother, transmitted the malformation. In no case did affected parents fail to transmit ptosis to one or more of their offspring.

There was only one case of intermarriage,† and that between affected female No. 43, in generation four, to a normal male, second cousin, No. 109, in generation five. Of the two male offspring, one was affected and the other normal.

Of the 128 members of the genealogy composing the 23 affected families, 64 were affected with ptosis and 64 were normal; 74 were males, 53 females, and one of unknown sex. An equal num-

*Information gained from relatives.
†Mountain people seldom intermarry.

Generation	Number Members			Affected			Normal			Affected Parents		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
I	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	1
II	1	2	3	1	2	3	..	..	..	1	2	3
III	13	8	21	6	4	10	7	4	11	5	1	6
IV	27	15	42	16	7	23	11	8	19	9	1	10
V	31	25	56	9	16	25	22	9	31	2	1	3
VI	‡4	2	7	‡2	..	3	2	2	4	..	..	..
Total	‡76	53	130	‡34	30	65	42	23	65	17	6	23
Enumerated twice	2	..	2	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	..
	74	..	128	33	..	64	41	..	64	..	..	..

‡One sex unknown.

ber (64 of each), were affected and normal. Of the affected, 33 were males, 30 were females, and 1 of unknown sex, while of the normal, 41 were males and 23 females.

Of the twenty* affected parents, 16 were males and 4 females. Of the 121 offspring (71 males and 50 females), 61 were affected and 60 normal. The 16 fathers had 100 children (62 males and 38 females), to 47 of whom they transmitted ptosis, there being 53 normal. The four mothers bore 21 children (9 males and 12 females), of whom 14 had ptosis and 7 were normal. Of the offspring, 61 had ptosis and 60 were normal, the fathers' share was 47 ptosis to 53 normal, while the mothers' was 14 ptosis to 7 normal. Of the 71 male offspring, 62 were from affected fathers and 9 from affected mothers, while of the 50 female offspring 38 were from affected fathers and 12 from affected mothers.

	Parents	Male	Female	Ptosis	Normal	Total
Fathers ...	16	62	38	47	53	100
Mothers ...	4	9	12	14	7	21
	20	71	50	61	60	121

Literature.—Ptosis unaccompanied by motility defects of the eye is seldom seen. Epicanthus and impairment of function of the superior rectus most frequently exist, yet paralysis of each and all of the extrinsic muscles has been noted. In no case found in the literature has paralysis of the intrinsic muscles of the eye been a complication of ptosis, except in complete ophthalmoplegia. Disturbance of the pupil and accommodation are, therefore, practically never seen associated with ptosis.

Hirschberg[17] found a case of ptosis accompanying total ophthalmoplegia in a child whose mother and grandmother were similarly affected. Schiller[35] reports father and two sons having ptosis with paralysis of all the outer eye muscles. Horner[19] reports inherited ptosis through three generations of one family, and in nine brothers of another family, associated with impairment of the superior rectus. Rampoldi[33] reports ptosis in father, son, and daughter, with immobility of the extrinsic muscles and slight astigmatism. Daguillon[9] reports congenital hereditary ptosis with divergent strabismus, congenital hereditary myopia, and amblyopia. Lawford[25] reports ptosis in father and three sons among seven children, immobility of the eyes in the vertical meridian, with only slight amount of mobility to the side. Horner[19] reports cases of ptosis in several generations of the same family. Heuck[16] reports ptosis in mother, two sons, and one daughter, in which the eyes were directed downward and easily converged. There was complete loss of function in the superior and inferior recti, while the other extrinsic muscles functioned. There was also deficient vision. Hirschberg[17] reports ptosis in a mother, daughter, grandson, and great-grandson, with impairment of superduction, abduction, and adduction. In the grandson, epicanthus, superduction impossible, and divergence alternating with convulsive convergence. Vignes[43] gives cases of ptosis and epicanthus in grandfather, five sons, and one daughter of 11 children. He also reports ptosis in a father, two sons, and one daughter of 5 children. Vossius[44] gives history of two brothers with impossible movement of the eyes in the vertical meridian and dimness of vision. Ginestous[12] reports child of twenty-five months showing incomplete ptosis, epicanthus, and paralysis of the superior rectus. Ahlström[1] reports case of ptosis and ophthalmoplegia externa in a fifteen-year-old boy, and history of several relatives similarly affected. Guende[15] reports three brothers in family of nine children with ptosis complicating ophthalmoplegia externa. Dujardin[11] reports maternal grandfather, mother, and four daughters having ptosis with immobility of the eyes upward and downward and limitation of lateral movements. Schiler[35] reports ptosis in grandfather, father and son, with immobility of the outer muscles, high hypermetropia, and a dot-like darkening of the lens. Gour-

*Leaving off the progenitor, father of No. 1, parents who intermarried, and No. 90 (mother of S), from total number of parents.

fein[14] reports ptosis in grandfather, father, and four sons, the female members of the second and third generations remaining healthy. Movements of the eyes always accompanied by rotary nystagmus. They also showed amblyopia, changes in the optic nerve and the retina, flattening in the region of the eyebrow. Ayres[4] reports grandfather and uncle with immobility of all eye muscles. Paul Bloch[7] reports two brothers having paralysis of the abducens and ptosis.

Steinheim[39] reports ptosis and epicanthus in five generations. The great grandfather had ptosis. Of his five children, two males and one female were affected. One male and one female married and moved to America, no more being known of their descendants. The other male married, had two daughters, one normal and one affected; the latter becoming the mother of five children, of whom two males and one female were affected. Of the girl's children two were normal and one affected. Of the two males, one became the father of two normal and two abnormal children, while the other was father of three abnormal and three normal offspring.

Hüttemann,[21] in 1911, reported 11 cases of congenital hereditary ptosis and epicanthus in three generations of the same family. He notes that in all these there was a peculiar lid movement associated with lateral movement of the eyes. In a glance to left the right eye, and on looking to the right the left eye, was almost closed.

Dujardin[11] reports five cases of congenital ptosis in grandfather, mother, and three daughters, the fourth daughter being normal. One of the affected daughters had partial ophthalmoplegia.

H. P. Stuckey[40] reports father, son, and three grandsons living in northern Georgia having ptosis, one daughter being normal. These are Nos. 25, 64, 65, 66, and 67 of the genealogy of the author's cases. He considered it a probable example of Mendelian recessive. The inheritance is, however, dominant in character, as is amply illustrated in the extensive family tree.

F. R. Spencer[37] reports a case in a man of twenty-seven who gives history of ptosis since fifteen or sixteen years of age. He thinks it has gradually increased since that time, but has been much worse for the past three years. His mother, maternal grandmother, two maternal aunts, and one brother were similarly affected. His younger brother's lids began to droop at the age of twenty-two years. His mother had great difficulty in raising her lids. His abduction, adduction, superduction, and subduction were very limited, and he was unable to raise either eyelid without the assistance of the frontalis muscle.

Pathology. — Operations, autopsies, and microscopic examinations have revealed the following condition as causes of ptosis:

(*a*) Defective development of levator and other muscles of the eye. Heuck[16] found a partly developed levator measuring only 2 mm. in breadth. Bach,[5] in a case of bilateral congenital ptosis and limitation of the eye movements upward, found defective development of levator and moderate atrophy of superior rectus; the nuclear region of the oculomotor was normal.

(*b*) Adhesion of Muscles.—Albers and Wrisberg[2] found in a case of ptosis adhesion of the rectus superior with the levator; the external rectus was adherent to the inferior rectus, and the internal rectus to the superior oblique.

(*c*) Abnormal insertion of muscles was found by Rossi,[34] Heuck,[16] Dieffenbach,[10] Pflüger.[32] In some of the cases the superior rectus was found inserted back of the equator.

(*d*) Connective-tissue bands instead of muscles were found by Ahlström[1] in cases of congenital ptosis. When he laid bare the tarsal border in the left eye, no trace of the levator tendon was seen, and in the right eye only a few scattered tendon fibers were found.

(*e*) Absence of Muscle.—Lawford,[25] in a case of ptosis with divergence, found the rectus internus absent. Ahlström[1] found no trace of the levator, and Heuck[16] reports finding the same condition. Horles[18] reports a case of ptosis in which both obliques were lacking, the recti being normal. Seiler[36] found a case

of ptosis in which the inferior oblique and superior rectus of the right eye and the inferior oblique of the left eye were lacking. In another case the superior and inferior obliques of the right and the superior and inferior obliques and superior rectus of left were not found.

Steinheim,[38] in a case of congenital ptosis with defective motion of the eye, failed to find the superior rectus.

Etiology.—The etiology of ptosis leads back to the question of the cause of variation, and has been defined as the event which brings about the addition or omission of a factor. It is due either to absence of the factor for the normal development of the levator, or to the presence of an inhibitor to normal development.

Intermarriage, certainly in the last six generations, has not been a factor in the heredity of ptosis in this genealogy. Of the 128 offspring whose histories have been studied, there has been but one intermarriage, that between the affected female (No. 43) in the fourth generation and her second cousin, normal (No. 109) in the fifth generation. From this union resulted one normal male, three years old, and one male six weeks old.

There is one other instance of intermarriage between female (No. 36) and son of No. 21, who was grandson of No. 4, abnormal, two generations removed, and consequently not included in the numbered offspring. This union resulted in all normal.

It is very difficult to determine the exact anatomic cause of the anomaly. Because of their anatomic situation, it is impossible to test the muscles of the eye electrically. Koster[23] reasoned that, if the enlargement of the palpebral fissure is considered, the levator muscle of the lid exists but is paralyzed or atrophied. Since the tarsal muscle of Müller is inserted in the lower part of the tendon of the levator, if the latter is lacking, the tarsal muscle has no point of insertion and cannot raise the lid under the influence of cocain. Cocain, therefore, reveals the absence or presence of the levator. The use of this method in the author's cases examined, resulted, so far as revealing a cause, negatively.

The author thus far has not had an opportunity of operating on any case of ptosis in this genealogy, or to note the exact pathologic cause of ptosis at necropsy. He hopes, however, to operate on case No. 111, and to soon make a supplemental report of the findings.

Diagnosis.—Ptosis is either congenital or acquired, and these again may be subdivided according to the causes which produce it. It may also be unilateral or bilateral. Although some hereditary eye diseases, such as certain forms of cataract (Nettleship[31]) which occur in middle life, are not congenital, all cases of hereditary ptosis are congenital. In other words, hereditary ptosis is prenatal, manifesting itself at birth and continuously. In hereditary congenital ptosis, which is usually bilateral, there may be absence or deficiency of the levator often associated with absence or deficiency of one or more of the extrinsic muscles of the eye, most frequently the superior rectus, and most frequently of all it is associated with congenital epicanthus. There may be absence or deficiency of that portion of the third nerve supplying the levator. It is sometimes associated with sympathetic movements of the lower jaw, increasing in degree when the eye is abducted, and disappearing when it is adducted, the lid in these cases constantly retracting involuntarily when the jaw is moved to the opposite side of the ptosis (Bradburn[8]).

On the contrary, in an acquired ptosis there is usually to be found an affection of the lids, such as hypertrophy, edema, new-growth, blepharochalasis, and ptosis adiposa. It may result from trauma to the levator, or atrophy, as occurs in women of middle life, or as an early symptom of chronic progressive opthalmoplegia and myasthenia gravis. It may result from a central or cerebral degeneration. When due to a cortical lesion, it would probably be unilateral, and the only eye lesion, the other branches of the oculomotor nerve being unaffected. A nuclear lesion of the pons might produce such a lesion (Bradburn[8]). Ptosis, as a symptom, may result from constitutional diseases, such as myasthenia gravis, locomotor ataxia, toxic processes, chronic progressive ophthalmoplegia, hysteria. Acquired ptosis may also occur from

nuclear, fascicular, or basal lesions, from sphenoidal abscess and orbital lesions, and from affections of the sympathetic nerve.

The author's cases of ptosis are unique in that in no case is the ptosis complicated by any other motility defect except in the infant (No. 124), whose superior rectus did not function, and this probably not because of any defect in the muscle itself or impairment of its nerve supply *per se,* but on account of the drooping of the lid the superior rectus had never been called upon to turn the eye upward. When the child was asked to look at an object held above his horizon, he invariably tilted the head backward until the visual plane met the object, and this he did even when the lids were lifted by the observer. Observation of the eyes during sleep or under general anesthesia might have determined whether or not superduction was possible, but such opportunity was not offered.

In case No. 59 it was demonstrated that the levator had a certain amount of function, but in no other case examined could function of the levator be demonstrated.

Mendel's Theory.—The Mendelian phenomena are well illustrated in peas, mice, rabbits, poultry, and snails. Certain defects: hornless cattle—polled angus, earless sheep of China, tailless cats of Japan, short-tailed dogs and pigs are also examples of Mendelian phenomena. That we do not find more examples of Mendelian inheritance in man is due to the fact that the inbreeding necessary to bring out Mendelian segregation is not sufficiently close in man.

The eye and its appendages are subject to more hereditary diseases and malformations than in any other organ, due partly to the great number of histologic and anatomic structures concerned in its makeup, and partly to its many complicated and coördinated physiologic functions, which are so easily disturbed. Of ophthalmic disease most frequently transmitted may be mentioned: ptosis, epicanthus (Manz[27]), distichiasis, nodular and reticular opacities, corneal staphyloma, aniridia, coloboma of the iris, corectopia, cataract (Nettleship[31]), ectopia lentis, glaucoma, retinitis pigmentosa (Leber[26]), and other retinal degenerations, night blindness, nystagmus, color blindness, albinism, motility defects and errors of refraction. Of these, those showing the most marked evidence of transmission are cataract, night blindness, and motility defects, including ptosis. Most of the transmitted defects of the eye follow Mendelian rules, and, with the exception of those which are sex-linked, as color blindness and stationary night blindness, are *dominant* to the normal.

In order to discuss more intelligently the inheritance in the cases of ptosis herein reported, let us recall briefly the salient points of the Mendelian theory.

Gregor Mendel,[28] in 1865, experimenting with the edible pea (pisum sativum), took a pair of characters, tallness and shortness, and crossing the tall variety of six feet with the dwarf of one foot, it was found that the first cross-bred variety, F 1, were all tall. From the fact that the character tallness appeared in all the cross-bred, to the exclusion of the opposite character, dwarfness, Mendel called it a *dominant* character, and dwarfness, a *recessive* character. The tall, cross-bred by self-fertilization, bore seeds which produced a mixed generation, F 2, many being tall and some being short, like the tall and short grandparents, respectively, and in the ratio of about 75 per cent. tall and 25 per cent. short. The F 2 plants were again allowed to self-fertilize themselves, and it was found that the dwarfs (recessives) produced dwarfs entirely, and that further propagation of these produced pure recessives. But the tall, F 2, dominants, produced (instead of all dominants as the dwarfs produce recessives) two kinds: (*a*) plants of mixed F 3, consisting of tall and dwarfs in the proportion of three to one respectively, and (*b*) plants which gave tall only, and are those pure to tallness; the ratio of the impure (*a*) plants to the pure (*b*) being two to one. The F 2 generation dominants was composed, therefore, of three kinds of plants:

3 { *Dominants,* pure, 25 per cent.
3 { *Dominants,* impure, 50 per cent.
1 { *Recessives,* pure, 25 per cent.

Mendel found similar inheritance as above noted when all the other distinct characters in peas were used, the dominant character being shown in italics as follows: *Tallness*—shortness. *Flowers along axis* of plant or on top of plant. *Green color of unripe body*—yellow color of pods. *Shape of body inflated*—constricted between seeds. *Red seeds*—gray or brown. *Yellow cotyledons*—green. *Round seeds*—wrinkled.

Segregation and allelomorphism. Tallness (D) and dwarfness (R) (Bateson[6]) entered in the fertilized ovum in the original cross, but since the next generation showed some tall and others dwarfs, there must have been a separation (segregation) of the two characters in the process of the germ formation in the fertilized ovum (zygole) of the two characters, the segregated characters being called allelomorphic. This was shown in crossing F 1 with pure dominants and pure recessives. D R multiplied by D D gave all dominants in appearance, although composed of D R and D D plants equal in number on the average. On the other hand, D R multiplied by R R gives an equal number of dominants and recessives; the dominants being D R and the recessives being all pure recessives. This ratio of one to one, which results from D R multiplied by R R, will be referred to later in relation to the inheritance of ptosis.

If the character ptosis is dominant, the normal being recessive, there should be, in the aggregate, approximately the same number of affected and normal offspring. There were found 64 cases of ptosis and 64 normals, which conforms with mathematical precision to the rule of dominance.

In this connection it is interesting to compare the ratio of affected and normal in cases of hereditary cataracts taken arbitrarily from Nettleship's reports, as follows:

Recorder	Affected	Unaffected
Berry	20	20
Fukala	19	22
Nettleship	29	25+
Zirm	14	15
Nettleship and Ogilvie	17	25
Total	99	107

Dominants.—The following points, quoted from Bateson,[6] differentiate between dominants and recessives. "Dominant characters will, in general, be recognized as such from the fact that they are transmitted through affected persons only. The dominants will, as a rule, have one parent affected with the peculiarity and one part free from it. It is then to be expected that the children of such dominants, resulting from their marriages with unaffected persons, will show equal numbers of affected and normal. Recessive characters will be recognized by the fact that they may appear in the children of parents not exhibiting such characters, and especially among children born of consanguineous marriages. Complete proof of the recessive nature of a characteristic will be obtained only by evidence that all the children of affected parents exhibit the characteristic."

From this we reason that the author's cases conform to the Mendelian law of dominance, because—

(*a*) The transmission is thru affected persons only; there being no case where the inheritance was through an unaffected parent, except in case No. 125, a child whose mother is said to be the only normal of seven children. As this information was obtained from relatives, it is entirely possible that a slight degree of ptosis in her case might be considered normal compared to the marked degree which the other six are reported to have.

(*b*) In every case the dominants (ptosis) have one parent affected and the other parent normal. There is only one case of consanguineous marriage among the cases reported; that being between an unaffected male in the fifth generation (No. 109), wedded to an affected female (No. 43) in the fourth generation; the relationship being that of second cousins, and resulting in one affected and one normal offspring, according to the rule of dominance.

(*c*) The ratio of 64 dominants (ptosis) to 64 recessives (normals) conforms to the third qualification of dominants which requires an expectancy of an approximately equal number of normal and affected children descending from dominants (ptosis).

(*d*) That it is not a recessive charac-

ter is shown by the fact that in no case was an affected child born from normal parents, one or the other parent invariably showing the character, except in the one case, No. 125, and as this information was gained from relatives, there is a possibility of it not being correct.

(*e*) Thus far there has been no opportunity to determine what would be the result in the offspring where both parents are affected.

Sex-linkage.—Certain ocular diseases of the dominant type follow a sex-limited descent, notably color blindness and night blindness. The distinguished differences in the sex-limited, from the pure dominant types of inheritance, are that in the former—

(*a*) The males are affected more frequently than the females.

(*b*) It may be transmitted by affected males, but never by the unaffected males.

(*c*) It is transmitted by unaffected females.

(*d*) Apparently normal women, daughters and sisters of affected males, transmit the condition to their sons.

In no case in the genealogy save two was an affected child born to a normal parent. These are case No. 1, the first member of the genealogy, an affected female resulting from the union of Martin Maney, an Irish descendant, wedded to Kissia Van, a quarter Indian, both of whom had normal eyes. These cases were not examined, as they lived in the latter part of the eighteenth century, but this information comes from so many reliable sources, and especially from the oldest inhabitants in the neighborhood, that its correctness can scarcely be doubted.

Quoting from a letter from Dr. I. L. English, who was reared in that country, and has been the only physician practising there: "Martin Maney, who came when a boy from Dublin, Ireland, married an Indian. John Metcalf (No. 24) thinks that Martin Maney was little-eyed, but I learn from other old people that he was not; that when his first child (female No. 1) was born, little-eyed, the friends made alarm about the child's deformity, and its father (Martin Maney) told them to not worry, that most all his people in Ireland were little-eyed." This is the first instance of an affected child born of normal parents.

The second case is that of No. 125, sex unknown, said to be affected, born of normal female (No. 90). This family lives in middle Tennessee, and I was unable to verify the statement. It is quite possible that in a family where five of the six children have ptosis, the sixth child might, by contrast, appear normal, when in reality it might have a moderate degree of ptosis. Granting that the information is correct, it would probably mean an instance of recessiveness such as perhaps happened in the case of F 1, the first member of the genealogy. Except in these two cases the inheritance is purely dominant in character.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TONOMETER.

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This account of work done to place tonometry on a more accurate scientific basis includes some notice of inaccuracies that have heretofore been admitted, and observations regarding the normal intraocular pressure.

The features I set out to improve or eliminate in the Schiötz and Gradle tonometers (and that was all I intended doing), were:

1. To avoid the changing of weights.
2. The elimination of the chart to determine the pressure in mm. Hg.
3. Placing the reading scale nearer to the cornea, so the same person could more easily apply the tonometer and make his reading.
4. Prevention of capillary attraction between plunger and barrel, of fluid from the conjunctival sac.

I made three different tonometers, then tried modifications of them, and finally decided on one which I handed to the Meyrowitz Co. to use as a sample in constructing them on a quantity basis.

I was about three years working on one and another models, trying to overcome the several mechanical difficulties encountered before I was ready for the scale and the determination of the pressure according to the manometer.

It was not until I was ready to work out the scale that I ran against my first real snag. I constructed a testing apparatus using a Riva-Roche manometer, and of course in that type I had to use air as my medium of connection

in the tubing connecting the testing apparatus (manometer), and the testing eye.

In order to satisfy myself that everything was O. K. I tried to test it out with a Schiötz tonometer and to my surprise I could not get the tonometer and manometer to agree. I examined my apparatus, but could find nothing wrong, so put on another eye and my readings with that eye were no better than the first. I borrowed a Schiötz; but that gave me no light as to what was wrong. I used a third, with no better results. A Gradle was tried and that would not agree with the manometer. All these tonometers gave lower readings than the pressure as indicated by the manometer, and I could not determine what was wrong.

Thinking that Dr. Gradle must have worked out a testing apparatus I wrote him and received a reply that he had not been able to get a satisfactory testing apparatus; so used as his standard a Schiötz that he know to be correct.

As a could get no help from that direction I went to a professor of physics at Columbia University. He looked over my work and assured me that it was all according to the laws of physics, and if the tonometer and manometer did not agree, it was the tonometer that was at fault.

I then invited Drs. Holzapfel, Hallet, Helfrich, Marple and Schoenberg, at different times, and it was as much of a surprise to them as it had been to me to find that the Schiötz and manometer did not agree. All of these men used the instrument themselves.

Dr. Helfrich hit on the novel idea, which was to try his sense of touch to determine the pressure. I adjusted the pressure to 20 mm. (the mean normal according to Schiötz), and he pronounced it a soft eye. Then without his knowledge of the pressure I increased it until he judged it to be normal according to finger palpation, and at that time the manometer registered 40 mm. (These were enucleated eyes and his fingers were applied directly to the eyeball instead of thru the eyelids as is the custom for finger measurement of intraocular pressure.)

I repeated this stunt with Dr. Marple. He pronounced 20 mm. as a very soft eye and stopped me at 42 mm. as normal. I tried the same thing with Dr. Schoenberg with a similar result, but I failed to make a record of just what he considered normal.

The water manometer was tried and that gave me approximately the same result; and as that is more convenient to manipulate I use it exclusively now.

Dr. Marple had seen Dr. Schiötz testing apparatus, and pronounced it quite similar to mine, altho he complimented me on one or two points which he considered superior to Dr. Schiötz'. He said my method of connecting the tubing to the eyeball was an improvement as I did not have any leakage there, while Dr. Schiötz, he said, was bothered considerably with leakage. Also I had constructed an apparatus which I called a pulsator, which simulated the blood stream pulsations in the eyeball of the living. This apparatus did not alter my readings but rendered them a little more delicate.

None of these men were able to give me any clue as to why the Schiötz and manometer did not agree. I then tried some experimentation on the living animal, a summary of which is given in my article referred to, and which generally showed much higher readings with the manometer than were indicated by the Schiötz tonometer.

I was particularly fortunate just about this time in being allowed to experiment on a person whose eye was to be enucleated on account of glaucoma. I did not think it advisable to alter the intraocular pressure by manipulating the manometer while the interior of the eye was connected to the manometer; but we were able to make some changes in intraocular pressure by manipulating the anesthesia.

After this eye was enucleated I was able to make comparisons and confirm the experiment. The results of this experiment were readings indicating 50 mm. of intraocular pressure by the Schiötz tonometer and 65 mm. Hg. by the manometer.

At this stage of the proceedings Dr. Marple, who had become greatly in-

terested, asked the privilege of sending to Dr. Schiötz one of my tonometers together with a diagram of my testing apparatus and the results of the tests he had seen, and the test on the human eye, as he claimed the distinction of bringing the first Schiötz tonometer into this country.

He wanted Dr. Schiötz' criticism of my apparatus and why we failed to get the same results as Schiötz. I granted this request and it was over five months after Dr. Schiötz received the tonometer and letter that he replied. In his reply he failed to criticize the apparatus and the method of testing, which was the sole object of Dr. Marple's letter. The only remark relative to the testing he made in the letter was "Dr. McLean evidently has values different from mine. I do not understand why."

I constructed the scale from an average of over 100 tests using several tonometers. According to my tests the normal intraocular pressure with the McLean tonometer has for its lower limit 22 mm. and its upper limit not above 40 mm. An upper limit of 40 mm. may be too high for some eyes. I have seen plenty of normal cases registering as high as 40; yet I have found eyes registering not above 36 mm. where there were evidences of glaucoma. On those cases I have tried the Schiötz tonometer also, and have been able to get readings as low as 22 mm. Schiötz.

Since the experiment on the first human case I have had the privilege of two other human cases, the results of which are cited in the article.

According to the literature I could find, Weber and Wahlfors are the only other men making direct manometer experiments on the living human eye in situ. I could not find any record of Weber's conclusions. Wahlfors' test (26 mm.), which he determined to be the normal intraocular tension of that case, is above Schiötz' upper limit, but it is quite within what I have found to be the limits.

At the time I was about to read the paper at the Academy of Medicine, the chairman of the section asked if I would have a physicist go over my apparatus with the purpose of taking part in the discussion. I could not get the Columbia professor because of his absence on Sabbatical leave. I did, however, secure Prof Green of the Boys' High School. He looked over my apparatus, then requested me to demonstrate the apparatus and use both the Schiötz and McLean tonometers. He made notes of his observations and reported the same in the discussion.

Unfortunately they had no stenographer present at that meeting and the report as given in the Archives is only what the secretary had in his notes of the meeting.

FLUCTUATIONS OF REFRACTION IN DEVELOPING CATARACT.

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This paper discusses the physiologic and pathologic changes of the crystalline lens in their influence upon refraction, illustrated by a case of developing cataract observed for many years. It was read before the Wisconsin State Medical Society, October 3rd, 1918.

The important part which the crystalline lens normally plays in the refraction of the eye makes it easily conceivable that certain changes of the lens must lead to alterations of refraction. These changes are physiologic and pathologic. The physiologic changes are a natural accompaniment of the growth (with the advancing years in the course of life) of the individual, and are of great interest for the understanding of the pathology of the lens. Most important are the alterations of the dimensions and shape, consistency, and coloration of the lens. During the whole of life new lens fibers are formed from cells at the meridianal rows of the equator of the lens, so that its volume and weight increase, from the twenty-fifth to the sixty-fifth year by one-third, its diameter by one-tenth. (Priestley Smith.[1])

The increase of the volume by this new formation of fibers preponderates over the apparent simultaneous loss of the water content of the lens which produces changes of the nucleus. In consequence of the larger volume of the lens the anterior chamber of older people generally is markedly more shallow. The growth of the lens influences its shape, from the almost spherical form of the lens, if left to itself, of the newborn, to the less curved anterior surface of the senile lens, whose sagittal diameter is smaller than its equatorial diameter. Perhaps the acquired hyperopia at higher age is due to this flattening of the anterior surface of the lens.

Physiologic alterations of consistency are due to sclerosis of the lens, a process which may be compared with the cornification of the epithelium. It is characterized at first by a gradually greater hardness of the more centrally located lens fibers from loss of water. A cross section of the senile lens frequently shows the nucleus dry without luster, the cortex moist and glistening. Hess[2] found in some cases the whole nuclear portion converted into a homogeneous mass, in which no single fibers were visible. The sclerosis increases the refractive index. Halben[3] showed that loss of water alone increases the refractive index of the lens. Whether the higher index in sclerosis is due only to loss of water or also to chemical alterations of the nucleus, e. g., the greater amount of the more refracting cholesterin (Jacobson, Matthiesen), is still uncertain. The nucleus seems to grow with advancing age by supplanting the soft cortex. If this is excessive, it may develop into brunescent cataract, whose brown color differs from the normal senile lens only in degree, not in kind.

Probably in consequence of abnormal loss of water another pathologic condition with apparently normal shape of the lens is created, viz., an abnormally great difference between the central and peripheral parts of the lens which may amount to a difference in refraction of from 10 to 16 diopters. Sometimes the turning of the ophthalmoscopic mirror in such cases shows a migration of the illuminated field in the central parts opposite to that in the peripheral parts. The center of the pupil may appear less bright than the periphery, and the border between them may be indicated by a dark shadow in form of a crescent or a ring. The ophthalmoscopic examination thru the central area of the pupil may reveal more or less high myopia and thru the peripheral area a lower degree of myopia, emmetropia, or hypermetropia. From the similarity of these phenomena with those of true lenticonus, Demicheri[4] termed them spurious lenticonus.

They occur in perfectly clear lenses or in lenses that may remain clear for a long time, but also as precursors of, or in combination with, cataract.

Vision may be considerably reduced, so that extraction is indicated, but in some cases it may be improved by correction of the nuclear myopia. Hess showed that from the 25th year with advancing age the difference between the index of the nucleus and that of the adjoining cortex constantly increases. The refraction of rays at the surface of the nucleus, at equal difference of index, must be the greater the greater the curvature of this surface. As the difference of index at higher age, in which this phenomenon exclusively occurs, is considerable, relatively slight differences in the curvature of the nucleus could essentially influence the refraction. Altho these differences of shape of the surface of the nucleus have so far not been exactly investigated, Hess considers their possibility, a priori, as not too remote to serve in the explanation of the phenomenon.

Another disease of the lens without opacity consists in the formation of radial clefts immediately under the capsule, which may remain transparent for a long time. They may be invisible in certain positions of the ophthalmoscope, but on slightly tilting the mirror may shine with a lustre and again appear as darker streaks. Vision may be more or less impaired, and the patient may complain of polyopia and metamorphopsia due to development of lenticular astigmatism. Gradually the contents of these clefts may become opaque and produce cataract. The affection resembles the first stage of naphthalin poisoning of the rabbit, in which Hess showed that the cataract is preceded by the formation of spokes clear as glass. In this stage, volume and weight of the lens are regularly increased. Becker[5] considered the fine, totally reflecting clefts in the deeper strata of the cortex as the first symptom perceptible during life of incipient senile cataract. Hess, however, proved that these clefts do not lie in the deeper strata of the cortex, but closely under the capsule. He considers this proof important for the understanding of the development of cataract. As is well known, the most frequent form of senile cataract is the subcapsular cortical cataract.

With regard to pathologic alterations of the epithelium Hess examined a large series of eyes affected with various kinds of cataract. The only changes which he could find with certainty in the great majority of these eyes with senile opacities, consisted in more or less numerous irregularly bordered, vesicular vacuoles, of which he could not say whether they lay between epithelium and capsule, or closely under the epithelium, between this and the cortical fibers. He never found them in eyes with perfectly transparent lenses, but especially in comparatively early stages of subcapsular cataract, sometimes scarce, sometimes in such quantities that they gave the appearance of fine vesicular foam immediately under the capsule. He thinks that they cannot be due to anything else but accumulation of small quantities of clear fluid under the capsule, or the epithelium.

Likewise with regard to the occurrence of clear clefts previous to the development of supranuclear cataract, Hess describes a visibly not opaque lens, in which he found a bright reflecting line parallel to the equator between cortex and nucleus, composed of numerous minute clear formations, and also a large number of finest fissures between the apparently normal fibers of the most peripheral layers of the nucleus. It gave the impression as if clear fluid had accumulated in very small quantities in these formations. Hess believes that at the beginning of cataract an intussusception of fluid takes place with the microscopically demonstrated destruction of the epithelial cells, to which he attributes the pathogenesis of subcapsular cataract and the young cortical fibers, which not only anatomically but also in their biologic properties are the more related to the capsular epithelium the younger they are.

To this corresponds the increase of volume of the lens in incipient cataract,

evidenced by the greater shallowness of the anterior chamber, as also found experimentally in the first stages of naphthalin cataract. Several cases were attributed to this stage of intumescence of the lens in which, in predisposed eyes, glaucoma was brought on by swelling of the lens. The myopia preceding or accompanying the formation of cataract has been ascribed to these changes. By intussusception of water into the cortex its index will be lowered and thereby the total index increased, and also the curvature of the lens may be increased.

In the progress of cataract to maturity the lens gives out fluid to the surroundings. Its volume and weight decrease and with this the depth of the anterior chamber becomes again normal, with decrease of refraction.

As an illustration of the refractive changes due to pathologic alterations of the lens, I should like to report one of a number of cases which I had under observation for many years:

An otherwise healthy, strong man showed, when first examined at the age of 52, emmetropia, and presbyopia. In his 64th year his sight became impaired. He had developed myopia and incipient cataract, at the peripheral cortex of both eyes. Vision was corrected by R. —3.50, L. —1.00, for reading R. —1.50, L +0.75. At 65, V. R. 20/200, V. L. 20/100. His myopia had increased and was complicated by astigmatism. The ophthalmometer showed R. —1.00 180°, L. —0.75 180°. V. was corrected with R. —5.00 ⌒ —0.50 cyl. 90° to 20/30, L. —1.00 ⌒ —2.00 cyl. 90° to 20/20. For reading R. —3.50 ⌒ —0.50 cyl. 90°, L. —1.00 cyl. 90°.

In certain positions of the opthalmoscope the fundus of each eye was clearly visible, in others not, on account of sclerosis of the nucleus of the lens. The peripheral opaque spokes had not much changed. The anterior chamber was shallow. There was monocular polyopia.

In each of the following years the spheres and cylinders had to be increased, vision gradually decreasing even under correction. At the age of 70 he received the maximum, viz.: R. —10.00 ⌒ —2.00 cyl. 90°, V. = 20/100, L. —6.00 ⌒ —4.50 cyl. 90°, V. = 20/50. At 72 V. with these glasses was the same. V. without glasses was fingers at 6 feet.

The ophthalmoscopic examination revealed R. clear red reflex, dimmed in the center by the sclerotic nucleus, details visible, no changes of the retina. Cataract not progressed. Left Eye: The same picture of sclerosis with slight opacities at the equator. Sugar was found in the urine for the first time, but there were no other diabetic symptoms. It certainly had nothing to do with the affection of the lens.

At 75, details of fundus could be seen in left eye, not in the right. The sclerosis of the nucleus had increased. The swelling of the lens had decreased as indicated by the less shallow anterior chamber, and also refraction, which was now: R. —9.00 ⌒ —1.00 cyl. 90°, V. = 20/100, L. —6.00 ⌒ —3.75 cyl. 90°, V. = 20/50, i. e., vision had remained the same. It had not changed in the next four years, but myopia and astigmatism at 79 had further decreased to R. —7.00, V. = 20/100, L. —5.00 ⌒ —2.00 cyl. 90°, V. = 20/50.

At 81 V. with these glasses was, R. 20/200, a little less, V. L. 20/70. The ophthalmoscope showed R. faint red reflex, some opaque cortex on temporal side, clear on nasal side, nucleus opaque. Left: Cortex pretty clear except a few spokes, nucleus diffusely opaque, but details of fundus faintly visible. With R. —2.50 he reads large print; with L. —2.00 cyl. 90°, No. 1 Jaeger at 6 inches, No. 2 at 9 inches, and No. 4 at 11 inches. The patient was a very assiduous reader, and read with these glasses for many hours every day without discomfort.

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THE NONOPERATIVE TREATMENT OF SENILE CATARACT.

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This paper considers the etiology and forms of partial senile cataract, describes the method of treatment for it, and gives in statistics results obtained.

Senile cataract is a condition which concerns a very large proportion of the human race. While apparently more common among certain peoples than others, none are exempt. It may almost be regarded as an accompaniment of old age just as is gray hair.

One observer has found that opacification of the crystalline lens of greater or lesser degree is present in over 90 per cent of all people past the age of sixty-five. Among white races it occurs frequently as early as forty.

When opacification has begun, its rate of progress is very uncertain. A cataract may become mature in two or three months or it may remain immature for thirty-five years or more. Failing sight of old age, not correctible by glasses, is very often due to this condition. Fortunately this opacification usually takes place at the periphery of the lens, beyond the pupillary area, and thus does not generally interfere with vision. However, the pupillary region is involved with sufficient frequency to reduce the acuteness of vision in many elderly people.

Etiology.—Aside from the cataracts occurring in general diseases as in diabetes, or those following the ingestion of poisons as naphthalin, ergot, etc., and that which is frequent among certain vocations as in glass blowing, we know very little of its etiology. Neither do we know much about its prophylaxis. The question that interests us is: Can the progress of opacification of the crystalline lens be checked or prevented? The attitude of ophthalmologists generally has been that the condition must go on to maturity and the cataract then be removed surgically.

While it is absolutely unnecessary to allow a patient to await the blindness that comes with a mature cataract before resorting to operative intervention, it is also a mistake to operate before the development has reached such a stage as to interfere with business or pleasure. Roughly that stage is reached when vision has fallen to 50 per cent. When it has been reduced to less than 50 per cent there is no need to temporize further, and the cataract should be removed surgically. It is, however, before a loss of 50 per cent has occurred that nonoperative measures should be used to avoid subjecting the patient to an indefinite period of worry and impaired efficiency.

Many remedies have been suggested for the arrest or absorption of cataracts. But it has remained for Col. Henry Smith of Amritsar, India, to put the nonoperative treatment on a more definite basis. By that method in over 80 per cent of our cases, the opacification has been checked or the vision improved. But to obtain these results the treatment must be begun before vision has fallen to half of normal, and carried out in detail. The earlier the treatment is instituted the better the result. The permanency of the treatment is, however, uncertain. With some patients the improvement lasts only a few months, with others the improvement has remained after a period of over four years, the time when we first commenced this treatment. But if this particular treatment does not improve the vision it can do no harm as there is practically no danger from this procedure. We have not had a single deleterious result. Should an operation for cataract be necessary later it is probably an advantage to have had this treatment previously because of the apparent general improvement in eyes following this treatment. The greatest objection that may be raised is the severe pain often produced which may last for several hours.

Type of Cataract and Histologic Changes.—The type of cataract which

best responds to this treatment is the simple, uncomplicated senile with radial or diffuse opacification. Dense nuclear or subcapsular cataracts will not be affected materially by this treatment. The pupil should be first dilated in order to exclude retinal changes, especially the senile macular degenerations. These will often account for failure to obtain improvement in vision for which the treatment would otherwise be blamed.

Ophthalmoscopic examination of the lens after treatment will show little apparent change in spite of the improvement in vision as only the finest opacities seem to be affected rather than the larger ones.

Method of Procedure.—The patient should be in a bed in a hospital. Near the bed, within easy reach, should be an electric stove with a basin of hot boric solution for compresses. The eye is anesthetized with three drops of 4 per cent cocain solution instilled at intervals of five minutes. Twenty mm. of 1-4000 cyanide of mercury solution is drawn into a freshly sterilized glass syringe with a small needle. To this 2 mm. of sterile 4 per cent cocain is added. The needle is then inserted under the conjunctiva just below the external rectus and about 1 cm. from the limbus in an area free from blood vessels, and the solution slowly injected. A large bleb of conjunctiva is raised. The hot compresses are applied at once and maintained as long as the patient has pain. It is about the only thing that gives relief. A hypodermic of morphin may be necessary. The eye is compressed three times daily for three or four days afterwards.

The treatment as described above is that as given by Col. Smith. In addition to this the writers have found it of great value to institute auxilliary treatment that is carried out by the patient at home, over a period of from four to six months. One week after the injection the patient is given a 1 per cent solution of K. I. which is to be used as an eye bath in an eye cup for five minutes every morning, and every other night. On the alternate night the patient puts one drop of 2 per cent dionin in the eye. The strength of the dionin is increased 2 per cent each month until an 8 per cent solution is used. This method of using dionin and K. I. has been highly lauded by other writers, and used in connection with the Smith treatment we have found it very satisfactory.

The injection is given only once. Whether repeating the injection would be beneficial we are not prepared to say as we have not tried it.

The results given below were those obtained in private practice, and included 72 eyes.

	Cases	Per cent
Improved	42	58.5
Arrested	18	25
Cataract progressed ...	12	16.5

The degree of improvement in vision ranged from 11 per cent to 150 per cent. In twenty-five cases or 36 per cent of those injected, there was an improvement in vision of 11 to 40 per cent.

In sixteen cases or 22 per cent of those injected there was an improvement in vision of 50 per cent or better.

The period of observation ranged from a few weeks to four and one-half years.

The vision a day or two after injection is usually lower than just prior to injection, but improves very rapidly thereafter and reaches its maximum about one week after. The conjunctiva becomes greatly swollen so that it may protrude between the lids for a few days. The redness persists for three or four weeks. After this the eyes feel "stronger" and the patient reads and sews with much more comfort than before.

Conclusion. From our experience and the observation of others who have given the treatment a thoro trial, this method has been a decided help in conserving vision at a time of life when even a few months or years of sight is worthy of consideration.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

OPTOTYPE FOR YOUNG CHILDREN.

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We have all experienced the difficulties arising in taking the vision of young children from the so-called kindergarten test-charts. The very obvious failings of these, suggested this attempt to provide a system which will be at once practical and efficient.

In a review of the literature it was surprising how little careful work had been done along these lines. Such charts as are in common use—those of Reber, Seitz, Ettles, Wolffberg, Thorington, etc., represent fairly well the entire field, the most pronounced faults being in the selection of the characters:

1. Which are made in silhouette, line, shading and combination of these.
2. The names of which may easily be confused.
3. Employing a multiplicity of characters.
4 Which are markedly inaccurate as a measure of visual acuity.
5. Representing objects unfamiliar to the young child.

One factor which seems to have been neglected by many authors is the one of the child's physical condition. The charts are stated to be arranged for children and illiterates but it will be noted that they often present figures far beyond the child's comprehension. Surely we need the help of what little understanding the child has. Illiterates may be either mentally deficient or of normal adult mind, and the chart if constructed to reach the young child, can be followed by them, but not the reverse. With this in mind it seems fair to allow 50 per cent to favor the child's mentality and the other half to gain the visual acuity.

From a study of the statistics we find that the average child in the public schools of Greater New York does not know his letters in a dependable way until he can read, nearly the age of seven and a half, and though he may know his numbers slightly under this age, at six and a half years, he is likely to give unsatisfactory answers at the time of testing. In New York City the child enters kindergarten at the age of five, and elementary school at the age of six, so that these are the ones we need most to reach when the relatively heavy work takes its first toll.

In the construction of characters for a chart certain principles are to be followed:

1. The characters are to conform as nearly as possible to the international standard, particularly in structural and visual value.
2. A circle, or ring is to be used to form the body-structure on which the characters are built.
3. One-minute projections or interruptions of the body are to measure the capacity to perceive and recognize the individual characters.
4. There are to be few characters, as the child's vocabulary and concentrating ability are not to be overtaxed.
5. The characters are to be familiar to a child three or four years old.

In going over many characters used in kindergarten work, and in studying drawings made by small children, particular note was made of those which attracted the young child most and which he reproduced most successfully. After trying many of these it was found impossible to construct test characters from most of them, using a one-minute line and maintaining the five-minute size object. When finished most of them were so out of proportion as to be hard to recognize, or they formed undesirable black masses.

Those finally employed were:

1. *The Circle.* This is simply the body on which the others are built. It subtends an angle of five minutes, the rim is of one-minute width.
2. *The Cat's Head.* The circle forms the body of the character and each ear represents a one-minute mass. The features were made small so that the lower figures would not appear gray at six meters distance.

3. *The Man's Head*, built on the same circle is distinguished from the cat and other characters, merely by recognizing that the projections are at the sides, thus forming a hat-brim. The crown is formed by an arc of short radius. The brim is formed by one-minute masses.

4. *The Apple* is recognized by its stem which projects one minute above the rim of the circle and is the same in width.

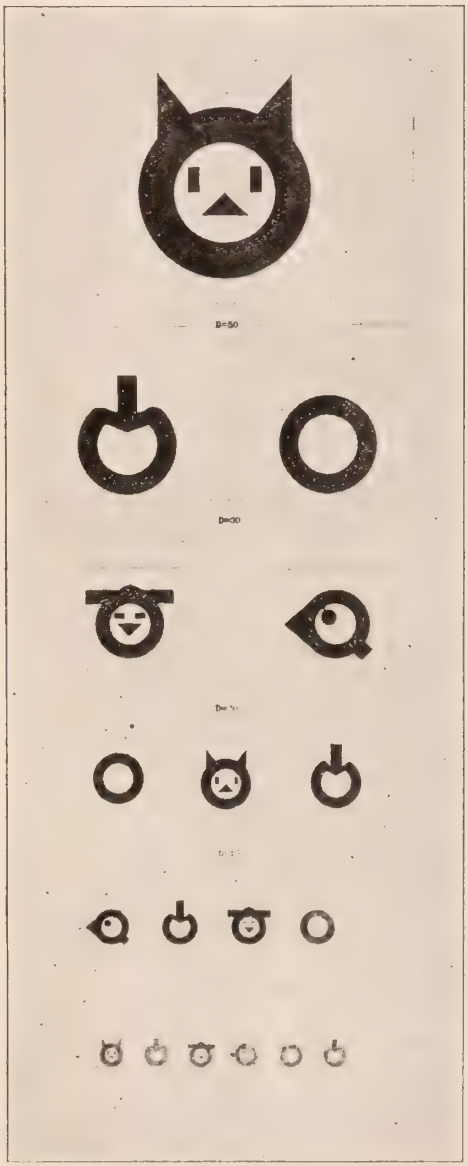


Fig. 1. Optotype for Young Children (Evans).

5. *The Bird's Head* is formed on the circle by adding a one-minute mass for a bill and another for a neck. The latter, as well as the eccentrically placed eye, seem necessary to make the picture complete to the child.

Much develops in the use of the chart which is of interest to the psychologist.

There are many names by which the other characters are called: Cat, fox, tiger, etc., man, monkey, pumpkin, etc., apple, cherry, plum, etc., bird, chicken, bird's eye, etc., circle, hoop, wheel, ring, etc.

Some of the advantages of this test-chart are:

1. The chart has given good results with children as young as three years.
2. It can be used with ease in dispensary and office work.
3. It is not necessary to describe or point to locate the one-minute section, naming the character is proof that it is seen.
4. It requires only simple direct answers.
5. The names of characters are not easily confused with each other.
6. There are many names for each character, allowing the child to answer quickly and not overtaxing its small store of names.
7. The figures are such as have been learned in the child's own experience and represent very familiar objects, as he himself draws them.
8. It is a very satisfactory test for any illiterate.
9. It may be used with mirrors.
10. It supplies a practical "one-minute" test.

INDICATIONS FOR OPERATION IN UNILATERAL CATARACT

Dr. Francisco M. Fernandez.

HAVANA, CUBA.

What should be the attitude of the ophthalmologist towards those frequent cases of unilateral cataract?

This subject has been debated and some authorized opinions have been

given in favor and against surgical intervention.

There are really many cases in which the opacity of the lens affects only one eye, while the other eye remains with a degree of vision normal or nearly so, but before giving our opinion about our way of thinking in these cases, we believe that they should be grouped according to their age.

The traumatic or congenital cataracts of children and early youth have often a hard nucleus and although they are rarely unilateral, and most commonly occur in both eyes, one should consider what to do in unilateral cases. In traumatic cases, which are as a rule unilateral, when there is no rapid spontaneous absorption, which so often happens, one should operate, after waiting for some time for the spontaneous absorption to occur[1]. Otherwise, if the cases are left unoperated, in many of them there may occur a strabismus more or less defined, due to the lack of control upon the affected eye and the disturbance of the normal binocular vision. With the operation, strabismus can usually be avoided.

Not all the cataracts of early youth are hard and it could be said that most cases are not, but it is convenient in all cases to operate by any of the different procedures in use. The one we generally follow is that followed by our worthy teacher[2] which consists in the discission or needling operation. We do not make use of the extraction method in order to avoid disagreeable complications, and in children one can practice a series of discissions without any of the dangers that may arise after a simple extraction. This method is also more easy to follow in children.

After the first 20 years of life, these cases vary in the treatment to be followed. Now we do not have to treat with the soft cataracts of children and youth, and the semisolid and hard cases are more frequent. The operative indications are not so imperative as in the previous series, but operation should be done in all traumatic cases, even after waiting some time for the absorption to occur. Even considering the operated eye, nonuseful from the standpoint of vision, on account of the high refraction of this eye as compared with the normal in the other eye, it is always a source of reserve to be used in a possible loss of the other eye, especially when the patient's occupation is a hazardous one.

The operated eye is really a reserve strength, and could be used only with a strong glass, but as this often produces some mortification to the patient, he ends by not using any correcting glass. This does not mean that the eye is worthless, and although there is no binocular vision, on account of the difference in refraction between the eyes, the operated eye can be used at times.

Concerning the esthetic effect, we agree with Zbikowski[3] that many people consider it a disagreeable thing to have a white pupillary space, as is the appearance in the affected eye, as compared with the normal black appearance of the pupil in the sound eye. This fact may be taken as another indication for operation in young people.

In old people, or people over 40 years old, the chief indication for operation in senile cataract should be the possibility of the other eye becoming affected and that the patient may become blind in both eyes at the same time. Another indication is when an over-ripe cataract may give rise to symptoms as of a foreign body in the eye and afterwards cause a secondary glaucoma.

What we have mentioned is in relation to cases of senile or uncomplicated cataract, but there is another group of cases in which the cataract is not senile, without being traumatic. We refer to some cases of cataract due to local affections like iritis, keratitis, and the like, and those due to some general disease like diabetes. In this group of cases our usual conduct is to refrain from operation in order to avoid unnecessary complications, but there are some cases in which an operation is indicated we do so by means of the combined extraction method.

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DIFFERENTIAL MYDRIASIS. ATROPIN, COCAIN AND EUPHTHALMIN.

GEORGE C. ALBRIGHT, M. D.

IOWA CITY, IOWA.

It would seem that so common a subject as mydriasis and the action of the various mydriatics would be unable to furnish anything of interest. However, there has come under my observation a case in which the reaction of the pupils to the different mydriatics was so marked that it led me to an investigation of the literature on this subject. The scarcity of reported cases and the absence of comment on the different mydriatics would lead one to believe that the subject is not so common as at first supposed.

Mydriatics fall into two groups; those which produce mydriasis by paralysis of the myoneural junction of the sphincter pupillae, and those which produce their effect by stimulation of the dilatator fibers. Atropin and euphthalmin are examples of the first group, while cocain represents the second group. Both groups act locally (Roemer[1]). Cushny[2] points out this differential action very clearly.

It is an old saying that atropin paralyses the sphincter, while cocain stimulates the dilatator fibers. According to de Schweinitz[3] the existence of a dilatator muscle in the iris is denied by some authors, but the combined anatomic and physiologic evidence of its presence seems to be conclusive. All agree that there is a definite myotic tract and a definite mydriatic tract. It is also accepted that atropin acts upon the myotic tract, and that cocain acts on the mydriatic tract.

There may be also a marked difference observable in the reaction of the pupil of different individuals at various ages. As a rule (Jackson, personal communication) elderly people respond better to cocain than to atropin. In children the reverse is true. A few cases have been observed in which there is no mydriasis, following the use of atropin in adults.

The case which I wish to report is one in which there was a marked difference in the reaction of the pupil to atropin and to cocain; the former producing only slight mydriasis, the latter producing prompt, full mydriasis. The action of euphthalmin was also tested independently and found to be practically the same as that of atropin. I might note here that all the drugs used were fresh and that their therapeutic action was tested by direct comparison in the eyes of several other patients.

Mr. D., aged 54, laborer, consulted me January 2nd, 1917, for eye trouble which began about three months previous, when he was struck in the right eye by a piece of flying stone. There was some pain, no dimness of vision. The next day the eye felt fairly well. About one month later there began to be dimness of vision which gradually increased until now he sees only large objects. There is no previous trouble in the right eye; left eye, no history of trouble.

Examination showed right vision 6/60, corrected with myopic correction to 6/10; left vision, 6/6. Near vision, right J 12 corrected to J 1 at 22 to 28 cm.; left, J 6 corrected to J 1 at 22 to 48 cm. No muscle error, no ciliary injection, no conjunctival inflammation, no plus tension. Cocain 5 per cent, euphthalmin 5 per cent instilled in each eye. Pupils did not dilate well. Right fundus, fine floating opacities in the vitreous, no cataract, no evidence of glaucoma, no conus. Left fundus, negative. There was a badly deflected septum. Sinus examination was practically negative except for a slight amount of pus in each antrum. A diagnosis of uveitis, right, was made. The patient was put in the hospital on pilo-

carpin sweats. Locally atropin 1 per cent, dionin 5 per cent, were used; the pupils would not dilate. The atropin was increased gradually, even using powdered atropin, until signs of toxicity developed, the patient growing irrational, but still no dilation. The blood Wassermann was negative, none made on the spinal fluid. There was a marked local and general reaction to 1 mg. of O. T., and to 3 mg. of O. T. The patient observed that his vision was better after each injection of tuberculin The opacities were fewer, apparently. The vision was not tested.

January 8th, 1917, against advice he left the hospital. He came to my office, where the size of the pupils, 4 mm., was noted and cocain 5 per cent, and euphthalmin 5 per cent again instilled. Much to my surprise the pupils dilated to 7 mm. each, and I requested the patient to return to the hospital that the internes might observe the dilatation secured by cocain which we had been unable to secure with atropin.

From January 8th, 1917, to January 30th, 1917, I made numerous attempts to secure mydriasis with atropin and also with cocain. The results obtained were uniform with the first results above noted and were observed by several other physicians. It is worth noting that cocain each time produced good, prompt mydriasis. If instilled when the pupils were under the effect of atropin, mydriasis was secured a little wider than when not under the influence of atropin. When euphthalmin was used alone, mydriasis was secured between 4 and 5 mm.

Summing up my observations of the case; first, there was no mydriasis, either eye, secured by atropin carefully applied, pupils 3 to 4 mm.; second, euphthalmin alone secured some mydriasis, 4 to 5 mm.; third, cocain alone produced prompt mydriasis, 6 to 7 mm.; fourth, cocain, 5 per cent, and euphthalmin, 5 per cent, secured prompt mydriasis; fifth, cocain in the atropinized eye secured widest mydriasis, 7 mm.

Although having no bearing directly upon the subject, the patient's vision when he passed from under observation, January 30th, 1917, was unimproved but was as good as when first seen; 6/12 right, 6/6 left with correction. Repeated efforts to locate him since have failed.

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UNILATERAL OPTIC NEURITIS.

CLARENCE A. VEASEY, M. D., F. A. C. S.

SPOKANE, WASHINGTON.

Two isolated cases are recorded below because it is believed there are some points of unusual interest pertaining to each.

CASE 1. *Unilateral optic neuritis following the extraction of senile cataract.* D. J. B., aged about sixty, was first seen February 18th, 1913. There was a macula in the center of the left cornea which, according to the patient, had been present since an attack of scarlet fever in childhood. The lens was cataractous and mature. Light perception and light projection were good. In the right eye the lens contained numerous opacities, but the cataract was not yet mature.

Extraction of cataract from the left eye was advised, the probability of the macula interfering to a considerable extent with the central visual acuity subsequently explained, and on July 3rd, 1913, the operation was performed by the combined method without complications. After healing the patient was glassed, obtaining 6/22 vision, but unable to read ordinary type because of the corneal macula.

On March 14, 1914, the cataract in the right eye being mature, it was extracted by the combined method. Patient was quite nervous during the operation and a small amount of vitreous was lost. Convalescence was uneventful, there being no further complications. On April 21st following, the thickened capsule was needled at the hospital. There was no complica-

tion and the patient read with glasses Jaeger 2, having 6/12 vision.

On May 14th, about three weeks later, the patient presented himself at the office, stating that he was unable to read the small type any longer. Examination showed a good opening in the capsule, the media clear, but the patient could read only Jaeger 6, and it was impossible to improve the vision beyond this amount. Further examination revealed what was apparently a swelling of the optic disc. Never having had the opportunity to observe a case of optic neuritis in an eye from which the lens had been extracted, it was rather difficult to determine whether the rounded edge of the disc was normal or pathologic. In two weeks more, however, there was absolutely no doubt, distinct optic neuritis being present. Vision which had been 6/12 with glasses was reduced to 6/45, and could not be improved.

Examination of the urine was negative as to albumin and sugar, but the patient was passing a somewhat smaller amount than normal. No blood examination was made. Examination of the nasal accessory sinuses was also negative. As this was before the time we were looking for focal infections, his tonsils and his teeth were not examined.

The fundus of the other eye could be distinctly seen, notwithstanding the macula, and there were no changes either in the media or in the optic nerve.

The patient was given the usual sweating treatment, together with mercury and the iodides, and on November 2nd, 1914, the swelling of the optic nerve had entirely subsided, and with glasses he could read with the right eye Jaeger 3, and his distant vision equalled 6/12.

It must be rather unusual to have an optic neuritis follow the extraction of senile cataract, either as a complication or coincidence, and the case is reported for that reason.

Case 2. *Unilateral optic neuritis following a blow on the frontal region.* Mrs. A. H. M., a married woman, who had enjoyed apparently good health, consulted me September 4th, 1909. She stated that three weeks before she had received a severe blow on the forehead about three inches above the right eye. No disturbance of any kind was observed for two weeks, but about one week before presenting herself for examination she noticed considerable fogginess in the vision of the right eye. Two days before she was first seen only light perception remained. The vision was, for R., L. P., and for L. 5/5.

Examination of R. showed a marked and extensive optic neuritis, the edges of the disc being everywhere blurred, no hemorrhages being present. The media and fundus of the left eye were normal.

The patient's nasal accessory sinuses transilluminated well, there was no free pus in the nares and no indication of any sinus disease. No crepitus could be elicited.

She was given mercurial inunctions and rapidly increasing doses of iodid of sodium. In a few days' time the vision began to improve. On October 16th, 1909, the swelling of the nerve head had so subsided that the nerve was distinctly pale, and injections of strychnia into the temple were employed. On December 3rd, 1909, there was distinct optic nerve atrophy, so far as the pallor of the nerve head was concerned; but the vision for the right eye equalled 5/6+ and remained so until the patient passed from observation which was some months later.

It is believed that in this case the blow on the frontal region, altho a considerable distance above the orbital cavity, produced a periostitis or some other disturbance at the apex of the orbit which in turn gave rise to the optic neuritis. The patient having only light perception at the time of presenting herself for treatment and 5/6+ at the time treatment was discontinued is to be considered exceedingly fortunate.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Annual Congress held in London, May 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

President, Mr. J. B. Story, Dublin.

The President expressed his high appreciation of the honor conferred upon him by his colleagues, in electing him to fill the chair of the Congress. The Society, he said, was much indebted to its past Presidents, and to none more than Mr. Treacher Collins, who steered the bark of their fortunes through the stormy weather of the last years of war. It was largely due to him that the last Congress was such a success.

On that occasion the discussion on plastic surgery of the eyelids excited very great interest, and the exhibition of cases, photographs and casts made a deep impression on those privileged to attend the meeting, or who visited the Plastic Hospital at Sidcup. The same subject had been chosen by the Bowman Lecturer this year, Professor Morax. The discussion also on Contagious Diseases of the Conjunctiva, held at Swanley, was also a pleasant and important feature of last year's Congress.

He also expressed satisfaction that the Oxford Ophthalmological Society and the Midland Ophthalmological Society had become affiliated with the larger body. He was now happy to state that three other societies had also been affiliated: the North of England, the Egyptian, and the Irish.

Among the deaths during the past year, he wished to specially mention four, two of them Original Members—Dr. John Couper and Dr. Thomas Buzzard, Mr. Devereux Marshall had died in Bombay on active service, of cholera. He believed Mr. Marshall was at one time Secretary of the Society, and he had served on its Council. Another whose name he would mention was Sir James Mackenzie Davidson, whose work on the localisation of foreign bodies in the eye by means of X-rays was familiar to all. He concluded by a reference to the special subjects for discussion at the present Congress.

On the initiative of Sir Anderson Critchett, the President was cordially thanked for his address.

Abiotrophy of Retinal Neuro-Epithelium.

Mr. Treacher Collins read a paper on Abiotrophy of the Retinal Neuro-epithelium, or *"Retinitis Pigmentosa."* He pointed out that the pathologic examination of several eyes with retinitis pigmentosa had shown that the affection might occur without sclerosis of the choroidal blood vessels, and that the primary change appeared to be a degeneration of the rods and cones. As the condition is hereditary, he suggested that the degeneration might most aptly be described as an abiotrophy. From this standpoint, its various accompaniments might be explained as follows:

The increase in the neuroglia of the retina is similar to that met with in various forms of neuronic abiotrophy, and not like what occurs in sclerosis where there is an increased firmness in consistency. Secondly, the pigmentation of the retina is caused by the degeneration of the rods and cones, together with their attached nuclei, leaving spaces in the membrana limitans externa, through which the pigment epithelial cells, or their pigment granules, can migrate. Such migration he considered was probably due to the physiologic capacity for movement in the direction of light, which these cells and granules possess.

The light-coloured dots sometimes seen in the retina, and the hyaline nodules occasionally met with on the optic disc, are of the same nature; and are due to hyalin degeneration of cells derived from the outer layer of the secondary optic vesicle, from the pigment epithelium overlying the choroid, and

the neuroglia in the optic papilla. In typical cases the degeneration of the neuroepithelium commences where it is first fully developed. Around the macula, which, being last developed, is last involved. This is why sight begins to fail in the form of a ring scotoma.

Night blindness, the earliest symptom, is due to the failure of vision commencing in the part of the retina which, in the dark-adapted eye, is the most sensitive to light, that is 10° to 20° from the fovea. Typical cases of retinitis pigmentosa occur in which the macula alone is involved. There being no blood vessels at the macula, there are, in these cases, no branching pigment patches, only scattered dots and granules of pigment. The deafness and affections of the nervous system met with in association with retinitis pigmentosa are also due to abiotrophy.

Discussion: Professor Herbert Parsons remarked on the danger of labeling a diseased condition with a particular term, and considering that this explained it. Even if it were an abiotrophy, one had to get behind that and try to ascertain the causation. He did not think it would be difficult to oppose arguments to each thesis set up by the author, if there were time.

Sir Anderson Critchett spoke of the way subjects of retinitis pigmentosa were helped by wearing yellow glasses. He asked whether members had had experience with Crookes glasses (which take out the purple rays) for this condition. The subject was also discussed by Mr. R. Greeves and Mr. M. S. Mayou.

Sclerectomy for Glaucoma.

Mr. George Young read a paper on results of double sclerectomy operation for glaucoma. The paper was founded on 12 cases. The reduction in tension had been, so far, permanent: there had been no bad results over periods of several months to two years. The incision must be as near the limbus as possible, and he emphasized the necessity of making a second opening. The operation which he described could now be done on cases of acute glaucoma. It was not disfiguring and there were no relapses. The President considered the operation easy compared with other procedures.

Glaucoma Operations.

Lieut.-Col. Herbert contributed a paper on the future glaucoma operation. He said that in India cases of glaucoma were always far advanced when seen, and he had been driven back to the iris prolapse operation. An incision was made by puncture and counter-puncture, with a 1 mm. Graefe knife: the incision was entirely subconjunctival. In advanced glaucoma the incision could be safely made of almost any size. This operation was free from the disasters which might attend iridectomy for the condition. The whole operation could be performed without emptying the anterior chamber, and its chief feature was the sufficient widening of the filtration area. He described the technic in minute detail.

Contracted Sockets.

Mr. R. R. Cruise read a paper on contracted sockets in which he described a procedure to enable a socket which had been disorganized by injury to hold a glass eye.

Discussion: Mr. C. Higgens showed a number of soldiers on whom he had performed various operations for the same purpose, and demonstrated the procedure followed in each case.

Mr. W. Sinclair discussed Eye Complications in Cerebro-spinal Meningitis, and Mr. Percival J. Hay read a paper describing some new test-types.

VISUAL REQUIREMENTS OF AVIATORS.

On Thursday afternoon members assembled at the Psychological Laboratory, University College, where a discussion was held on the subject of Visual Requirements of Aviators.

Stereoscopic Vision.

Professor Spearman delivered an address on stereoscopic vision, which had been decided by many people, in-

cluding Americans, to be the most important factor in the visual fitness of aviators, especially in regard to successful landings, a source of much mortality among fliers. He divided his remarks into (1) a method of testing stereoscopic vision in candidates, (2) suggestions as to means of improving the vision of aviators.

This faculty had to be differentiated from quasistereopsis or the power of appreciating depth, which depended on the clues at the disposal of either eye alone. In stereoscopic vision, each eye had to form a good image, and that depended, principally, on the optical excellence of the iris. It seemed to be considered that for binocular vision all that was required was for both eyes to function, instead of only one. But there was only one visual field in consciousness, tho there were two ocular fields; and both ocular and conscious fields could not function with regard to the same spot at the same time. It was seldom that both eyes acted simultaneously: that was sometimes due to asymmetric astigmatism. It was important to try to find out how the ocular movements tested the balance of muscles. The eyes took up the right position for clear seeing if given plenty of time, but it did not necessarily follow they would do so when speed was essential. A test embracing the following of a moving field was therefore necessary.

Results of Ocular Examinations.

Mr. A. R. Brailey tabulated his results in the ocular examination of about four thousand candidates for the air service. The visual standard was, at first, very high, but later it was somewhat relaxed, and the fitting of lenses to the flying masks was permitted, and they proved quite satisfactory. Some officers asked for a difference in the shape, and others requested tinted glasses on account of glare. The lowest vision permitted was 6/18 with the better eye, 6/24 with the worse, corrected by glasses to 6/6 and 6/9 respectively. Binocular vision and a good sense of perspective were not always found to go together.

No rejections were made on account of faults of muscle balance, apart from actual squint. Flying failures were not found to be more numerous among the wearers of glasses than among others. Perception of the parallactic movement of objects he regarded as the all-important factor, but this he had found it difficult to assess by any test. When making a landing at a high speed, it was difficult to see the details of objects, and in that operation he did not think stereoscopic vision could be of great assistance. Little could be done in the way of correction of muscle defects by any form of training, however continuously carried out. Before candidates were accepted, details of their heterophoria should be available, both before and after treatment. For this service, a more important matter than acuity of vision in itself was the precision and rapidity of coordination between eye and brain: it was useless for a man to see perfectly unless he could accurately interpret, and act quickly in accordance with his perception. Flyers could not be selected by medical examination alone, any more than an efficient cricket team could be so selected from among the boys in a school: in flying, pluck, resource and response to stimuli were more important than medical perfection, especially in war time. Still, medical examination was important in regard to stress and fatigue, especially at high altitudes. Standards of light and color sensibility should be set up, so that parents could know, years beforehand, whether their sons were likely to attain to them. One very successful flying man in the service had 5 D. of myopia in each eye, and (probably as a result of wearing glasses) he had but indifferent binocular vision. A too stringent standard would exclude many otherwise desirable men.

Discussion: Major Clements said 26% of the men who came under his observation had glasses ordered, and they were turned down on account of bad landings. He described in detail the tests he employed and the results obtained. Of 294 men, 60% who were rejected on account of having made

bad landings had been in clerical or other close occupations. He had much of interest to say as to actual flying. The way in which the aviator knew whether he was flying level demonstrated the importance of good peripheral perception. The good flier looked at his horizon and used the nose of the machine as a protractor for measuring the flying angle.

Professor J. H. Parsons spoke of the need of research in this matter, of which the work done by Professor Spearman was a good example. This was the more needed on account of the already large amount of literature on the subject, too large a proportion of which was merely speculative. One of these important questions was that of heterophoria, and researches on the subjects coming within the scope of the present discussion should be against controls, as was the case in any well-conducted scientific inquiry.

Mr. Ernest Clarke spoke of the importance of testing under homatropin in every case, in order to exclude latent hypermetropia. Nearly all the men he had examined because they had crashed had hyperopic astigmatism, but they had been passed as what was termed "practically normal."

Col. Flack referred to the large range of capacity in candidates for the Service, and said that two very important questions had to be asked in this connection: (1) Was he likely to acquire the art of flying? (2) Was he likely to be able to stand the wear and tear of flying? He emphasized the point that a man with good arm and leg movement and coördination might fly successfully, even tho he might not have perfect vision. In regard to the second point, if a man's vision could be easily deteriorated by fatigue, that was a man one had to watch. But men's eyes could be greatly improved by rest and training. He thought a military pilot should have visual tests at varying altitudes for a period of at least one hour: An ophthalmic specialist should be there to test the vision. Even then much would remain to be settled. He thanked Professor Parsons for his suggestion as to research on this subject.

THE BOWMAN LECTURE.

Plastic Operations on the Orbital Region.

Professor Morax delivered the Bowman Lecture, taking as his subject "Plastic Operations on the Orbital Region, Including Reflection of the Orbital Cavity, Eyebrows and Eyelids." The author opened with a felicitous acknowledgment in the name of France of the high honor conferred on him, and thru him, on French ophthalmology, by asking him to deliver this lecture.

He said the prime motive for wishing to restore the appearance of the face when functional disability was not present was the avoidance of the unsettling curiosity manifested by the people met in the street, with which must be coupled the fear that his obvious defect would cause a lessening of affection on the part of those he held in esteem.

There should be avoidance of the use of tissues in the formation of a flap in the regions of motor nerves, and the utmost degree of asepsis must be insisted on. He found the skin surface was sufficiently sterilized by sterilized soap and tincture of iodin; any organisms remaining on them were generally saprophytic. Hairy flaps sometimes harbored saprophytic organisms, and these might afterwards cause little foci of suppurative folliculitis. It was necessary to devise a method of securing more perfect sterilization of hairy flaps.

When the conjunctival mucous membrane was alone at stake, one usually succeeded with physiologic salt solutions, with instillations of zinc sulphat or silver nitrat. It was easier for the lacrimal mucous membrane to be a source of infection. Some failures in this region had been due to operations having been done when there was latent dacryostitis, and in such cases the extirpation of the lacrimal sac and its diverticula would alone be efficacious, the lacrimal canaliculi being excised.

With regard to repairs of injuries to the *brows,* by burning or the explosion of powder, when only one brow has been involved, it was easy to detach its breadth, leaving a nasal pedicle, then fixing the isolated flap in an incision made symmetrically on a level with the upper margin of the orbit. When both eyebrows are destroyed, there must be recourse to nonpedicled hairy flaps, and these were less certain in results. He used for these cases flaps from the occipital region, fixing them in position by several mattress sutures. One disadvantage was that the hair on the new flap grew rapidly, and one of his cases had to have his eyebrows cut when he went to the barber.

With regard to repairs to the *eyelids,* an extensive cutaneous destruction on a level with the lids was followed by an obvious modification of the palpebral fissure, and the mutilation would be even greater when it involved skin and subjacent tissues, muscle, etc. The first act in such cases must be to bring together the margins of the two lids, after having freshened the mucous margins in the usual way. In most cases, the union of the lids must be maintained for two or three months. Professor Morax entered into the technic in detail.

He proceeded to speak of repairs to the *orbital cavity.* When the wound received involved total or partial destruction of the eyeball and its mucous membrane, there was a shrinking scar of the orbit, and more or less complete adherence of the lid tissue to the orbital tissue, and these symblephara prevented the wearing of an artificial eye. Sometimes enucleation had been done by a surgeon who did not appreciate the importance of conserving every bit of mucous membrane. One must wait until the process of scar formation had been consolidated and there were no more signs of infection, before attempting to graft. Whenever possible, one had recourse to cutaneous pedicle flaps taken from the neighborhood. He described various types of cases, and the procedures adopted.

With regard to complete *symblepharon,* if all the mucous membrane were destroyed, the method described would have to be modified. He had found it best to openly expose the parts to be grafted, and keep them open until the graft was in good condition. In some cases it might be necessary to combine the dermo-epidermic grafting method with the pedicled flap one in total symblepharon. Professor Morax concluded by describing his methods of securing a mobile support for an artificial eye.

Eyesight and Education.

On Friday morning, at the Royal Society of Medicine, an interesting discussion took place on the subject of "Eyesight in Connection with Education."

Dr. James Kerr said that at the present time any examination of the relations between vision and education rested much on the testing for acuity at school, while such matters as fatigue, functional troubles, the ocular results of various kinds of work, and the risks of visual deterioration were scarcely noted by those having the oversight of education. The use of the Ives' grating and testing each eye separately did not yield fair results; the second-tested eye usually gave the worst record, and he now abandoned the method. He much preferred the copying of test types by children using both eyes, as this gave practically all the results required, and there was no waste of time. These results also provided a good basis for mass investigations.

The tables in the earlier Board of Education Reports showed a great variation according to the districts concerned: e. g., 19.5 per cent with bad vision in Newcastle to 4.4 per cent at Ashton-under-Lyne; 11.3 per cent Lancashire, 4.8 per cent Gloucestershire. By careful testing of very young children with test types, Dr. Margaret Hogarth got 86 per cent normal vision in 800 infants, and only 3.2 per cent cases of bad vision. She took every precaution to keep the attention fixed, and introduced a number of requirements.

The local variations involved na-

tional problems, and were due, no doubt, largely to preventable causes, but there had not been any investigation on the question. He considered they were closely related to the general surroundings and were closely connected with the general health. The results in eye testing were largely influenced by the condition of the general cerebral cortex. Fatigue was important in academic work, and ocular fatigue, tho masked by great accommodative range in the young, was a contributor to nerve fatigue.

With regard to myopia, four-fifths of the children passed through all the strains and troubles of school life ocularly unharmed, but the majority who suffered from it became myopic. The increase of myopia year by year of age was not correlated to education, but to age. In a large number of cases Inglis Pollock showed that up to the 14th year 7 per cent to 8 per cent were myopic, but after that age it jumped to 15 per cent to 19 per cent, and remained above that figure. About puberty there was a real increase in the myopia present, also during the convalescence following acute illness.

Sweden, by adopting classical education and Gothic print, had greatly increased the proportion of good vision in the country. He proceeded to emphasize the great importance in this connection of general nutrition. There should be careful measures to avoid glare and strong light contrasts, and children should be spared all unnecessary fatigue. He indicated the lines along which he thought further investigation should be carried.

Discussion—Mr. N. Bishop Harman dealt with the clinical aspect of the subject, and he left out of account children who had attained to some stability of tissue and whose vision was good according to accepted standards. The remainder of the school population included (1) the immature, (2) the defective, (3) the blind.

With regard to class (1) the instability of accommodation and of binocular vision in early years was notorious, and this instability must extend to other functions. Owing to the intimate relation of brain and eye, the effect of any form of close work on the child was serious. To the child, even the recognition of figures and letters was a mental feat, and he believed the eyes felt fatigued according to the degree of mental exertion. Adults had only to remember the ease with which they could skim over a novel for hours, yet felt fatigued by a comparatively short study of a scientific treatise. Yet the daily routine of the school child was comparable to the latter.

When one read of the average work required of the average infant, one was led to inquire what was the average infant, but there was, as yet, no answer. No steps were taken to ascertain what the eyes of any particular infant were like, nor whether its defects would render the child incapable of bearing up against the strain put upon them. Between the fourth and seventh years the infant went thru a training at school without any medical eyesight examination. The refraction could always be measured. He had examined the refraction of all the infants in a high-grade school in the West of London. The eyes of each child were anointed with a fresh preparation of homatropin and cocain in castor oil (2% of each), then the child was allowed to sleep for an hour. After the examination the eyes were anointed with a minute smear of 1 per cent eserin in oil, to effect closure of the pupils as quickly as possible.

In this way 368 children, of ages 4 to 7, were examined. Only 8 wore glasses. Only 8 had emmetropic eyes, but there were 232 hyperopes, viz.: 130 under 1 D., 73 under 2 D., while those with not more than 3 D. were 29. There were 38 who had more than 2 D. astigmatism. Only very few had myopia of any degree, tho one child had 18 D., 7 had scarred eyes, 23 had anisometropia of over 1 D., while 8 had squint.

The summary of his conclusions was that one in every three was not fit to do ordinary school work under ordinary conditions, results which were striking and unexpected. He strongly condemned the practice of submitting young infants to school

work without a preliminary examination of their eyes. There should be a definite grading of the little ones at these early ages. Indeed, the subject was sufficiently serious to warrant its examination by a committee of this society. He concluded by a description of special methods, such as those seen by members at their visit that day to the schools at Camden Town and Hempstead Road.

The subject was discussed by Mr. Harrison Butler, Mr. Ernest Clarke, Mr. Percival Hay, Mr. A. L. Whitehead, Mr. Inglis Pollock, Mr. Evans, Mr. C. W. Thompson, and the openers replied.

On Friday evening a series of papers were read and discussed.

Angioma of the Choroid.

Mr. Treacher Collins and Mr. Leslie Paton reported a case. The patient, a boy, first came under Mr. Paton's care in 1917, when he was 14 years of age. There was a large nevus on the left cheek and outer side of left orbit. There was detachment of retina outwards and downwards. The tension of the eye was then normal. Puncture of the sclera was made with the galvanocautery, but the vision did not improve. A year later, an acute attack of glaucoma occurred, and the eye was removed. There was found to be a lens-shaped mass in the choroid, measuring 9 mm. in length, 5 mm in breadth, extending from the upper margin of the optic disc to a little behind the equator. There were the typical appearances of cavernous angioma. In the partitions between the vascular spaces on its inner surface were well developed lamellae of bone.

Presbyopia.

Mr. Ernest Clarke read a paper on presbyopia, a subject which, in the author's opinion, had been very inefficiently treated in the past in the various text books. Presbyopia synchronised with important body changes. The "squeezability" of the lens decreased with age; and in the normal emmetrope, at 48 years of age, it had decreased to such an extent that the person was conscious of requiring aid for near work. This was not a disease, but a physiologic change, which affected all eyes alike. He considered that true presbyopia was entirely dependent on the lens, not due to any weakness of ciliary muscle, except in advanced age.

Presbyopia was felt most at the time when eye strain was most liable to occur, and Leonard Williams and others had shown the dangers of hyperthyroidism, especially in connection with intestinal poisoning, for when the thyroid gland was deficient, the gate was opened for the poisoning of the system by toxins. He advocated the wearing of bifocal glasses. A mistake commonly made in these was to give a too strong reading addition to them.

Evulsion of the Optic Nerve.

Col. Lister and Capt. M. L. Hine contributed a paper on the condition of evulsion of the optic nerve. The authors had been able to find records of only 22 cases, and only 4 with a pathologic report, yet during the war this condition of the optic disc had become familiar. It was recognized either by a hole at the optic disc, which might occupy the whole or a part of the scleral ring, or the disc might be filled apparently with white. In both cases the retinal vessels had either completely or partially disappeared. The tearing of the tissue resulted in gross hemorrhage at the back of the eye, so as to obscure the field for the ophthalmoscopic examination. When, as occasionally happened, little or no hemorrhage took place into the vitreous, the ophthalmoscopic picture was one of the most striking possible: a fundus oculi without vessels, an optic disc replaced by an apparently bottomless glaucomatous pit set in a background in which there were dramatic concussion changes. The paper gave a minute description of the changes found, and was supplemented by a number of colored pictures, shown by means of the epidiascope.

Bilateral Choroidoretinitis.

Mr. E. Henderson read brief notes on a rare form of bilateral choroidoretinitis in a young child. The child, aged 6 years, was brought on account of occasional convergent strabismus of the left eye. After wearing correcting glasses and having the defective eye trained, the strabismus disappeared.

Two and a half years later, the sight having deteriorated, there was found in the right eye a brilliant white exudation to the macular side of the disc, in the center of which was a circular, partly pigmented patch. Some months later the left eye suddenly failed. A similar symmetric patch was found in the fundus, but accompanied by widespread exudation, and surrounded by some hemorrhage.

No source of infection could be found, and the Wassermann and tuberculin tests were negative. The scattered exudation gradually disappeared, and the appearance at present closely resembled that of the fundus of the other eye. He regarded the condition as due to some unexplained choroidal vascular lesion.

The following papers were also read:

Mr. Arnold Lawson: A New Method of Applying *Radium in Diseases of the Eye*, who described the rationale in collaboration with Mr. Sidney Russ. (2) Flavine in Ophthalmic Surgery.

Saturday morning was devoted to a *clinical meeting* at the Central London Ophthalmic Hospital, when many cases of interest were exhibited and discussed.

During the Congress, members visited the Day School for the Blind, Brecknock Road, Camden Town, the Myopia School, Exmouth, Street, N. W., and the Wellcome Museum, Wigmore Street. A dinner was held at the Welbeck Palace Hotel, and a museum of exhibits and specimens was established, under the care of R. R. James. On Saturday afternoon many members gladly participated in a golf match at Northwood.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE.

Sections of Ophthalmology and Laryngology.

These Sections held a combined meeting on Wednesday, April 2, Mr. W. T. Holmes Spicer occupying the chair. The subject of discussion was:

Injuries and Inflammatory Diseases Affecting the Orbit and Accessory Sinuses.

The Chairman expressed the hope that great good would come from the present meeting, which arose from the desire of ophthalmic surgeons to know a great deal more about the dangers which beset the precious optic nerve in its course from the eye to the brain. He remembered the time when there was but little expert knowledge concerning the ethmoid and frontal sinuses and when the departments of ophthalmology and laryngology at large hospitals were in charge of physicians, and the outlook upon them was purely medical. It was very important that the ophthalmologist should know when to call in an expert to deal with defective sinuses.

Mr. L. V. Cargill opened the discussion. It was, he said, surprising to find that cases of optic complications from sinus trouble were so few, because of the thinness of the partition dividing sinus from orbit. Ophthalmic complications might present themselves as functional disturbances, or as toxic effects. There might be contraction of the peripheral field, central scotoma, papilledema, papillitis, uveitis, episcleritis, subretinal effusion, retinal detachments, and so on. Nasal sinuitis was a chief cause of orbital inflammation. There was a small group of cases comprising retrobulbar conditions, and a larger one consisting of subperiosteal inflammations caused by extension from the nasal sinus. In ethmoidal cases, an acute specific fever seemed to be the usual primary cause. In young children, acute cases often responded to fomentation and good nursing. He asked whether the staff of ophthalmic hospitals should not include a rhinologist. If, in suspected

sinuitis, expectant treatment was not succeeding, an exploratory incision should be made without delay. In this war, the proportion of injuries inflicted by shell fire compared with those by rifle bullets was higher than in the South African war, and the sinuses had suffered in a correspondingly greater degree. Practically every case in which the wound was purely orbital had made a good recovery. The general results had been definitely aided by antitetanic serum, stereoscopic radiography, the telephone probe, and the electromagnet. No attempt had been made to remove deeply situated foreign bodies unless they were causing definite trouble. The essence of sinus treatment was efficient drainage and irrigation. He described and illustrated a variety of cases.

Mr. G. Seccombe Hett remarked on the benefit of such coöperation among experts, not only in regard to the more efficient treatment of war injuries, but also cases of injury met with in industrial practice and in disease. His experience during the last three years had been with cases from the war after their arrival in England. The best results followed free drainage and as little movement of bony and soft tissues as possible. Mucous membrane was stitched to skin, and was not taken away. In a number of cases he had been able to reconstitute an eye socket because the conjunctival mucous membrane had been retained. He showed an instructive selection of slides illustrating treatment in a variety of conditions.

Mr. A. W. Ormond based his contribution on the cases which had come under his care at the Second London General Hospital during the last four years, and in particular on 100 cases. He could not say that serious damage to orbit or sinuses had resulted in any subtle change in vision; the results were those of the original injury, or of inflammatory change set up by it. In some patients there was optic neuritis in the uninjured eye. Pain arising in consequence of inflammation of the sinuses was sometimes referred by the patient to his eye. In two cases, blind eyes had been removed on account of severe pain supposed to originate in them, but it was found to have arisen in the nasal condition. Sometimes a deep wound was found to have affected four sinuses.

Mr. E. D. D. Davis spoke of his experiences in this connection at casualty clearing stations. He had been struck with the frequent occurrence of a fissure-fracture of the roof of the orbit when making postmortem examinations in cases of bullet wounds of any part of the skull. Fracture of the anterior fossa was accompanied by diffuse intradural hemorrhage, and these cases usually succumbed in twenty-four hours. Even if this period was survived, death took place in from three to six days, from basal meningitis, due to infection of the wound cavity. In cases of sinus injury, he regarded early suture as very important. He asked for opinions as to the wisdom of draining severe orbital cellulitis through the nose. Suppuration of the antrum, of nasal origin, was nearly always accompanied by suppuration of other sinuses also, but in cases where the suppuration in the antrum was due to the condition of the teeth, the antrum remained the only cavity involved, and in such cases no retrobulbar neuritis had been recorded.

Mr. H. D. Gillies expressed his objection to the early suture advocated by Mr. E. D. Davis. In the honeycomb presented by the sinuses one could not excise the whole wound, and early suture meant giving a good deal of trouble in the later stages of (restorative) treatment. Excision of the wound in a fleshy part was quite justifiable, but it was not possible in the sinus region. In the next Bolshevik war the best practice would be found to be to keep entrance and exit wounds open as much as possible, so as to permit of efficient drainage until no question of suppuration remained. Very great benefit had resulted in the treatment of war injuries by the coöperation of the dental and the plastic surgeon, and he hoped much from the combination of the efforts of rhinologists and ophthal-

mic surgeons, of which this meeting was an earnest.

Mr. D. Leighton Davies spoke of the effects of nasal sinus affections on the fields of vision and on the ocular muscles. Some cases of heterophoria were secondary to sinus affections. The fields should always be studied, because patients did not make voluntary complaint in this respect. He had never met with a case of chronic nasal suppuration which did not show some changes in the visual fields. There might be scotoma, or an enlargement of the blind spot. When sinus disease had been operated upon, the blind spot enlargement subsided, only to again enlarge if the nasal trouble returned. Even when the field of vision was reduced to 10°, he did not find the patients complained of difficulty in orientation. If the sinus trouble had been long-lasting, its cure did not always result in complete restoration of visual fields. In discussing the etiology, he said no one theory yet advanced would account for all the cases. The discharge from the involved sinuses, being swallowed, set up a toxemia, which so spread to the eye. If that were true, one might expect to find contraction of visual fields in association with suppuration in other parts of the body, but he had not yet found that in sufficient numbers to warrant the drawing of conclusions. He had, however, found contraction of fields in cases of chronic suppurative osteomyelitis, chronic otorrhea, and leucorrhea with endometritis.

The debate on this subject was resumed on April 10, the chair being occupied by Dr. James Donelan, the President of the Section of Laryngology.

Mr. W. M. Mollison, in reopening, said most of the cases of the kind under discussion which he had seen were those which had been under the care of Mr. Ormond on account of damage to the eyes, and he did not see them until some months after the receipt of the injury. He had been impressed with the amount of time and trouble and suffering on the part of the patients which might have been saved if an ophthalmologist and a rhinologist had attended the cases from the commencement. This was especially so in the cases in which drainage into the nose might have been effected before any attempt was made to repair lids or sockets. When the latter had been done there was often a persistent pus discharge. He divided the cases he had seen into clean thru-and-thru bullet wounds, and secondly all other kinds. The usual result in the former was adhesion between outer wall and septum. Infection of sinuses was generally a sequel of the obstruction. All the cases he saw—at St. Dunstan's—were blind, some completely so. In one case, in restoring the nasal airway, he opened an adhesion between the septum and ethmoid, and infection of the meninges took place. The result appeared to be very good, but three weeks afterwards the officer developed meningitis and he died in three days. In some there was parosmia, due to damage of the olfactory nerve. Among the men at St. Dunstan's he found the sinus most frequently affected was the frontal; the proportion was 13 frontal, 2 antral. In some cases the deep wall of the sinus had been fractured and dura mater exposed. One man was wounded by a shell in May, 1917; shrapnel entered the right side by the canthus, and he had a sinus round the right inner angle of the orbit. At the operation a very extensive ethmoiditis was found, and there was a large piece of khaki clothing in the ethmoid, which had been there seven months. He had not yet discovered a case of sinus suppuration in connection with retrobulbar neuritis, tho he explored in a routine way with a Killian's speculum. He had seen only one case of orbital cellulitis which could be called idiopathic. It was that of a girl who was admitted into Guy's Hospital desperately ill. He could find nothing wrong with the sinuses. She died in two days of most extensive pyemia, and no primary source could be discovered. In 99 per cent of these cases he thought the sinus at fault was the frontal.

Mr. J. F. O'Malley said he had notes of about 60 cases of trouble in

nasal and accessory sinuses in which there were also eye lesions and injuries of the lacrimal apparatus. In the case of wounds of the ethmoid he had found that where there was previous obstruction sepsis was invariably present, and free incision and thoro drainage was needed. But he had been struck by the fact that in a large percentage of his ethmoidal cases there was so little spesis that extensive treatment was not called for beyond the removal of adhesions. In the case of gunshot wounds, there was great facility in healing once a good airway had been reestablished; this in contrast with ordinary ethmoid involvement secondary to nasal inflammation. Much the same could be said of antral lesions. Out of 50 thru-and-thru wounds of the antra he had only to operate on 11 for sepsis; in 11 others he operated for the removal of foreign bodies. He had 18 cases of eye involvement; in 10 the eye was lost, in 8 there were injuries to it of varying degree. Where the injury to the eye was not direct, it seemed to have been caused by the missile striking the malar bone, the shock of impact being communicated to the bony wall of the orbit. In some cases where epiphora resulted, this did not give much trouble in the ordinary way, but when playing games in a high wind, or motoring, the overflow of the tears was a nuisance. He thought the cause was hypertrophy of the inferior turbinate due to exposure to the winds, and as a result of its engorgement pressure was exerted on the tear duct. Removal of a portion of the soft tissue of the inferior turbinate seemed to cure this climatic cause of overflow.

Mr. G. H. Pooley said orbital cellulitis was often due to extension of inflammatory trouble in the superior ethmoidal sinus or from the lacrimal apparatus. In children, orbital cellulitis was often due to osteomyelitis in the frontal or ethmoidal region, and frequently these cases died. The best treatment was free incision, and the generous use of the sharp spoon. Defective vision due to nasal conditions he thought was attributable to pressure on the optic nerve, or to toxic influence of the retinal cells.

Mr. W. Stuart-Low spoke of cases in which edema spread to the canthus from inflammation of the frontal sinus. In some of the cases sent for operation, in which the middle turbinal was swollen and was blocking the passage, he avoided operation by using cocain and adrenalin, following that, after an interval, by fomentation. He did not operate until he had tried some such measures. Relieving the tension in a sinus, which might be due simply to serous fluid, was of great benefit. If these means failed, he received the patient into the hospital and incised freely under the eyes. He refrained from washing out the frontal sinus, for fear of driving infecting material into other sinuses. Removal of two-thirds of the middle turbinal often succeeded. He also made a practice of using a cage over wounds of sinuses and ears, to obviate pressure from outside, and he believed that had much to do with preventing or reducing subsequent deformity. Some of his lacrimal cases he failed to cure, and then he generally found some small foreign body was the cause of failure. He employed washing out in the case of the antrum, for its partition, tho thin, was complete. When a portion of shrapnel or casting was deeply embedded, he did not attempt removal unless it was giving the patient trouble.

Mr. Herbert Tilley showed photographs to demonstrate that ethmoidal cells and frontal sinus were developed quite early, even at three years of age. He also exhibited skiagrams of cases. He said that sometimes frontal sinus inflammation caused contralateral retrobulbar neuritis. Subjects of sinus suppuration seldom complained of eye symptoms, and even when asked directly about them did not admit such. In cases which had been referred to him by ophthalmologic colleagues, having gone to them because of retrobulbar neuritis, he seldom found sinuses involved, which he attributed to the fact that the originating nasal trouble had cleared up in the meantime. The rapidity with which eye

symptoms cleared up when nasal trouble was treated seemed to show that the cause was pressure of fluid rather than actual sepsis. Radical measures should never be undertaken during acute intranasal infection; it might mean disaster to the eye, or even to life. At this stage the surgeon should be satisfied with providing free drainage. He had seen iritis, cyclitis, and some internal affections of the eye quite cured by intranasal operations. He had never seen a case of orbital cellulitis in which sinus suppuration was not present.

Mr. Lawson Whale brought out, by means of an epidiascope demonstration of selected skiagrams from his war experiences in France and England, a number of points of practical importance in diagnosis and treatment.

After a few closing remarks by the Chairman, the four openers briefly replied.

H. Dickinson.

COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

March 1, 1919.

Dr. C. A. Ringle, Presiding.

Glaucoma Simplex.

H. R. Stilwill and Melville Black, Denver, presented a man of fifty-three years who had a simple glaucoma in both eyes, and on whose left eye corneoscleral trephining had been done. The patient had come on October 3, 1917, on account of moderate blurring of vision. The pupils were rather large and sluggish, the anterior chambers shallow, and the tension of either eye 55 mm. with the Schiötz tonometer. There was cupping of both disks, more marked in the right eye. The vision at this time was R. 4/4, L. 4/5. Under eserin the vision improved and remained normal until October, 1918, when it dropped to R. 4/5, L. 4/6. On January 17, 1919, Dr. Black performed sclerocorneal trephining on the left eye, combined with iridectomy. The vision before operation was R. 4/7, L. 4/20. The vision recorded on February 18, 1919, was R. 4/7 part, L. 2/60. The anterior chamber had remained completely empty for about a month after the trephining was done, and then gradually refilled. The tension then gradually came up, but was still subnormal (17 mm.). The reduction in vision had apparently continued speedily after the operation. The glaucoma cup, which had never been marked, was about the same. Dr. Black remarked that it was a serious question what was best to do for the other eye, since iridectomy had not proved very successful in simple glaucomas. The patient was approaching the point where he could not do his bookkeeping satisfactorily. The vision in the good eye was now 20/40 part, and eserin did not seem to be holding it, but the eye was changing for the worse fairly rapidly. The tension remained about 40 mm. all the time. The visual field of this eye showed comparatively little contraction.

Discussion. J. A. McCaw, Denver, mentioned a recent report in the literature, of a case in which atropin was used in the presence of subnormal tension and brought up the vision.

Dr. Black said that the operated eye had been kept under atropin until three or four weeks ago, but that the atropin had not improved the tension.

Edward Jackson, Denver, pointed out that the field which had been shown for the operated eye had been taken on the second of December shortly before the operation, and indicated that at this time the boundary of the field was cutting pretty close to the fixation point. The boundary was probably closer to the fixation point than the chart would show, as such patients do not fix very accurately. It often happens that operations on such eyes are followed by a further limitation of the field which carries it beyond the fixation point. In one case seen in consultation some years ago, the patient could read with the eye before operation, but after operation the eye was entirely useless. The operation is not to be blamed on that account, but this is one of the risks which have to be taken in operating on such an eye. The patient should probably be advised

to have an operation done on the second eye, and the best operation might be a Lagrange with a rather large iridectomy.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, was disposed to try the effect of the high frequency current, and would do a simple iridectomy on the second eye.

H. M. Thompson, Pueblo, emphasized the possibility of a toxic basis for glaucoma, and recalled a case which he had shown two years earlier in which removal of streptococcic tonsils had apparently checked the course of glaucoma.

C. E. Walker Denver, thought that it was seldom found that the points which Dr. Thompson had mentioned had anything to do with this form of glaucoma. A decrease of vision after operation was fairly frequent. As to the second eye, the reduction of vision under the best treatment made iridectomy the thing. In association with the iridectomy it would be advisable to use the procedure of Priestley Smith, scleral puncture with a Lang knife (slightly smaller than the Graefe), then through an incision one-fifth the corneal circumference to make a large iris excision, cutting first to one side and then to the other, and pulling on the iris until it tore.

Dr. Stilwill stated that the patient's physical condition had been gone over thoroly, but his teeth were perfect, and he had never had any illness apart from the eyes.

Dr. Black did not feel disposed to do posterior scleral puncture except as a last resort in blind and inflamed eyes. He was afraid of cutting a large choroidal vessel.

Dr. Walker said he had never cut such a vessel in doing this operation.

Keratoconus.

H. R. Stilwill, Denver, presented a man of thirty-four years the vision of whose eyes had been failing for the past six months. The uncorrected vision of the right eye was 1/60, of the left eye counting fingers at two feet. With R. —15.50 sphere combined with —3.50 cylinder axis 145 degrees the vision was 4/60, and with L. —15.50 sphere combined with —3.50 cylinder axis 60 degrees the vision was 4/15. There was marked conical cornea in each eye. The patient had been given a weak solution of pilocarpin. No disturbance of the corneal tissue except the conicity could be made out. The periphery of the cornea and of the anterior chamber could be seen thru the conical cornea better than with most eyes.

Melville Black, Denver, thought that we were disposed to overestimate the amount of astigmatism in these cases. He had found it pay to start in arbitrarily with an estimated plus cylinder and work behind it with a minus sphere, afterwards adjusting the axis of the cylinder.

J. A. McCaw, Denver, had found it advantageous to test such cases under pilocarpin.

Edward Jackson, Denver, advised treating these eyes with pilocarpin over long periods.

Vernal Conjunctivitis.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, presented a young man of eighteen years both of whose upper eyelids presented on the tarsal surface the typical cobblestone formations of vernal conjunctivitis. There had been the usual symptoms of redness, itching, swelling of the lids, and watering of the eyes, with improvement in cool weather. A sister had the same symptoms with a good deal of pain. The enlarged papillae inside the upper lids were rather distinctly pedunculated. The cornea of the right eye presented a superficial ulcer a little above the center. X-Ray and radium treatment had been advised, but not been used to date.

Discussion. Edward Jackson, Denver, referred to a case which he had reported some years previously to the Colorado Ophthalmological Congress. This patient had recently returned. He had got into the naval training school, but was finally turned down on account of his eyes. He had recently been put under radium, with beneficial results.

Shrunken Eyeball Following Pneumonia.

C. O. Eigler, Denver, presented a girl aged four and a half years who was said to have had pneumonia with convulsions at two and a half years, and to have subsequently developed severe pain in the head over the left eye, lasting eight days. Upon recovery from this condition the eye turned in and was blind. The eyeball was small, sunken in the socket and soft. It was still sensitive to light in the mornings.

Discussion. Melville Black, Denver, believed that the original condition had been a choroidal disturbance metastatic from pneumonia. It was probably better to leave the eye in a growing child, postponing the question of removal for later consideration.

Edward Jackson, Denver, suggested that if there was no irritation from the eye, it was just as well to leave it alone. It was, however, the sort of eye which might produce sympathetic irritation; and this, while not likely to destroy the other eye, might interfere with the use of the good eye. As regards the development of the orbit, Dr. Jackson had seen a girl of 16 whose eye was removed some fourteen years previously, yet it was impossible to discover any difference in the development of the two orbits.

C. E. Walker, Denver, emphasized the fact that in most of these old cases of choroiditis there was later on a bony formation which acted as an irritant, so that he believed it would be better to remove the eye before such a condition developed.

J. A. McCaw, Denver, asked how an opticociliary resection would serve in this case.

Dr. Black replied that enucleation would probably be better if the eye were keeping up interference with the use of the other eye.

Strabismus Under Voluntary Control.

W. C. Bane, Denver, presented a man of twenty-one years who had had a diverging strabismus of the left eye since childhood, without other symptoms. The divergence was probably sixty or more centrads, but was made difficult to measure by the ability which the patient had to draw the left eye in so that it was in line with its fellow.

Discussion. C. E. Walker, Denver believed that in such a case the best operation would be an advancement, with in all probability a tenotomy at the same time.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs, had never had much success with advancement, but got better results with resection.

Steel in Anterior Chamber.

E. E. McKeown, Denver, presented a man whose left eye had been struck by a small piece of steel while he was driving a pin into a wheel. The foreign body had become embedded near the center of the cornea, and the home physician had unsuccessfully attempted its removal. On examination by Dr. McKeown the cut in the cornea was found, but no foreign body. The steel had apparently been pushed into the anterior chamber, in the angle of which it was shown by the X-ray, altho invisible to the eye of the examiner. Was it possible to remove the peace of steel from this location, or should it be left in place?

Discussion. Melville Black, Denver, suggested the possibility of bringing the tip of the hand magnet into contact with the foreign body, but thought it might be well to wait a while and see what happened.

C. E. Walker, Denver, recommended the use of small tips for attachment to the giant magnet.

Edward Jackson, Denver. The value of the giant magnet is that it works at a longer distance. There is less power right at the tip of this giant magnet than there is an inch or so away. The small tips attached to it make it very much more more serviceable. A Dutch ophthalmologist has recently written a valuable paper on the withdrawal of foreign bodies from the anterior chamber. He uses a T-shaped incision, an incision parallel to the margin of the cornea, and an incision at right angles to it; and thus succeeds in getting out

foreign bodies which cannot otherwise be got at.

Sarcoma of the Ciliary Body.

H. M. Thompson, Pueblo, reported a case of mixed cell sarcoma of the ciliary body. The patient, a woman of forty-four years, first experienced visual disturbance in the right eye in November, 1915. There was a gradual development of pain in the eye and on the same side of the head. A little over three weeks later, after having failed to obtain relief from a nasal operation done by a traveling surgeon, she consulted Dr. Thompson. The eyeball was stony hard, the lens cataractous, and the general condition of the eye was that of absolute glaucoma. On opening the enucleated eyeball, a light gray mass, the thickness of a small pencil and slightly flattened, was found behind the iris, and taking origin from a definite point in the ciliary body. The other end of the cylindric mass was free in the vitreous. The ciliary body was not infiltrated by the sarcoma, nor had any other tissue of the eye seemed affected except by the changes incidental to the glaucoma. Dr. C. W. Maynard, pathologist, reported the tumor to be a mixed cell sarcoma practically free from pigment.

Calcareous Lens in Anterior Chamber.

Edward Jackson and Melville Black, Denver, exhibited a calcareous lens which had been removed from the anterior chamber, into which it had apparently migrated after remaining for a long time in the vitreous. The patient, a woman of fifty years, had apparently undergone two operations, at the first of which iridectomy was done on account of previous inflammation which had left the pupil adherent to the lens, and at the second of which (three years ago) the cataractous lens had been pushed back into the vitreous. The lens had come foreward in the anterior chamber three weeks ago, and had stayed there. The shrunken lens, yellowish white in color, was removed through a large corneal incision above. A more than the normal amount of aqueous humor escaped, the excess being regarded by Dr. Black as having come from the portion of the vitreous which had contained the dislocated lens. The eye then collapsed badly, but after waiting ten minutes it was possible to remove the cataract from the anterior chamber with a wire scoop. The wound healed readily and almost without reddening the eyeball. The extracted lens proved to be calcareous shell, six or seven millimeters in diameter.

Wm. H. Crisp, Secretary.

CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

A regular meeting was hald March 17, 1919, with the President, Dr. William L. Noble, in the chair.

Gumma of the Iris.

Dr. N. C. Nelson exhibited a young man with a tumor of the iris which was diagnosed as a gumma. Patient had been placed under treatment with mercurial inunctions and the iodids, and the gumma had begun to disappear.

Dr. Noble asked how long it was since the iodids were begun, to which Dr. Nelson replied about two and a half weeks.

Xeroderma Pigmentosum.

Dr. Nelson also showed a patient stating that the case really did not be long to this department except that one could see the thickened condition of the lower lid and the ectropion, and in these cases the cornea generally became ulcerated. In other words, there was an ulcerative keratitis. The condition was known as xeroderma pigmentosum and generally began in the very young. It began from six months up to four or five years. The pigment very much resembled freckles which appeared on the exposed surfaces, such as the face, neck and extremities. The pigment became deeper, and a little later on there was a warty appearance as was seen in this case, and still later ulcers developed. The tendency was for this condition to take on the malignant epithelial type. The prognosis was generally fatal. The sun and wind

were the causative factors of this condition.

As far as treatment was concerned, there did not seem to be any outside of palliative treatment.

Up to 1870 there had not been many of these cases noted and reported, but between that time and 1910 there had been something less than 100 cases recorded in the medical literature of the United States.

Discussion: Dr. Alfred Murray stated that in Fuchs' clinic, where over 20,000 new cases were seen annually, only two of the type presenting the condition described by Dr. Nelson were seen by him during the year that he was there; showing the rarity of this very interesting pathologic condition. These two cases were in sisters.

Dr. Nelson stated that the body was free from pigmentation where it was not exposed to the wind or sun. There was pigment on the hand, but as one went above where the clothes protected the body this pigment did not manifest itself.

There were no more cases in the same family. Occasionally more than one case was known to develop in a family. One physician had reported seven such cases in one family of which there were thirteen members.

One characteristic of the disease was that if the epithelial growth began early, the termination was likely to be more rapid than when it began late.

Dr. Smith asked Dr. Nelson why he did not treat the case of xeroderma pigmentosa with the X-ray.

Dr. Nelson replied that the case was sent to a leading skin specialist in Chicago in the first place, and he asked the specialist why he did not use the X-ray treatment, and his answer was that the disease was not favorably affected by the X-ray.

Hemorrhage Into the Vitreous.

Dr. Carl O. Schneider reported the case of a man who, six weeks ago, had been hit in the eye with a pair of brass knuckles, which caused considerable hemorrhage into the vitreous.

Double Paralysis of the External Recti Muscles.

Dr. E. R. Crossley showed a case of double paralysis of the external recti muscles that had been operated on recently by Dr. Woodruff, who resorted to the transplantation of the external half of the superior and inferior recti muscles. The man was struck on the back of the head about six months ago, shortly after which this paralysis developed.

Dr. Von Der Heydt asked for further information regarding the case of double paralysis of the external recti.

Dr. Crossley stated that the object in showing the case was to refer to the transplantation of the superior and inferior recti muscles. This operation was described by Dr. Woodruff two years ago before the American Medical Association, at which time Dr. Woodruff reported two cases on which he had performed this operation. This was the fourth case. Advancements were done on both external recti before Dr. Woodruff had operated.

Dr. Noble asked whether there was any pull by either of the external recti.

Dr. Crossley replied that there was pull in both eyes. In the left eye there was a little deviation upwards, and Dr. Woodruff had attempted to correct that, but with what result he did not know.

Dr. Noble asked how long it was since the operations were done.

Dr. Crossley replied about a month as regards the right eye, and there was a week between operations. The first two cases were reported in the proceedings of the Ophthalmological Section of the American Medical Association for 1917, and in this paper Dr. Woodruff covered quite extensively the subject of transplantation of tendons elsewhere and in the eye. There was only a few such cases reported before that time.

Dr. Von Der Heydt said that two years ago he saw a case similar to the one shown by Dr. Crossley of paralysis of both abducens nerves in the same individual. It could not be justified anatomically at all. It should not be called a paralysis of both external

recti. The literature maintained that these cases were usually a convergence spasm, and that the origin of it was either some irritation in the brain, hysteria, or possibly multiple sclerosis.

Dr. Crossley stated that trauma was excluded in these three casas. He did not see how external trauma could paralyze both external recti, nor could he say anything about the origin of it any more than that the man was struck months ago and fell on the back of his head, and that was the beginning of his trouble. The man had gone through the operation of advancement of both external recti some time before, and had had no previous trouble.

Dr. Nelson said the man had had no previous trouble. He was on a drunk, got into a scrap, and came to the clinic the next morning with both external recti paralyzed. At present, after operation, he had considerable motion in the right eye, but in the left it was not quite so marked. The last operation on the left eye was only done March 14, 1919.

Enucleation of the Eyeball Under Local Anesthesia.

Dr. Austin A. Hayden read a paper on this subject in which he stated that local anesthesia, since Koller introduced cocain in 1884, had been the procedure par excellence in nearly the entire realm of ophthalmic surgery. Today general narcosis was not uniformly employed in eye operations except on the very young and extremely nervous patients; in septic conditions, where injections might carry infection to other tissues; in extensive plastics and in enucleations. In some of the last named the use of chloroform or ether might be so dangerous to the life of the patient as to be almost absolutely contraindicated. Local anesthesia then became a matter of necessity. A most satisfactory result in a case of this sort had prompted the presentation of his paper.

After detailing an interesting case in which he enucleated the eyeball under local anesthesia, he referred to the advantages or indications for local anesthesia in general: 1. Dangers and complications of general anesthesia are entirely eliminated. Among these are the immediate dangers, such as respiratory and cardiac failure, chloroform and ether poisoning and shock, as well as remote complications, such as postoperative and hypostatic pneumonia, myocarditis, and nephritis.

2. It is impossible to remove the wrong eye.

3. No preparation is needed, so that the operation can be done at once, and it is not necessary for the patient to be purged or starved.

4. No assistant is necessary.

5. The surgeon is relieved entirely of worry in regard to the patient's life.

The contraindications of local anesthesia are few: 1. Extreme youth or extreme nervousness on the part of the patient, probably also the latter on the part of the operator.

2. Purulent conjunctivitis and panophthalmitis, where theoretically a dissemination of the infection might result from injection of the anesthetic solution used.

3. Ruptures of the globe from panophthalmitis.

The author quoted extensively from the literature favoring enucleation under local anesthesia.

Discussion: Dr. Alfred N. Murray stated that Uhthoff in Breslau had done a great many enucleations under local anesthesia. After the muscles were released, he injected the cocain solution into the region of the ciliary nerves at the back of the eyeball through a long curved needle. The patients were able to talk to him during the operation and complained of no particular pain. The results were excellent. He did not think of giving a general anesthetic except to young children and nervous people, and ordinarily the patients came thru without any trouble whatever.

Dr. Thomas Faith stated that for a number of years Dr. Fisher and Dr. Hoffman had both done a number of enucleations under local anesthesia. Dr. Hoffman preceded the local anesthesia with H. M. C. He had personally done a few enucleations under

local anesthesia, but the technic described was one that he had not followed. In injecting the muscle attachments no attempt was made to penetrate the globe. He believed that the administration of the H. M. C. facilitated the work. He had done a number of enucleations with the aid of this combination under local anesthesia in patients who were so nervous that he was unable to do the work with local anesthesia alone, and yet they were patients to whom he did not wish to administer a general anesthetic. In his last case he resorted to the use of apothesin, a local anesthetic produced by Parke, Davis & Company, and said to be of no value except for injection into the tissues. It is of no value as a local anesthetic when applied to the mucous membrane. The result was satisfactory if the H. M. C. was given according to instructions. The first injection was usually given an hour before the operation and the second one was given half an hour before the patient was put on the operating table. Towards the close of the operation the effect seemed to be very satisfactory, and the patient experienced no pain whatever when the nerve was cut. Deep injections were made with the two per cent apothesin, the same as subconjunctival injections into the muscle sheath, and no cocain except four per cent solution was used and that was instilled at the beginning. One could use large quantities of apothesin; as much as two ounces had been given subcutaneously for extensive superficial operations and no deleterious effects ensued.

Dr. H. J. Smith asked why the essayist did not use novocain, which he thought was safer for the patient if he wanted to use any quantity. The injection should be made in the loose tissue of the orbit. Unless one placed the cocain solution very accurately he could hardly accomplish his object without using too much. With novocain one could infiltrate the entire orbit and cover the ground very well and at the same time keep within the bounds of safety.

He also asked Dr. Hayden why he injected cocain into the vitreous chamber. There might be a reason for this, but it was not apparent to him.

Dr. William A. Mann said he had operated on two cases and was pleased with the operation. He did not think it necessary to go through the eyeball to anesthetize the tissues back of the eyeball, as those same tissues could be reached by rotating the eyeball after the recti muscles had been cut. In the two cases on which he had operated the pain was not entirely relieved, although if he were to have the operation done on himself he would prefer local anesthesia to ether unless there was very marked sensitiveness of the ciliary nerves.

Dr. Hayden, in closing, stated in regard to the use of hyoscin, morphin and cactin that it properly came between local and general anesthesia, but he could readily see how it would be a distinct help for any local anesthetic procedure that might be attempted. Of course, the hyoscin was a powerful toxin and even in small quantities should be used very guardedly, and he did not know whether the use of those drugs together with the cocain that was employed was a good thing if a satisfactory degree of anesthesia could be obtained by the use of cocain alone.

As to the penetration of the globe, he simply wanted to try it. He figured it out this way: it was perhaps easier to penetrate the globe and reach the terminations of the ciliary nerve that lie around the optic nerve instead of going back of the ciliary ganglion along the path of the external rectus muscle. There was a difference in depth of about an inch. The ganglion was located nearly two inches back, whereas going straight through the globe the termination of the same nerves could be reached fully an inch further forward. It seemed to him that puncture and counterpuncture of the globe was attended by absolutely no risk, although he had only done this in one case. It was apparently quite easy to strike the sclera just to the temporal side of the optic nerve, and on the second injection to strike it just to the nasal side of the optic nerve by

rotating the needle about fifteen degrees.

Dr. Martin, from South Dakota, who happened to be in Chicago at the time, had witnessed the operation, and he felt that the severance of the optic nerve would be attended by great pain. So far as the speaker knew, the optic nerve itself was absolutely insensitive, but the small nerves which lie close to the optic nerve just before they perforate the sclera were sensitive. This was what was meant by saying that dividing the optic nerve might be attended by a considerable amount of pain. It was not the pain from the cutting of the optic nerve itself but the ciliary nerve branches in the vicinity. Lastly, if he was unfortunate enough to have to do many of these operations he would resort to local anesthesia.

As Dr. Murray had remarked, enucleations were done under local anesthesia as a routine procedure, in certain European clinics (notably in Paris). More of these operations could be done here in America, especially in selected cases, with great advantage to patient and operator as well.

Dr. Noble asked Dr. Hayden if he thought with a plus three tension he could have manipulated the eye without pain under cocain anesthesia, if he had not opened the sclera and reduced the tension?

Dr. Hayden, in replying, stated that he had the feeling the intraocular injections could not have been made without causing great pain unless the tension was first reduced.

In answer to Dr. Smith, he stated that there was no particular reason for the injection of the cocain inside the globe except this: The chances were it would be rather slowly absorbed into the circulation from the globe cavity, and that it was at least not dangerous if given in this location. In the second place, there might have been some chance of reaching the region behind the nerve through the return ciliary circulation.

Lenticular Lens for High Myopia.

Dr. Carl O. Schneider remarked that when prescribing concave lenses of about ten diopters or more, we were well aware of the excessive weight and thickness, and of the conspicuous rings or reflections of the edge that were present in concave lenses of the ordinary form.

To overcome these objections, the well-known lenticular lens, consisting of a plano or perfectly flat piece of glass with the concavity ground in the center, had long been in use. This form of lens gained only a slight reduction in weight and thickness, and it had the disadvantage of only a small concave area, and this area could be increased in size only at the expense of the objectionable added weight and thickness.

It occurerd to him sixteen years ago, while studying optics, and making diagrams of the course of a ray of light through various forms of lenses, that the combination of concavity in the center of a convex piece of glass would produce a lens suitable for the correction of a high degree of myopia, and which would contain a much smaller amount of glass, and at the same time admit of a larger concave area, than did the ordinary lenticular or any other form of concave lens then available.

Upon inquiry, he found that no lenses of this type had been made, and certainly none like it were in use before the time he applied for the patent which covered the subject of this paper.

He quoted from specifications on Patent No. 744,982 that was issued to him November 24, 1903, as follows: "The present invention consists in forming a concave lens by grinding a central concavity of the desired curvature in a main body portion of the required dimensions, and which body portion is of a double-convex, a plano-convex, or a compound-convex form. As so formed a concave lens for spectacles and like uses is produced containing a much less quantity of glass for a concave lens of a given focus and size than it had been possible to pro-

duce heretofore. The present invention also renders it possible to grind a concave lens with thin edges, and thus entirely eliminate the numerous objectionable and annoying reflections or rings which appear in a concave lens of the ordinary form. In addition to the foregoing, the present invention affords a lens of a neat and pleasing appearance, and its thinness at the

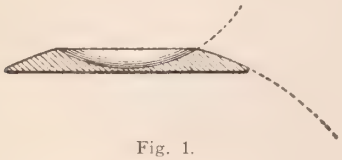


Fig. 1.

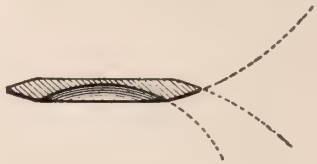


Fig. 2.

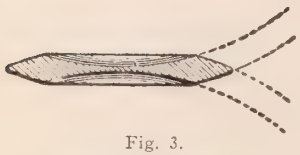


Fig. 3.

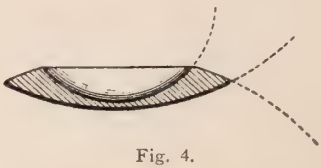


Fig. 4.

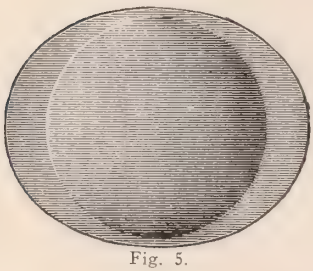


Fig. 5.

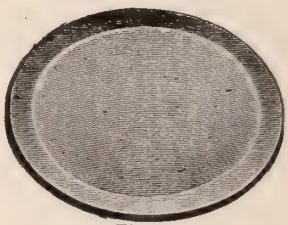


Fig. 6.

Figs. 1-6. Schneider's Lenticular Lens for High Myopia.

margin permits of a very ready, neat, and substantial attachment to the spectacle rim or to the straps of a rimless mounting."

With the aid of the toric lens surfacing machine, it was possible by applying this same principle to produce the concave surface in an oval form, and the Schneider oval lenticular lens was undoubtedly the most beautiful concave lens that it was possible to prescribe for a patient having a high myopia.

In the author's experience, myopes of ten diopters or over would gain sufficient advantage by reduction in weight and by improved appearance to warrant the use of some form of this lens; but it was particularly in cases requiring a correction of about —20.00 D. or more that the patient was considerably benefited and invariably delighted with this new form of lenticular lens.

In obtaining this patent, the object was merely to definitely establish the fact that he had made this slight contribution for the good of humanity. No restrictions had ever been imposed against the free use of these lenses. No fee or royalty had ever been charged or collected under this patent, and he was permitting all optical shops to make any of these lenticular lenses without any financial obligation to him whatever.

Discussion: Dr. Michael Goldenburg said he had been familiar with the Schneider lenticular lens, but did not know that a member of the society or resident of Chicago was the inventor of it. He had been using this lens for a number of years; it was a beautiful thing and gave much finer and clearer vision than any lens on the market.

Dr. Robert Von Der Heydt stated that owing to the present tendency toward larger lenses, the myope especially was very badly handicapped.

He had been using these lenses for years, and also used the toric lenticular lens in which the bevel edge was toric instead of plus sphere. It gave an oval instead of a round field, which made it a good looking lens. There was one optical company which produced a similar lens by beveling the edges by hand on the grindstone. He thought it would be a good idea to make these thick lenses out of flint glass having a higher index of refraction. In this way we should get a thinner lens diopter for diopter than with the usual crown glass.

While the subject of lenses was up for discussion, he would like to mention a very great and seemingly unavoidable defect created by prescribing kryptok bifocals where one eye was quite different from the other in refraction in the vertical meridian. When, for instance, one prescriped a lens for an individual that had minus two sphere for distance for one eye, and only minus one sphere in the other eye, a difference of a diopter, he was creating a hyperphoria. By using a prism in the lower segment that could not be avoided. In any individual, where there was a difference in the refraction of one eye as compared with the other in the vertical meridian, that difference would manifest itself in the reading segment by about as many tenths of degrees of prism as the difference in diopters. One was artificially creating a hyperphoria which could not be avoided in kryptok lenses as made at present. (Here Dr. Von Der Heydt illustrated the point by the aid of diagrams.)

At the request of the president, Dr. Schneider explained how the lens was ground and described the mechanical methods that were used by opticians in producing it.

ALFRED N. MURRAY, Sec.

ABSTRACTS

H. Weve.—Epidemic Parotitis with Iridocyclitis.—Tydschr. v Geneesk. Feb. 23, 1918.

Weve reports three cases of this disease, where he can exclude, with much greater certainty than Heerfordt could in 1909, tuberculosis, lues and pseudoleukemia; and he accepts on epidemiologic and clinical grounds as cause of the common epidemic parotitis.

It seems contrary to the literature that chronic iridocyclitis should be not a very rare localization of the virus of the epidemic parotitis But this can be explained, as in most cases the iridocyclitis precedes some weeks the appearance of the parotitis. The parotitis is then considered as an intercurrent disease, for which the patient is treated by his family physician; and of which the ophthalmologist in most cases does not hear. Only in rare cases where the parotid swelling remains for a long time has the ophthalmologist a chance to think of a connection.

CASE 1. A 14-year old boy came with a double iridocyclitis to the clinic. The eyes were externally pale. The pupils reacted well, and there were some Descemet spots, fine posterior synechiae, and marked optic neuritis with slightly curved and strongly filled vessels. R. V.=5/5 Temp. in bed (three weeks after the onset) normal. Only once the evening temp. was 37.8° in axilla. Leucocytosis. Tuberculin TR up to 20 mgr. subcutaneously never showed any reaction. On discharge no Descemet spots. In L. only a few fine posterior synechiae and some fine vitreous dust and slight optic neuritis.

Four or five months after the first attack the patient returned with a marked painless double swelling of both parotids. The recurrence came without pain, and at the same time L., which had remained pale, had become strongly injected and painful. Fresh Descemet spots and a distinct optic neuritis were present. The lymphocytosis was somewhat increased, compared with the first attack. Some two months later, while the parotid swelling was still present a nodule formed in the left iris. No more Descemet spots were present. At the same time

some ten fresh Descemet spots appeared in O. D. and a nodule in the chamber angle, which looked somewhat like a beginning gumma. Slowly a double nodular iritis developed, which looked especially menacing in R. Strong increase of the number of Descemet spots, deep blue-red pericorneal injection, edema of the cornea especially down, diminution of V. in R. to about 1/4. Three injections of 20, 15 and 8 cm. subcutaneously of serum from a patient, who had recovered from epidemic parotitis were tolerated without disturbance or reaction. No favorable influence upon the ocular process was noted. The nodules grew in both eyes, the Descemet spots increased. Von Pirquet reaction was again negative. Radium was tried. R. was treated with 5 mgr. during 10 minutes, in 8 weeks 15 times. Fourteen days after the beginning distinct improvement was visible. The Descemet spots were reduced in number and size as against L., which had not received the rays. A month after the beginning the nodules in R. had become smaller, and three weeks still later they were nearly absorbed, the Descemet spots could be counted. Six weeks after the beginning the radium treatment R., which for a year had been refractory to every treatment, was entirely cured. V. after correction=1, 5.

As L. did not progress it also was treated, but to reach a quicker result the sitting lasted 20 minutes, nine in five weeks. This improved also, within 14 days. Within four weeks the large tumor had entirely shrunken and the hundreds of Descemet spots had disappeared except a few. V., which was before the radium treatment 1/3 improved to 3/4. Condition half a year later: R. a few Descemet spots centrally. V=5/4+. L. a number of fine Descemet spots are visible down, optic nerve not sharply defined, V.= 5/4—.

Case 2. Mother of three healthy children, 28 years old. On February 1 peripheral facial palsy on the right side, which was healed three weeks later. A week after the beginning swelling of the left parotid; three weeks after this the right parotid also began to swell. After some two to three months they disappeared slowly. The lacrimal glands were not affected. In the middle of June the patient came under observation. She states distinctly that some weeks before the facial palsy L. had become cloudy. Only five weeks thereafter, therefore about the same time of the right sided parotitis, R. became blurry. In November V. was in each eye=1. Some fine vitreous dust and very fine, partly brown Descemet spots are still present. The strong posterior synechiae did not loosen.

Case 3. A 15 years old girl, had not been sick. L. began to blurr in the middle of April, and became red. A week later the left cheek, and again a week later the right cheek became swollen; and two weeks later R. became inflamed. Four or five weeks after the beginning of the inflammation of L. a left facial palsy appeared, which remained about a month. The menses stayed away during five months, after the beginning of the ocular affection. The painless swellings of the parotids had disappeared after two weeks. The ocular inflammation was not entirely cured after four months; then the condition of both eyes became worse and the patient presented herself at the dispensary. She was taken in the hospital and remained two months. R. being the worst was treated with radium twice a week during 15 minutes, 5 mgr. radium in copper tube with mica-plate. She received 20 treatments. After a few weeks, improvement set in. L. improved spontaneously. Three months after the beginning of the treatment only a small residue remains of the Descemet spots with a rather sharply limited opacity in the deepest corneal layers (=the toxic edema of Straub). A few small vessels go toward this infiltrate. After correction V.=1/4, optic nerve very red. In L. a central group of the Descemet opacities with corresponding deep infiltration, a small deep infiltration medium and down and a few iris vessels, strong optic neuritis corrected V=1/6. [See A. J. O. June 1918. p. 433-4.] E. E. B.

Pacheco Luna. Study of Trachoma in Guatemala. (Guatemala, 1918.)

The author has found trachoma an exceedingly rare disease in Guatemala. In twelve years of practice, he has not been able to find the disease in creoles or natives. All are imported cases, which, he asserts, lose rapidly their contagiousness and do not infect natives, notwithstanding the bad hygienic surroundings and crowding prevalent amongst the people in cities.

He attributes this attenuation of virulence to the climate, but mentions also the fact that in France trachoma is rare, and not transmissible, the poor trachomatous Jews of the Bastille Borough in Paris, enjoying full liberty and never transmitting the disease to relatives.

The same thing happens in Mexico, where true trachoma is very rare. In the reviewer's experience only three in 1,000 of his dispensary cases developed trachoma. This rarity, however, is probably much more dependent on the scarcity of immigration than on climatic conditions. In some places of Mexico where immigration is active the number of trachoma cases increase and the natives are also infected. The same occurs in Argentina, according to Otto Wernicke.

URIBE TRONCOSO.

Lhermitte, J., and Saint-Martin, de. Primary Polioencephalitis with Narcolepsy. Ann. d'Ocul., 1918, v. 155, p. 487.

The authors report three cases appearing during the course of an epidemic in the early part of 1918, generally known as "Lethargic Encephalitis." The predominant features of this disease are ocular paralysis, narcolepsy or somnolence and alterations in the general health. The ocular manifestations are found in the initial stage, either preceding or closely following the somnolence. Unilateral or bilateral inward deviation of the eyeball and ptosis are the most striking ocular symptoms. In the first two cases of the authors, there was almost complete paralysis of all the branches of both motor oculi, altho the different branches were unequally affected. In the third case, the external rectus of each eye was affected. A review is given of the general symptoms and eye findings as shown by the experiences of other authors. The characteristic of the ophthalmoplegias is that they are disassociated and migratory. This, with the somnolence, would indicate a lesion in the peduncular region, that is of the nuclei of the III and VI nerves and possibly their connecting fibers. This has been confirmed by postmortem findings. It is an infectious disease, the agent of which has not been identified. C. L.

Frenkel, H.—Prognosis and Treatment of Ocular Wounds Due to Penetrating Foreign Bodies. — Archives d'Ophtalmologie, July-August, 1918, Vol. XXXVI, p. 193.

The fact that wounds of the globe due to penetrating foreign bodies give a much better prognosis in civil than in military life is due to the fact that in civil life the foreign bodies are, as a rule, single, whereas in military life they are generally multiple. This fact can often be determined by radiography of the eye in situ, but becomes much more apparent when radiography of the enucleated eyes is practised. This explains why in war work enucleation is often found necessary even after an easy and seemingly successful extraction with the magnet. In 59 out of 100 enucleated eyes chosen at random foreign bodies were found; 21 of the 59 showed a single foreign body, 38 more than one, one having more than 17, and 4 metallic dust. Most of these bodies were so small that their extraction was impossible even with the strongest magnets unless by chance the magnet came very close to them. In two cases there remained a second foreign body in the eye after the first had been extracted with the magnet. In spite of its drawbacks the large magnet is the more useful, the small magnet often giving negative results. Sometimes repeated applications of the magnet will be crowned with success; presumably the foreign body gets shifted into a position more favorable for its extraction. M. W. F.

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THE EYES OF THE AVIATOR.

If aviation had been achieved thru an evolutionary transition extending over countless generations, like that from the fish to the bird, it would have been attended with the perfecting of physical organization by the weeding out of countless defects, little noticed and of trifling importance while we walk on the earth, but fatal when we attempt to mount into the air. Among such defects, previously little thought of, are some of the eye and vision, that rise to tragic prominence with attempts at flying.

To speak of the air service as "the eyes of the modern army" is to keep as near the truth as figurative statement ever can. Blind Samson, the sport of his enemies, might well represent an army of today without its aviators. And if, by sacrifice of his own existence Samson could inflict terrible punishment upon the enemy, still it was only "schrecklichkeit," not military efficiency.

If salt that has lost its savor is useless, what is to be said of the eye that does not see things that safety requires should be seen? A scotoma, never appreciated as a defect in the field of vision, may hide an enemy until time for effective defense is passed. Color perception only slightly subnormal might make the observer fatally slow to pierce a disguise. A minor defect of motor coördination and balance may be of no importance while a man stands with his feet on the earth, yet it means disaster when attempting a difficult landing.

The experience of war has led to the relaxation of visual requirements in many branches of the service. But for air service it teaches that they should be made, if possible, more exacting, and should be rigidly enforced.

No material relaxation of them is possible without an increase in the proportion of fatalities, which makes those inflicted by the enemy look small in comparison.

The Major in the regular army whose son has a slight macular lesion, and minute relative scotoma with disturbance of muscle balance, never be-

fore noticed, cannot understand why his boy may not gratify his laudable ambition to become a flier.

The Congressman, who does not know the difference between the accommodation of the eye, and that of obtaining a small loan from his bank, does not understand why the government should be put to the expense of a physiologic laboratory like that at Mineola. Yet the Major would be inconsolable for the death of his son in the smash of a bad landing; and the Congressman would declaim most eloquently against the sacrifice of $50,000 airplanes to say nothing of the expense of the training and lives of needed officers thru the temporary disabilities produced by altitude or training in stunt flying necessary for attack or defense in the air.

There is great need for scientific men to acquaint themselves with the facts regarding the physical requirements for safe and successful aviation; and then to exert themselves actively in producing a public opinion that will support rigid requirements for the aviator, and scientific study of all the difficulties he has to meet and overcome. The book on Air Service Medical, elsewhere noticed in this number, should be read and studied by every oculist who wishes to keep in touch with the newest and most suggestive phases of medical thought; and at the same time get a new point of view for the functions and diseases with which he has to deal in his daily practice, and fit himself to perform his educational duty toward the public.

E. J.

RELATIVE SCARCITY OF TRACHOMA ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

Rarely does a writer remark upon the paucity of clinical material; rather is it true that he selects a subject for which he has gathered as many cases as possible.

This writer has been struck with the fewness of trachoma patients whose home is in the Pacific Northwest. This is the more remarkable because our population is easily eighty per cent transplanted from other sections of America, with a great mixture of the foreign element from all parts of the world. Of the latter there are race elements prone to this disease;—the Swedes and Norwegians, those from the Levant, Southern Europe and the Japanese. Odds and ends of peoples are found; even the Spanish-speaking Jews from the Marmora seacoast of Turkey, and as a contrast occasionally an Eskimo.

The coast Indian tribes are not at all afflicted with trachoma, while those east of the Cascade Mountains, and particularly those east of the Rockies, have quite a high percentage of sore eyes from this disease.

The writer finds quite a contrast in the last 10 years of his practice to the two decades spent in the Great Lakes Regions, as regards the prevalence of trachoma in private practice. His recent experience in Army Service corroborates the opinion that the affliction is not only not endemic in the Northwest, but that practically all cases here are imported, few arise de novo, or few contagions result.

We must then ascribe the relative immunity of our inhabitants to the climate, to the absence of dust and flies;—due to the cool, equable and moist climate as well as to the character of the soil, which is mostly a loam upon gravel or hard pan, there being little fine sand or clay to form dust. Then, too, our people live largely out of doors, even during our winter weather.

Conditions are different over the mountains where the intense heat of the summer with its dust and dirt and the rigors of the winter, with the fouler air of house living, give local causes of ocular irritation. Now are these not provocative causes for trachoma? Certainly the refractive conditions with the eye strain are not different here, neither are the other alleged causes of the disease. Thus the writer comes to the conclusion regarding trachoma that the moderate climate of the Northwest Pacific slope is

a favorable factor for its cure; and that these cases do not obtain here as often as elsewhere.

H. V. W.

OPHTHALMOLOGY FOR MEDICAL STUDENTS.

When American Medical Schools granted the M. D. after two courses of five months each; and the clinical teaching consisted of lectures to a hundred or two hundred students, with a patient for a text; or an operative exhibition where a dozen nearest the patient could observe part of the technic; and when the student could graduate without even looking thru a microscope; ophthalmology was supposed to be well treated if it received any attention at all.

The medical course has lengthened from 10 to 36 or 48 months. Clinical teaching includes section demonstrations, ward walks, individual study of assigned cases, and practical hospital interne work. The laboratory buildings are the chief buildings of the medical school, and in fundamental branches laboratory hours exceed those for lectures and recitations. But the improvements in the teaching of ophthalmology have not kept pace with this progress, and are not proportioned to the importance of the subject in its bearings on general medicine.

This teaching of ophthalmology to medical students in general is important to the ophthalmologist from two standpoints. It furnishes the start for his special training in ophthalmology, and it determines the point of view of the general medical profession with regard to ophthalmology, and their ability to coöperate with the ophthalmologist and appreciate the special services that he renders.

An interesting symposium upon such teaching is published in the *Edinburgh Medical Journal* for January, 1919. The writers are, E. Treacher Collins, Freeland Fergus, Wm. G. Sym, and J. V. Paterson, all competent ophthalmologists and experienced teachers. They agree that the time assigned to ophthalmology, "20 meetings," is inadequate; that 32 or 40 are needed, that most of these should be clinical, or demonstrations which might well extend over more than one hour each.

All of these writers agree that certain things of importance in general practice, like ophthalmia neonatorum or glaucoma, should be taught and emphasized. But it is pointed out that only a part of the students, one in five according to Fergus, will profit much by work in refraction.

Collins and Fergus dwell on the need for teaching every medical student to use the ophthalmoscope, Collins enumerates the questions it will settle with regard to general diseases, and its value in training to exact observation. Paterson says it should be taught as early as possible in the course, and used in every clinic in the latter clinical part of the course. Fergus would have the student become as familiar with its use as with that of the clinical thermometer.

It might be urged with even greater force that every medical student should use this instrument for the ophthalmoscopic study of pathology. A particularly weak point in the improved, extended medical curriculum is the wide gap between the study of pathologic changes in the dead body, and the study of symptoms in the living. The ophthalmoscope making possible the study of pathology, day after day, in living nervous, vascular, and connective structures, should be made to bridge this gap between fundamental and practical training; and bring laboratory exactness to the study of symptomatology.

It is a good sign when four such ophthalmologists as those above mentioned are asked to contribute to a series of discussions of general medical education. The proper undergraduate teaching of ophthalmology should be urged by ophthalmologists everywhere, until its importance is appreciated by the whole medical profession.

E. J.

BOOK NOTICES.

Air Service Medical: War Department: Air Service Division of Military Aeronautics. Octavo. 446 pages. Illustrated. Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office, 1919.

This large book, bringing up the medical history of the air service to March, 1919, will be of great interest to the medical profession in general. We can only note here the parts that refer especially to ophthalmology, and certain sections bearing on general function and nutrition that include notable effects on the eye. It is "for educational purposes that the Director of Military Aeronautics deemed it advisable to issue this book. Its object is to set forth Aviation's debt to Medicine, and to make clear the part played by the Air Medical Service in the winning of the war in the air."

This work is sharply divided into three phases, the selection of the flier; the classification of the flier; and the maintenance of the physical efficiency of the flier. In the selection the object was that no aviator should "fail in his mission against the Hun because of discoverable physical defect." The importance of this was not at first appreciated by anyone, and is still not understood by those who have not sufficiently studied the matter. The approximate statistics thus stated are startling. "When it is stated that 2 per cent of the total number of fliers incapacitated for further air service are put out by the Hun, and 8 per cent because of mechanical shortcomings of the airplane, the remaining 90 per cent looms large when it is realized that this proportion represents troubles in the flier himself."

In the light of experience, the minute investigation of the special senses and general physical fitness of applicants for the air service, that have been often adversely criticized is more than justified. Men were rejected, not because they could not fly, but because under the stress of air battle some slight discoverable weakness or tendency would turn the balance against them.

We can safely claim that never before have any large number of men undergone such minute searching and scientific examination as the fliers for the American Army.

Among these examinations the visual and ocular occupy a very important place. In the 67 units established for such examination 176 ophthalmologists took part in the work. The investigation they conducted in every instance covered the following points:

1. History of previous or present eye trouble.
2. Stereoscopic vision.
3. Ocular movements.
4. Pupillary reactions—direct, consensual, accommodation.
5. Intraocular tension.
6. Any visible lesion of the eye.
7. Nystagmus.
8. Field of vision.
9. Color vision.
10. Muscle balance at 20 feet.
11. Visual acuity — distance, near point.
12. Ophthalmoscopic findings with dilated pupil.

The schedule is one that may well be made the basis of any scheme for thoro ocular examination. The illustrations and descriptions here given of the conduct of such an investigation make this work an extremely valuable guide for anyone desiring to perfect himself in methods of ocular diagnosis.

Of the men presenting themselves as applicants for the air service, 29.3 per cent failed to pass the physical examination; and of these 5.9 failed in the eye examination alone; 7 per cent in two tests, and 8.6 per cent in three or more tests. Practically 50 per cent of those rejected failed to meet the eye requirements. Of 59 thus rejected for eye defects, 33 had low visual acuity, 10 had defective color vision, 7 imperfect muscle balance, 5 lacked stereoscopic vision, and 3 were eliminated because of the ophthalmoscopic evidences of disease.

The effects of altitude or of oxygen deficiency on ocular functions, particularly visual acuity, accommodation, the field of vision, and motor coördination

is so important, and so much light has been thrown upon the subject by the laboratory researches carried on in connection with the Air Service Medical, that it will be considered separately in a later issue.

It is rarely that a volume of solid scientific worth contains so much of dramatic interest and romance. It is worthy the careful perusal of anyone who can secure it.

E. J.

Revista Cubana de Oftalmologia. Published quarterly. Dr. Francisco Maria Fernandez, Editor. Dr. Jesus M. Penichet, Secretary. Havana, Cuba. Subscription Price, $6 per year.

It is not often that a new ophthalmic journal has a chance to fill a real and long felt want; but this one has that opportunity and uses it admirably. The first number is put out as a double number covering the first half of the year 1919, and consists of 226 pages, of which 14 are given to a biographic section, 112 pages to original papers, and the remainder to progress of ophthalmology and reviews of ophthalmic journals and societies, with notices of deaths, and miscellaneous items.

The biographic section contains 6 biographies, each accompanied by a half tone portrait. Of the 24 original papers, 2 are illustrated. The paper used and the press work are good; so that the Revista Cubana makes a better appearance than any ophthalmic journal heretofore printed in the Spanish language. We know enough of the work of Drs. Fernandez and Penichet to feel sure that this will be an addition of real value to the ophthalmic journals of the world. Spanish-speaking countries, especially those of America, have recently manifested an active and productive interest in ophthalmology. Thru this channel they will have something of real worth to offer to the general store of our literature.

E. J.

Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association. Presession Volume for 1919. Edited by the Secretary, A. E. Bulson, Jr., pages 307. Illustrated.

This volume, altho printed and circulated, is not published. It is distributed free to those who have registered as members in attendance at a meeting of the Section within the last five years. It is the most valuable piece of free ophthalmic literature we know of. On the other hand, those whose papers are thus distributed have 1,000 or 1,200 reprints of their papers sent to the most appreciative list of readers, for much less than they could get the same number of reprints sent any other way.

It might be objected that this duplicates the volume of Transactions to appear later. In a way it does; but it adds greatly to the value of that volume by bringing out discussions of much higher value than could be had without this; and those discussions will be a most valuable part of the Transactions.

E. J.

BIOGRAPHIC SKETCHES

Thomas Hall Shastid

SUPERIOR, WIS.

Urban S. Bird. An ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist of Tampa, Florida, well known thruout the South. Born in 1867, he received the medical degree at Tulane University, New Orleans, in 1895, and at once settled in Tampa. Ten years later he went again to New Orleans, where he studied ophthalmology and oto-laryngology for two years. Returning to Tampa he practiced there as ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist for the remainder of his life. He was a member of the American Laryngological, Rhinological and Otological Society. and a surgeon of U. S. volunteers during the war with Spain. He also held a lieutenant's commission in the American Army during the Great War, and was honorably discharged Dec. 5, 1918. He died Jan. 11, 1919.

WILLIAM CHEATHAM. One of the best known eye and ear specialists in Kentucky. Born in Taylorsville, Ky., June 6, 1852, son of William H. and Elizabeth (Vandyke) Cheatham, he removed with his parents to Louisville while still a mere boy. In 1873 he received the degree of A. B. from the Kentucky Military Institute at Frankfort. Three years later he received the medical degree at the University of Louisville.

Going to New York, he became an intern in the Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital and at the same time a private pupil of Dr. Cornelius Rea Agnew, that famous teacher of so many excellent ophthalmologists. Having completed his course under Dr. Agnew, he studied his specialties further in London, Paris, and Vienna.

Returning to Louisville, he began at once to practice as ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist, and soon had an excellent practice. He was promptly given a lectureship at the University, and, soon after, the full professorship. At the time of his death he was Professor Emeritus of Ophthalmology, Rhinology, Otology and Laryngology. He was a member of the American Ophthalmological Society, and a Fellow of the American College of Surgeons.

Dr. Cheatham married, Oct. 2, 1879, Miss Nellie Garrard, who died a few years ago.

In the latter part of 1917 Dr. Cheatham began to notice a certain recurring weakness of the heart. Early in the present year the attacks became more serious, and, in the afternoon of April 3, 1919, the doctor left his office, walked into the corridor of St. Joseph's infirmary, and said to the sisters who greeted him, "I have come over to die." Three hours later he had expired. Dr. Cheatham was survived by a daughter, Mrs. Joseph R. Baker, of Evanston, Ill., and a sister, Mrs. E. D. Borne, of Taylorsville.

Dr. Cheatham was a man of great nervous energy and a tireless worker. He was often said to have treated gratis more patients than probably any other doctor in Kentucky. It is further said of him that he secured a reduction in the price of optical goods for those for whom he had prescribed, and who could not afford to pay the full prices. His love for animals was very pronounced, and he had many pets. Among these were three little rat terriers, Chita, Minnie, and Cricky, which he himself would always feed and on which he lavished much attention and care. He used to say that they helped fill the void in his life caused by the loss of loved ones. He had also a number of parrakeets, which whistled and chattered in a cage in his reception hall.

As to further characteristics a friend has written: "He was a man fond of good reading, of the classics, and he had many beautifully bound works in which he took delight. A collection of Hogarth engravings also was one of his possessions in which he took much pride. His Chestnut street office and home was filled with a number of curios, some of great historical value. Many of them were Civil, Mexican and Revolutionary War relics. He had a number of foreign weapons, some of ancient date, many of which had been used by noted persons. Never did he fail to entertain a visitor or patient with some interesting things which he had picked up here or there on his travels or which had been given him by those who knew of his hobby. Some valuable cloisonne vases were among his collection." Yet another friend has written: "In his day the most distinguished eye, ear, nose and throat specialist of the Southern country, Dr. Cheatham was never too busy to attend a patient, nor was a patient ever too poor to command his most scrupulous service. He believed that the art he was born with and the science he acquired through years of faithful study belonged to mankind, and so he used it. . . . To the public, there was never a truer friend; to his patients, there was never a less sordid healer; to his friend, there was never a finer comrade than Dr. Cheatham. The light fades from his tired eyes to live forever in the recollection of those who loved him."

George Anderson Cubbison. A well known ophthalmologist of Erie, Penna. Born in 1863, he received the medical degree at the Western Pennsylvania Medical College, Pittsburgh, in 1897. He died at his home Dec. 21, 1918, after a short illness from pneumonia. He was a Knight Templar, a Shriner, a member of the Temple Band. He is survived by his widow and two sons.

Mitchell Mikkelsen. An ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist of Wells, Minnesota. He was born in Dane County, Wis., July 27, 1850, son of Knute and Caroline (Erickson) Mikkelsen. At the age of 22, in 1872, he homesteaded 160 acres of land in South Dakota, where, on a number of occasions, he had serious difficulties with the Indians. Later he became a herder of the Texas cattle which were owned by the U. S. Indian Agency nearby, and, in this way, was enabled to save the money which gave him a medical education. In 1877 he graduated at the College of Physicians and Surgeons, at Keokuk, Iowa, and in 1884 at the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Chicago. For twenty-seven years he practiced at Wells. He married on Oct. 22, 1879, a Miss Ella Heffron. After her death he married Miss Mary Perrigode Runo, a lady of French extraction. She died about fifteen years ago. For the last few years Dr. Mikkelsen had been living in retirement and in very feeble health. He died Jan. 8, 1919, from pneumonia.

Ellsworth Hazen Noble. A homeopathic ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist, of Elmira, New York, well known locally. Born in 1866, he graduated from the Columbia College of Pharmacy in 1886 and from the New York Homeopathic Medical College in 1890. For about twenty years he practiced in Elmira. He died at his home in Elmira March 6, 1919, from acute gastritis, and was survived by his widow, who, before her marriage to Dr. Noble, was Miss Florence Loughhead, of Elmira.

Samuel Leo Oren. A young ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist of Lewistown, Ill., who gave much promise. He was born at Laporte, Ia., on Oct. 1, 1879. Having attended Upper Iowa University at Fayette, Ia., he entered the Barnes Medical College, at St. Louis, Mo., at a very early age, and there received his medical degree in 1899, being only twenty years old. Later he took a year's graduate course in the medical department of the Iowa State University, at Iowa City, Ia.

For a time he practiced at Davis, Ill., but removed to Lewistown on Jan. 1, 1903, where he formed a partnership with his father, Dr. S. A. Oren. He married, in 1904, Miss Helen A. Wise, of Davis, Ill. He received his commission as first lieutenant in the medical corps of the U. S. Army on Aug. 18, 1917, and embarked for overseas in July, 1918. He died on duty in France, Oct. 9, 1918, presumably of collapse following ambulatory typhoid fever, and was buried with military honors in an American graveyard at Clermont-Ferrand, France.

James Morrison Ray. A well known ophthalmologist of Louisville, Ky. He was born Aug. 10, 1860, at Bloomfield, Nelson Co., Ky., son of Isaac N. and Ruth (Bodine) Ray, and nephew of the celebrated Dr. James M. Bodine. He received the medical degree at the University of Louisville in 1882, and, after a brief period of general practice, went to New York, where he studied the eye, ear, nose and throat in the Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital. While in this institution he was assistant to the famous Dr. Cornelius Rea Agnew.

Returning to Louisville in 1885, Dr. Ray settled in that city as ophthalmologist and oto-laryngologist, and was immediately afterward appointed a clinical assistant in ophthalmology, otology, and laryngology in the Medical Department of the University of Louisville. He afterwards studied the eye, ear, nose and throat in Paris, London, and Vienna, and, returning to Louisville, was awarded the full professorship of opththalmology in his alma mater. When the various Louisville schools merged with the Medical Department of the University, Dr. Ray was elected chairman of the medical faculty, a position which he held till his

death. He was ophthalmic surgeon to the Louisville City and to the SS. Mary and Elizabeth Hospitals, a member of the American Ophthalmological Society, a delegate to the International Medical Congress at London in 1913, and a Fellow of the American College of Surgeons. He was a Baptist.

Dr. Ray never married. He died in Louisville, Oct. 11, 1918, of chronic Bright's disease, survived by only two near relatives, sisters—Mrs. Sam Fulton, of Florida, and Mrs. Kate Wilson, of Louisville.

Dr. Ray was a large, stout man, of a fair complexion, and with gray eyes and brown hair. He wore as a rule a mustache. Concerning his mental characteristics a friend has written as follows: "It was said of him that his assiduity to and love for his profession served as an inspiration to the younger generation of physicians in Louisville. A gruffness of manner, which, however, was only a cloak which concealed a generosity of heart unequalled in Louisville. This, it was said, was the outstanding feature of his unique personality. Even to those he loved most, this characteristic was most apparent, and it was something which those who met him casually never failed to remark. This trait of gruffness concealing over-generosity, as it was characterized, was something to which hundreds of persons to whom he had given the best of his skill in the alleviation of disease and suffering might testify. Many of these never received a bill from him. Others, it is said, were made everlastingly grateful by a modest charge from an unusually able specialist.

Richard Andrews Reeve was a prominent Canadian ophthalmologist. Born in Toronto in 1842, son of William R. Reeve, he received the degree of B. A. at Toronto University in 1862, winning the silver medal in Natural Sciences. In 1865 he received the M. D. at Queen's University, Kingston, and, again, in 1889, at the University of Toronto. He became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1866.

From 1865 until his death he seems to have practiced continuously in Toronto, excepting when engaged in study for the *ad eundem* degree. In 1867 he began to devote his attention exclusively to diseases of the eye and ear.

For many years he lectured on ophthalmology in the Toronto School of Medicine, and, from 1885 until his death, on ophthalmology and otology in the University of Toronto. In 1890 he was chosen dean of the medical faculty, a position which he resigned in 1908. He was made chief of the eye department in the Toronto General Hospital in 1907. He was also, for a time, a member of the Toronto University Council and of the Board of Regents of Victoria University.

Dr. Reeve was once president of the Canadian Medical Association, and was president of the British Medical Association when it met at Toronto in 1906. He was a delegate to the British Medical Congress in 1910 and from 1904-7 president of the University Alumni Association. He was also a Fellow of the American College of Surgeons.

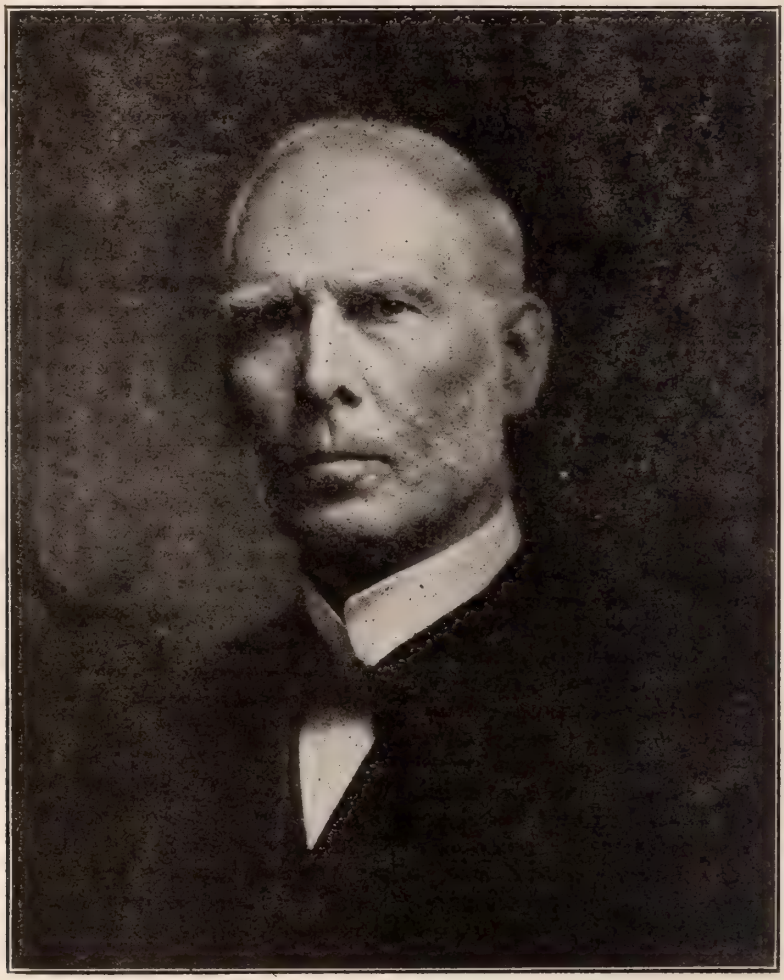
Dr. Reeve died suddenly on Jan. 27, 1919, at Harbord Street and Spadina Avenue, Toronto. He was an active member of the Central Methodist Church. Mrs. Reeve had died about two years before, and the only surviving relatives are two sisters and a brother, Dr. J. Reeve, of Deland, Florida.

Concerning the personality of Dr. Reeve, a writer in "The Canada Lancet" gives us the following: "His was one of those quiet, subtle influences that took a hold of one; and once it laid hold, grew. No one ever heard a rude or coarse remark fall from his lips. He was most deferential to the opinions of others, ever seeking to promote the welfare of his profession, always ready to act in any capacity, his confrères sought his aid, and always displaying a keen insight into the questions brought before him. His humor, too, was of the most delightful character . . . Dr. Reeve was both an example and an inspiration. He be-

longs to the future as well as the past."

ABRAHAM SACHS. An eye, ear, nose and throat specialist of San Antonio, Texas. Born in Austria, Mar. 1, 1872, he received his medical degree at the Miami Medical College, Cincinnati, in 1900. At first he practiced in Cincinnati, then in Chicago, but at length, in 1906, removed to San Antonio. He was a brother of Harry Millard Sachs, a noted actor. He was asphyxiated at his residence on the evening of Jan. 19, 1919, by gas fumes in his bath room.

CHARLES HENRY WEINTZ. An ophthalmologist of Cincinnati, O. Born in 1870, he received the medical degree at the Miami Medical College, Cincinnati, in 1909. He was assistant to the chief of the nose and throat department of the base hospital at Chillicothe, O., under Dr. C. R. Holmes. Dr. Weintz died at Camp Sherman, Oct. 14, 1918, of pneumonia.



Richard Andrews Reeve, 1842-1919.

CORNELIUS WILLIAMS. A well known ophthalmologist of St. Paul, Minn. Born in Kentucky in 1848, he removed in 1864 to Minnesota but later returned to Kentucky. His medical degree was received at the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the City of New York in 1874. Having studied ophthalmol-

ogy and oto-laryngology and practiced both these specialties in New York City for a number of years, he removed in 1882 to St. Paul. In 1901 he was president of the Ramsey County Medical Society. At some time in his career he was admitted to the Minnesota bar, and, on a number of occasions, conducted his own lawsuits—each time, it is said, successfully. He died at St. Luke's Hospital, St. Paul, Dec. 30, 1918, aged 70 years. He was survived by one son.

Jesse Sydney Wyler. A celebrated ophthalmologist of Cincinnati, O., who died young, but who had given much promise of great things. He was born at Cincinnati, Sept. 7, 1879, son of Isaac A. and Adelaide (Lowman) Wyler. His medical degree was received at the Miami Medical College in 1904. After serving as interne in the old City Hospital, he continued his studies in Europe. Returning to Cincinnati, he soon was widely known as a skilful operator. He was elected to the staff of the Cincinnati General Hospital in 1910 and to the staff of the Jewish Hospital in 1912.

Dr. Wyler was of medium height, smooth-faced, of a ruddy complexion and with bright brown eyes and hair. He was gay and genial, very fond of children, a collector of books, a Republican, not a religionist but a Jew by birth. He married, Nov. 30, 1908, Miss Florence Iglauer, by whom he had two children. He died at Cincinnati, Oct. 28, 1918.

Concerning the personality of this very able man, we are glad to quote the following from Dr. Derrick T. Vail, who knew him intimately: "Dr. Wyler was one of those enthusiastic, active, able and gifted men who studied ophthalmology not of necessity, for he came from a family possessing ample means, but because he was ambitious and had a natural desire for a scientific and professional career. He did not, therefore, declare himself an ophthalmologist or begin practicing before he was properly equipped.

"He possesed a fine education, spoke the German and French languages fluently, also had a reading knowledge of Spanish and Italian. He was actively connected with the American Journal of Ophthalmology on the staff of collaborators. Dr. Wyler enjoyed the high esteem of a wide circle of friends both in the profession and out of it. His mind was overflowing with information for he was a keen observer, a good student and had strong convictions for or against the many ophthalmological problems. He was fond of an argument and always believed he was right but was never obnoxious in his manner. He was a very skilful operator. His methods were largely of the Viennese school.

"He was of medium height and since he was approaching forty was beginning to show some of the increased heft of body. He had a high forehead, a strongly intellectual countenance, a winning smile and an ingratiating manner which distinguished him.

"His prewar admiration for the Vienna and Berlin schools of ophthalmology was very great. After our country became involved in the war, however, Dr. Wyler's patriotism and loyalty to our country were very keen and genuine. President Dabney of the University of Cincinnati has testified he died in the service of our country.

"He had a very large and select practice, which however did not in the least prevent his giving full time to his hospital clinic which he thoroughly enjoyed. He was very kind and liberal to the poor, and would give them his best time and services without stint. He was just rounding into the climax of a glorious career when stricken with pneumonia following influenza."

[Note.—Dr. Charles O. Zahn, noticed in this department in the February number, as we have been informed, was not an ophthalmologist.]

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Emmet V. Ball, of Atlanta, Ga., of heart disease, aged 48 years.

Edward W. Dean, of Pittsburgh, Pa., of pneumonia, aged 69 years.

Mortimer Frank, of Chicago, of cerebral hemorrhage, aged 44 years.

The death is announced of Sir James MacKenzie Davidson, the pioneer of applied radiology in its relation to ophtholmology, at the age of 63. He was at one time ophthalmic surgeon to the Royal Infirmary of Aberdeen. Later, in London he invented the precise method of localization of foreign bodies in the orbit, by means of the X-ray.

The recent death of Dr. A. J. Stewart, of Provo, Utah, is announced; age 46.

PERSONALS.

Dr. Duverger, Ophthalmologist to the Limoges Hospital, France, and professor in the School of Medicine, is assigned to take charge of the Ophthalmic Faculty at Strasbourg.

The editor of this page recently spent six weeks in California. Several things were indelibly impressed upon his memory. One was that the California oculists are a royal lot of fellows. Another was that California is a delightful place in which to spend a vacation, so fascinating that if April and May are fair samples of their climate, it will be only a matter of time until the state will be too small to hold the population.

Dr. Frank C. Parker, Norristown, Pa., has succeeded Dr. W. C. Posey in the position at the Wills Eye Hospital, Phila., formerly held by Dr. Posey.

COMING MEETINGS.

The Pacific Coast, Oto-Ophthalmic Society will meet at San Francisco, August 4-7.

The Colorado Congress will be held in Denver, August 4-5, and will include both ophthalmic and oto-laryngologic papers and discussions.

The American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, will meet at Cleveland, Ohio, Sept. 1-3.

The Oxford Ophthalmological Congress, Oxford, England, July 10-12.

MILITARY NOTES.

Lieut. Col. Nelson Miles Black of Milwaukee has received his discharge from the Army.

Dr. Frederick E. Woodruff of St. Louis has been discharged from the Service.

Dr. H. H. Stark has been discharged from the Medical Corps of the United States Army and has resumed his practice at El Paso, Texas.

Lieut.-Col. Gustavus I. Hogue, of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, writes from Paris, France, that he expects to return soon to America.

Lieut. Col. Sir James Barrett, in the British Service, has returned to his home in Melbourne, Australia.

Col. Walter R. Parker, who was in charge of the department on the Surgery of the Head, at Washington, during our entire period in the war, has been discharged from the Service and has resumed his practice in Detroit.

Dr. Harry Vanderbilt Wurdemann, Seattle, Washington, has been released from army service, as chief of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the Base Hospital, Camp Lewis, Washington, and has returned to civil practice.

Dr. J. W. Thompson, who has been connected with Evacuation Hospital Number 17, located at Vladivostok, Siberia, has returned to Pueblo, Colorado, where he will resume the practice of ophthalmology, in association with his brother, Dr. H. M. Thompson.

Dr. Chas. A. Bahn of New Orleans, Ophthalmologist with Base Hospital 24, Tulane University, is one of the few members of the Unit who are still in France. He has recently been made major and is detailed to the Army Educational Commission in Paris.

Capt. J. M. Shields has been discharged from the Service and will locate in Denver and confine his practice to ophthalmology. He was Ophthalmologist to Base Hospital Number 102, which was assigned to duty with the Italian Army.

Capt. C. E. G. Shannon, an associate of Dr. Howard Forde Hansell, Professor of Ophthalmology, Jefferson College of Philadelphia, received his discharge from Government Serv-

ice April 28th, and has resumed his practice at 1633 Spruce street.

Lieut. Col. de Schweinitz of Philadelphia was returned from Government Service on April first and has resumed private practice at 1705 Walnut street. On April twelfth Dr. de Schweinitz received his commission as Colonel in the Medical Section of the Officers' Reserve Corps, U. S. A.

Surgeon General Merritte W. Ireland was the guest of honor at a reception given under the auspices of the Philadelphia Medical Club at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel on Friday evening, April 18th, which was attended by five hundred medical men. The reception was preceded by a dinner at the Union League, given in honor of General Ireland by Dr. G. Oram Ring, President of the Club.

Casey A. Wood has been made a full Colonel but he takes the honor so gracefully that his friends still continue to call him "Casey" as of old. A recent visit to him at Palo Alto, California, found him buried in his literary work, but ready to lay it aside long enough to show us the beautiful country in which he is working. He knows the name of every tree, shrub, flower and bird in and about Palo Alto, and it was a rare pleasure to have him to point them out.

Major George F. Suker, until recently in charge of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Service at the Walter Reed General Hospital has resumed private practice at 25 E. Washington, Chicago.

Lieut. W. E. Carson, formerly in charge of ophthalmology at the U. S. N. Hospital, Great Lakes, has been ordered to inactive duty.

Lieut. Col. J. M. Farrell, head of the Spanish-American War Veterans, has returned from France with Base Hospital No. 81.

Major Ira H. Dillon, Bucyrus, Ohio, formerly Chief of Section of Surgery of the Head, Camp Bowie, Texas, has been discharged from service.

SOCIETIES.

The Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmological Society will meet at San Francisco August 4, 6, 7. The headquarters will be at the St. Francis Hotel. Dr. Cullin F. Welty is president and Dr. A. S. Green, secretary. A very interesting program has been prepared and a good time generally is predicted.

Dr. Samuel D. Risley has been invited by the special section of the Ohio State Medical Society to present the address in Ophthalmology at the meeting of the section, occurring May 6th, 7th and 8th, at Columbus, Ohio. Dr. Risley will be the guest of honor at a dinner given by Dr. John Edw. Brown at the Columbus Club, during his visit to the Middle West.

On May 15th last the Buffalo Ophthalmological Club had its last meeting during the season. After a subscription dinner, Dr. J. G. Dwyer, the guest of honor, gave a paper under the title, "The Relative Importance of the Teeth, Tonsils and Intestinal Tract in the Production of Focal Infections of the Eye with Especial Reference to the Intestinal Tract." It seems that Dr. Dwyer has made a step forward in elucidating many hitherto very obscure ocular conditions which baffled our therapeutists. The members present, twenty-five, including some out-of-town guests, enjoyed the presentation very much, and a lively discussion showed their interest.

At an interesting program of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the Illinois State Medical Society, which met at Peoria, May 20-22, papers were read by Dr. Willis O. Nance, of Chicago, on "Serpiginous Ulcer of the Cornea"; Dr. H. H. Brown, on "Various Types of Myopia"; Dr. A. L. Adams, Jacksonville, on "The Illinois Institution for the Blind"; Dr. H. W. Woodruff, Joliet, on "Glaucoma"; Dr. John R. Hoffman, on "Binocular Cataract Operations"; Dr. P. C. Matheny, Galesburg, on "Is Malaria an Etiologic Factor in Iritis"; Dr. Alfred N. Murray, Chicago, on "Iritis"; Dr. T. Faith, Chicago, "Early Extraction of Traumatic Cataracts"; Dr. E. R. Crossley, Chicago, "Eye Involvements Following Focal Infections"; Dr. E. E. Edmondson, Mt. Vernon, "Radium in Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Diseases."

MISCELLANEOUS.

An interesting account of his ophthalmological service in the British army is given by Derby. He found among the alien labor companies that among several thousand Egyptians, nineteen per cent had trachoma; and in upwards of 100,000 Chinese, nine per cent were similarly affected.

After an interval of three years the examination for the Diploma in Ophthalmology at Oxford is to be resumed. The examiners appointed for this year are Dr. G. Mackay of Edinburgh, and Lieut.-Col. A. H. Elliot of London.

Because of their superior sense of touch, Fred F. Bulotin and his wife, both blind, were sworn in yesterday as civilian aids at the Fort Sheridan hospital. Their work will be to massage wounded soldiers. This is the first time in the history of medical reconstruction blind persons have been employed in army hospitals.

The management of the Archives d'Ophtalmologie announces that for the year 1919 the journal will be issued only bi-monthly; but in 1920 they will resume their monthly publication.

The last News Letter published by the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness shows a widespread interest in the passage of laws by many states for the prevention of ophthalmia neonatorum and trachoma. Several states have Commissions for the Blind which are doing excellent work. The Field Secretary of the National Committee is out on an educational campaign to see that the laggard states are brought into line in these modern methods of ocular prophylaxis.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

DIAGNOSIS.

Bartok, E. Simulation of Unilateral Blindness or Weak Sight? Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 44-46.

Birch-Hirschfeld, A. Method of Determining Visual Acuity in Simulation and Exaggeration. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 289-293.

Blondel. Produced Diplopia in Diagnosis. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 180.

Goldmann, R. Caloric Irritation of Ear a Means of Detecting Simulated Blindness. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 77-82.

May, C. H. Electric Ophthalmoscope Mirror. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 367.

Photometry. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 207.

Von der Heydt, R. Fundus Pathology with Red-Free Light of Vogt. (4 ill.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 334-336, and 351.

Repeated Titles. **Rasquin.** (v. 1, p. 540) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 293.

THERAPEUTICS.

Bach, H. Light Management of Eye Diseases. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, p. 244-246.

McIlroy, J. H. Methylene Blue in Purulent Discharge from Eye Socket. Brit. Med. Jour., April 5th, 1919, p. 405. Abst. Jour. A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1396.

Schanz, F. Bach's Light Therapy. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, p. 246.

Repeated Titles. **Frias Onate.** (v. 2, p. 171) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 293.

OPERATIONS.

Gwathmey, J. T., and Karsner, H. T. General Analgesia by Oral Administration. Abst. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 214.

Löwenstein, A. Tongue-Shaped Flap with Interrupted Suture to Relieve Tension, after Kuhnt's Operation. (2 ill.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 191-192.

Pichler, A. Delicate Suture for Epithelial Stitch. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, p. 202.

Seidel, E. Local Anesthesia or Nerve Conduction Anesthesia. (Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 87-93.

Ziegler, S. L. V-Shaped Iridotomy. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 290.

Repeated Titles. **Macphail.** (v. 1, p. 811) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 361.

REFRACTION.

Descola. Myopia. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, pp. 166-180.

Ergglet, H. Anisometropia; Experimental Observations. (9 ill.) Zeit. f. Sinnesphys, v. 49, p. 326. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, p. 406.

Espino, J. M. Cycloplegia after Diphtheria. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, p. 71.

Gardiner, E. J. An Old Time Victim of Ametropia and a Modern Instance. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1439.

Henker, O. Accurate Measurement of Eye Glasses and Mountings. (2 ill.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 212-220.

Howard, J. R. New Form of Bifocal Lens. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 236.

Koster, W. Congenital, Buphthalmic, and Cyclitic Myopia. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 12-26.

Levinsohn, G. Myopia. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 243-248.

Lüdemann, A. Hydrodiascope or Contact Glass for Correction of Keratoconus. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 267-289.

Newcomb, J. R. Refraction Methods in Department of Ophthalmology, Attending Surgeon's Office, Washington, D. C. (9 ill.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 326-334.

Percival, A. S. Altered Effect of Spheric Lens When Rotated About its Horizontal Meridian. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 237.

Pichler, A. Correction of Weak Myopia with Red Plane Glass. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 174-176.

Rohr, M. v. Glasses for Astigmatic Eyes. (1 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 529-532.

Rönne, H. Keratoconus and Excessive Myopia. (1 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 512-517.

Wolff, H. Simplified Skiascopy. (393 Observations.) (1 ill., 4 pl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 318-359.

OCULAR MOVEMENTS.

Argañaraz, B. Cerebral Nystagmus. Prensa Med. Arg., v. 5, p. 235. Abst. Jour. A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1261.

Berg, F. Latent Nystagmus. (1 ill., Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 164-174.

Brückner, A. Recognition of Voluntary Nystagmus. (Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 184-193.

Catlin. Operation for Strabismus. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 289.

Fernandez, F. M. Treatment of Strabismus by Reese Operation. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 104-107.

Kleefeld, G. Myectomy with Suture in Correction of Strabismus. (5 ill.) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, pp. 145-150.

Hess, W. R. Method of Testing Motility of Eye. (9 ill.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 202-219.

Hill, C. E. Convergence Insufficiency as it Affects the Returned Soldier. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 338-340.

Ohm, J. Ear Labyrinth as Productive of Squint. (37 ill., Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 36, pp. 253-273.

Influence of Binocular Vision on Nystagmus. (20 ill.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 269-287.

Miners' Nystagmus and Accidents. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 265-291.

Spiller, W. G. Oculogyration and Lesion Causing Complete Bilateral Ophthalmoplegia. Amer. Jour. Med. Sc., v. 157, pp. 695-699.

Suffa, G. A. Convergence and Convergence Insufficiency. Jour. Amer. Institute Homeop., v. 11, pp. 1269-1273.

Witmer, J. Head Shaking and Nystagmus. (2 ill., Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, p. 361.

CONJUNCTIVA.

Bayer, H. Eruptions on Conjunctiva in Bulbar Tuberculosis. (6 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 564-582.

Blackburn, W. J. Trachoma, Report of Case. Jour. Amer. Inst. Homeop., v. 11, pp. 1163-1168.

Clapp, C. A. Pemphigus of Conjunctiva. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 289.

Fernandez, F. M. Bilateral Subconjunctival Hemorrhage. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, p. 100. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 340.

Fight Against Trachoma. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1475.

Gonzaga, L. School Trachoma. Brazil Med. Rio de Jan., v. 32, p. 366.

Griscom, J. M. Conjunctival Scars from Congenital Lues. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 290.

Hesse, R. Application of Animal Charcoal in Treatment of Ophthalmogonoblennorrhea. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 311-318.

Hühn, K. Fever and Milk Injections in Trachoma and Ophthalmogonorrhea. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 36, pp. 305-310.

Livingstone, F. M. F. Colloidal Manganese in Gonorrheal Ophthalmia. Brit. Med. Jour., April 5th, 1919, p. 404.

Loeb, K. Adult Blennorrhea in Heidelberg University Eye Clinic, 1910-1917. Heidelberg Thesis, 1918.

Löwenstein, A. Etiology of Trachoma. Med. Klin., 1918, p. 1129.

McCord, C. P. Inlection Through Conjunctiva? Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 368.

Pascheff, C. Peculiar Conjunctival Inflammation. (1 ill., Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 299-304.

Inflammation of Conjunctiva (Necrotic Infectious Conjunctivitis). (11 ill., Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 517-529.

Patterson, J. A. Tuberculosis of Conjunctiva. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 343.

Penichet, J. M. Trachoma in Cuba. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, p. 79.

Reporting Inflammation in Babies' Eyes. Kentucky Med. Jour., v. 17, p. 198.

Samperi, G. Trachoma. Gazz. Internat. de Méd., v. 21, p. 296.

Santos Fernandez, J. Cure of Trachoma. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 42-47.

Persistence of Some Varieties of Conjunctivitis. Arch. de Oft. Hisp.-Amer., v. 19, pp. 114-118.

Stargardt. Phthiriasis of Lids with Follicular Catarrh. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 288-295.

Waldmann, B. Adult Ophthalmoblennorrhea in the Army. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 177-185.

Wallace, F. E. Obscure Ocular Infection in Infant. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 347.

Repeated Titles. **Mohr.** (v. 3, p. 306) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 123. **Musy** (v. 1, p. 541). Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 361. **Schevensteen** (v. 1, p. 78). Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, p. 191.

CORNEA AND SCLERA.

Bell, G. H. Keratitis Profunda Following Antityphoid Inoculation. (Bibl.) Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, p. 273.

Caspar, L. Subepithelial Opacities of Cornea after Wounds. (7 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 385-390.

Chance, B. Fatty Degeneration of Cornea. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 291.

Chen Hung Hsün. Phlyctenular Keratoconjunctivitis in Chinese. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 549-556.

Fleischer, B. Hemosiderin Ring in Keratoconus. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 353-361.

Ford, R. Pigmentation of Cornea. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 341.

Guiral, R. Leucoma of Cornea. (2 ill.) Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 120-122.

Heinen. New Corneal Reflex. Münch. med. Woch., 1916, No. 36, p. 1308. Abst. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, p. 408.

Hinneberg, O. K. W. Congenital Opacity of Cornea. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 477-494.

Koeppe, L. Rodent Ulcer of Cornea Cured by Tuberculin. (3 ill., Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 301-318.

Kraupa, E. Development of Disease and Keratoconus. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 109-125.

Kuhnt, H. Transplantation of Fascia Lata for Corneal Defect. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 36, pp. 300-305.

Perrin, R. Keratitis Due to Melinite. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, pp. 160-166.

Pichler, A. Caspar's Ring Opacity of Cornea. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 36, pp. 311-16.

Rönne, H. Etiology and Treatment of Keratomalacia. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 381-384.

Siegrist, A. Etiology of Keratoconus. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 350-353.

Strebel, J. Treatment of Corneal Herpes. Corresp.-Bl. f. Schweiz. Aerzte, 1918, No. 39. Abst. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 181.

Nerves of the Cornea. Corresp.-Bl. f. Schweiz. Aerzte, 1918, No. 43. Abst. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 182.

Uribe-Troncoso, M. Acne Rosacea Complicated by Fascicular Keratitis. Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 63-65.

Weill, G. Correction of Keratoconus thru Prothesis. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 126-128.

ANTERIOR CHAMBER AND PUPIL.

Bachstez, E. Unilateral Loss of Pupil Reflex. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 35, pp. 304-311.

Espino, J. M. Pupillary Reflexes. (Bibl.) Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 65-71.

Gonzalez, J. Three Supernumerary Pupils. Med. Ibera., v. 6, p. 210. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1581.

Harlan, H. Operation for Closed Pupil. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 288.

Landolt, M. Uneven Pupils after Trephining. Ann. de Méd., v. 5, p. 566.

Sergent, E. Inequality of Pupils in Syphilis. Bull. de l'Acad. de Méd., v. 81, p. 284. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1497.

Wiegemann, E. Persistent Pupillary Membrane. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 508-512.

Repeated Titles. **Fromaget, C. & H.** (v. 1, p. 879) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 356. **Raeder** (v. 1, p. 813) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 292.

UVEAL TRACT.

Baumeister, T. Postoperative Cyclitis. (Bibl.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 532-548.

Cutler, C. W. Conglomerate Tubercle of Choroid. (Dis.) Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, pp. 300-303.

Folman, M. Etiology of Rheumatic Iritis. Deutsche med. Woch., v. 45, p. 75. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1499.

Gilbert, W. Rheumatic and Metastatic Iritis. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 37, pp. 174-183.

Heed, C. Metastatic Uveitis. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 289.

Ischreyt, G. Coloboma of Iris and Choroid. (1 ill.) Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 494-499.

Krauss. Disseminated Unilateral Choroiditis. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 350.

Leiche, T. I. Iritis due to Third Molar Impaction. Amer. Jour. Surg., v. 33, p. 119.

Lundsgaard, K. K. K. Cyclitis in Epidemic Parotitis. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 393-395.

Magruder, A. C. Iritis from Antrum Infection. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 347-348.

SYMPATHETIC DISEASE.

Bierhaus, D. Tuberculosis and Sympathetic Ophthalmia. Rostock Diss.

Brückner. Emigration of Blood Cells and Sympathetic Inflammation without Sympathetic Ophthalmia. (8 ill., Bibl.) Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 38, pp. 139-151.

Dimmer, F. War Wounds and Sympathetic Ophthalmia. Klin. M. f. Augenh., v. 57, pp. 257-272. Abst., Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 294.

Moore, F. Sympathetic Ophthalmitis. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 288.

Schevensteen, v. Sympathetic Ophthalmia. Arch. Méd. Belg., v. 72, p. 621. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, p. 1256.

Stargardt, K. Unusual Sympathetic Ophthalmia with War Injury. Zeit. f. Augenh., v. 39, pp. 12-20.

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DETACHMENT OF RETINA IN TOXEMIA OF PREGNANCY. (CLAPP)

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DETACHMENT OF THE RETINA IN ECLAMPSIA AND TOXEMIA OF PREGNANCY.

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BALTIMORE, MD.

This paper reports a series of cases seen in Maternity Hospitals (case VI in Johns Hopkins) of Baltimore in a period of sixteen months; representations of the fundus appearances presented in each of the twelve eyes.

While lesions of the eye, extending thru all of the different tissues from the conjunctiva to the optic nerve have been reported with more or less frequency in albuminuria of pregnancy and its allied conditions, it is extremely rare to find any mention of detached retina. Of the various text books upon the eye, Weeks[1] mentions its occurrence but not its frequency; Parsons[2] Pathology of the Eye, under heading of pregnancy, does mention retinal detachment as being occasionally present; and under bibliography refers to an article by Del Zoppo and Soli[3] in which they call attention to the rather close association between genital conditions and eye lesions, and cite a report by Baduel[4] of a woman who had a small detachment of the retina in five succeeding pregnancies, with complete reattachment following each delivery.

De Schweinitz[5] speaks of the changes in general being a widespread "neuroretinitis with hemorrhages and exudates. Martin Cohen[6] reports a case of double detachment in a colored woman of twenty-six, which showed two discs below each nerve head, a typical detachment of the retina. One week later the detachments were much less in extent and eventually reattached completely. Rochon-Duvigneaud[7] claims that some depreciation of vision of permanent nature occurs in 13.33 per cent of albuminuric cases, and that retinal detachment is of frequent occurrence. The Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology says "This is a very rare lesion and probably due to long, difficult labor. Chance[8] believes that these albuminuric cases are not nephritic, as the kidney does not show an inflammation; but a degeneration of retinal epithelium, while ophthalmoscopically neuro-retinitis with hemorrhages and exudates are seen. He makes no mention of retinal separation. While other cases are undoubtedly on record I have been unable to locate them.

I have examined the eyes of practically all of the albuminuria and toxemia cases, occurring in the past fourteen years at the Maryland Lying-In Hospital, and have not observed detachment of the retina until recently. Six cases have presented themselves since December 1917, whose histories briefly are as follows:

Case I.—R. W. (white), age 35. Second pregnancy.

Family history: Father died at forty-five from nephritis; one sister died at twenty-nine from diabetes; one brother died at thirty-one from some kidney trouble.

Present history: Had pronounced edema of legs at sixth month of pregnancy which became gradually worse. On December 17, 1917, vision became dim and on the evening of the 19th she went to bed with headache and vomiting. She was seized with a convulsion about midnight, having eleven convulsions before entering the hospital at 4

a. m., and followed by five within the hospital.

Upon admittance patient's tongue was much swollen, with presence of general edema. B.P. 180/110. Child was delivered still born at 11 a. m. Urine showed presence of albumin without casts.

I first saw the patient at 2 p. m. on December 20, 1917, making the following notes: "Patient has been getting morphin and pupils are contracted, so that it was necessary to dilate pupils before examining fundus. Examination by direct method shows in O.D. general edema of retina, with dark prominent veins, especially above nerve head, with some exudates and hemorrhages, and with appearance of flat detachment of retina below; but patient very restless during examination. O.S. shows general retinal edema but no exudates or hemorrhages." Patient was put on general eliminative treatment, hot packs, etc.

December 22, 1917, direct examination with dilated pupils shows large typical detachment of retina above and one below in right eye, with marked edema of retina, while left eye shows large detachment below disc. See Plate X, A, and Fig. 1.

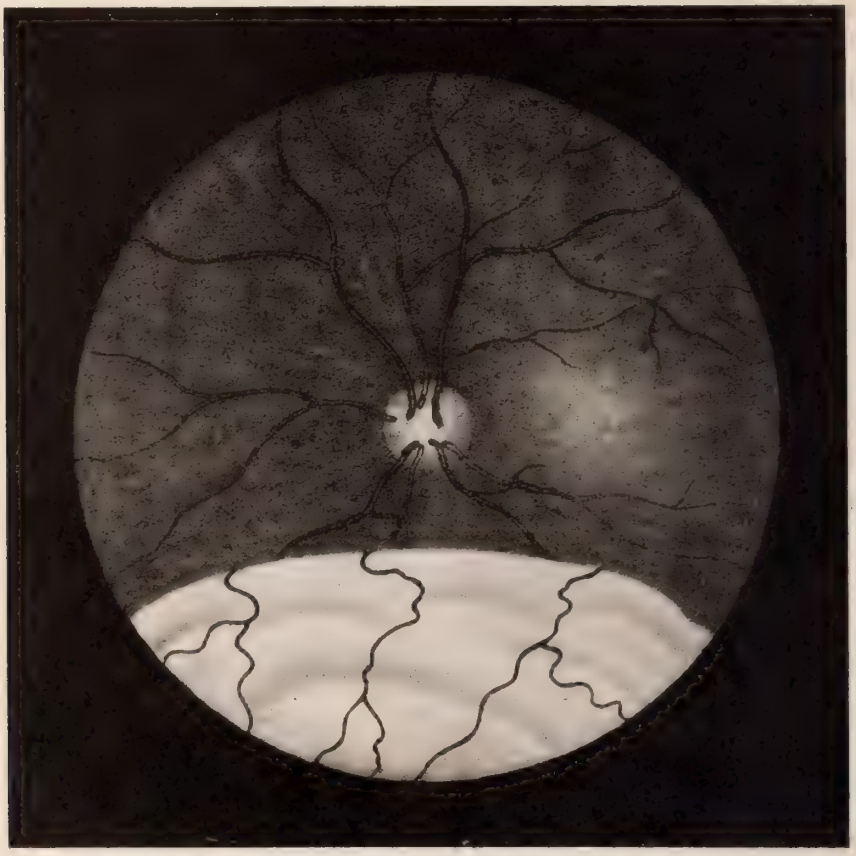


Fig. 1. Case I. Left eye. Retina detached below.

December 27, 1917, with undilated pupils no detachment could be made out above in O.D., and both lower detachments seem to be lessening.

December 29, 1917, pupils dilated. Upper detachment in O.D. has entirely disappeared, while lower one is regaining fundus reflex. O.S. shows greater elevation than right with few hemor-

rhages above macula and general retinal edema with disturbed choroidal pigment.

January 1, 1918, pupils somewhat dilated but react to light. Both lower detachments appear as flat elevations with entire disappearance of hemorrhages and exudates.

February 25, 1918, examination at office showed slight pallor of each nerve with numerous pigmented areas thruout fundi, especially pronounced near right macula; no raised retina. Vision: Right eye, +0.50 = 20/50; left eye, +0.50 = 20/70.

March 23, 1918, fields normal: no change ophthalmoscopically. Vision: Right eye, 20/30—; left eye, 20/20—.



Fig. 2. Case II. Left eye. Retinal hemorrhages and exudates, and detachment below.

Case II.—I. P., (white), age 31.

Family and past history, negative.

Present history: Has had normal pregnancy until five weeks ago, when she began having some disturbance of vision which has gradually become worse. Patient entered hospital March 28, 1918, and was delivered on the 29th; child cyanosed. Blood pressure on entering 180/120, with pulse rate of 120; Wassermann negative. Functional kidney test on April 26, 1918, showed 50 per cent in first hour and 25 per cent in second hour. April 10, urine showed albumin trace. Child died of inanition on April 4, 1918. Pulse on entering hospital 125, on leaving 90. Blood pressure 150/115. Clinical diagnosis was eclampsia, with chronic interstitial nephritis.

Eye examination April 1, 1918. Direct ophthalmoscopy with dilated pupils showed swelling of each nerve head, marked fullness and tortuosity of retinal vessels, pronounced retinal

edema. Three disc diameters below each nerve head is a large classical detachment of the retina, being a little larger in the right eye. Plate X, B.

Examination of eyes on April 6, no change was seen. April 13, 1918, same condition as at first examination, with the addition of numerous exudates and hemorrhages about right nerve and left more elevated than at first. April 16, 1918, detachment in R larger with increase of tortuosity of vessels and also hemorrhages and exudates. See Plate X, B, and Fig. 2. April 23, 1918, no noticeable change with exception of a ½ star-shaped figure at temporal side of right macula and also at nasal side of left macula. April 27, 1918, no change in ophthalmoscopic picture.

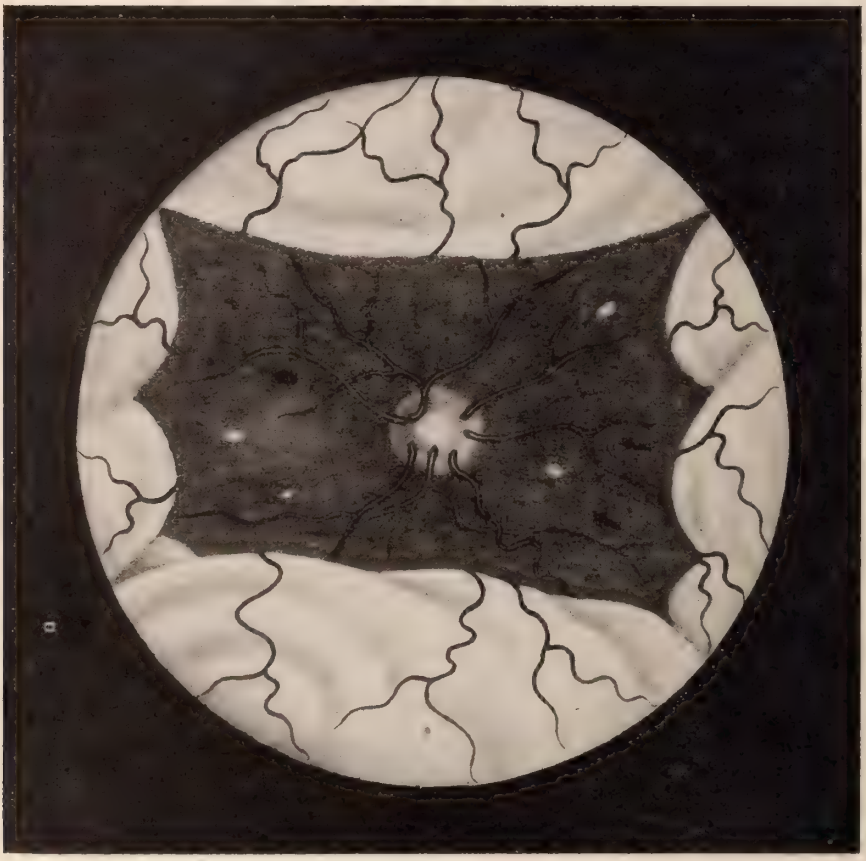


Fig. 3. Case III. Right eye. Retinal detachment encroaching from all sides, exudates and hemorrhages.

May 7, 1918, both detachments appeared smaller with very numerous hemorrhages and exudates and blurred nerves; exudates at macula less marked. June 10, 1918, V.:

O.D. —1.00 ⊃ —1.00 cyl. ax. 180 = 2/200.

O.S. —1.00 ⊃ —1.00 cyl. ax. 180 = 20/200. No detachment could be made out, but neuro-retinitis still existed with some laying down of connective tissue, especially along vessels. July 22, 1918, V.:

O.D. —1.00 ⊃ —1.00 cyl. ax. 180 = 20/40—.

O.S. —1.00 ⊃ —1.00 cyl. ax. 180 = 20/100. Nerve heads still indistinct, but with good color, few exudates and hemorrhages which are absorbing. Connective tissues being laid

down about vessels still more prominent. Fields showed concentric contraction which would rather suggest beginning atrophy of optic nerves, altho their color was still good.

September 18, 1918, nerves had good color. All active conditions subsiding. Vision, R. = 20/70, L. = 20/30—.

still born child delivered on June 26.

June 27, 1918, eye examination. Pupils dilated and ophthalmoscope reveals almost complete detachment of each retina. Right eye shows (Fig. 3) a very large detachment extending horizontally across the lower part of fundus and upward to within about

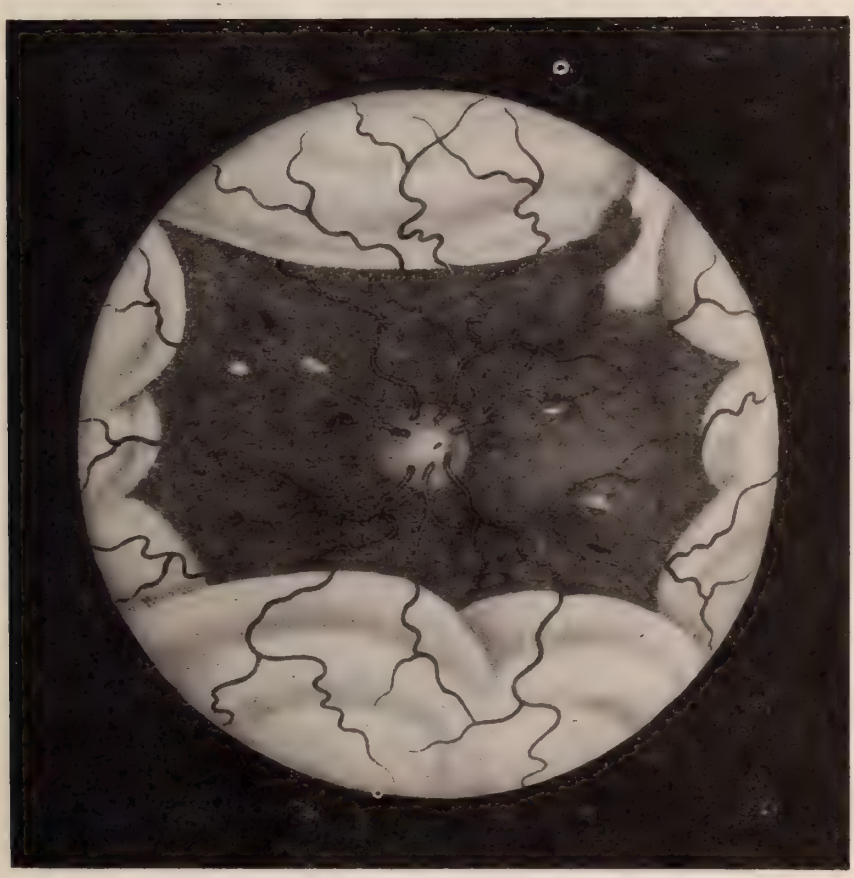


Fig. 4. Case III. Left eye resembling the right eye but with larger hemorrhages.

Case III.—E. B., (colored), age 38. Entered hospital June 25, 1918.

Family and past history, negative.

Present history: This is a fourth pregnancy and everything appeared normal until two weeks ago, when vision began to fail. Patient walked into hospital and was put to bed. Blood pressure 270/160; urine showed albumin with hyalin and granular casts. Membranes were ruptured and

one disc diameter of nerve head. There is another detachment above, which is not quite so large and these detachments are connected at each end by several smaller detachments, giving one the impression of looking down a cylinder. There is blurring of nerve outlines, with general edema of the retina, with few small exudates and hemorrhages. Left eye shows (Fig. 4) practically same condition except that the upper detachment seems to be

larger than the lower, and at the temporal extremity of the upper detachment there is a large exudate bordered by a hemorrhage

July 9, 1918, fundus reflex seen in all parts of fields, nerves still indistinct, considerable twisting of vessels with apparently some fluid under the retina



Fig. 5. Case IV. Right eye. Edema of retina, small detachment, central exudate and hemorrhage near disc.

at the periphery, and numerous exudates about left nerve. Patient was treated by hot packs, salt solution, etc. Patient became delirious and violent and was taken home by relatives against physician's advice on July 9, 1918.

July 24, 1918, patient examined at home; mental condition good, claims to see *well*. Examination shows neuroretinitis, but no detachment. July 31, 1918, at office, V. = O.D. 2/200, O.S. 20/100, no detachment visible. August 8, 1918, fields practically normal for form and no detachment can be seen, with undilated pupils. Both pupils dilated; still a well-marked neuroretinitis, but swelling of nerve heads subsiding and no detachment visible. V. = O.D. 20/200, O.S. 20/100.

Case IV.—R. M. Aet. 26. November 15, 1918.

Family, personal and marital history unimportant.

Present history: Patient walked into hospital and examination showed nearly full term pregnancy with marked edema of face and abdomen. Patient complains of headache, dizziness and dark spots before eyes. Pa-

tient was restless and anxious; B. P. 170/92. Eliminative treatment inaugurated.

November 16, 1918, urine report shows albumin with hyalin casts. Patient very uncomfortable with nausea and vomiting. B. P. 195/120. Hot packs and eliminative treatment continued.

Chart notes in reference to eyes were as follows: 11-19-18, 4 p. m.: Both pupils normal in size. Fundi examined by direct method with undilated pupils gave impression at first that there was no lesion outside of slight edema of retina; but in looking in periphery of fundus in O.D. was discovered a whitish reflex which upon closer scrutiny proved to be a detachment. See Fig. 5.

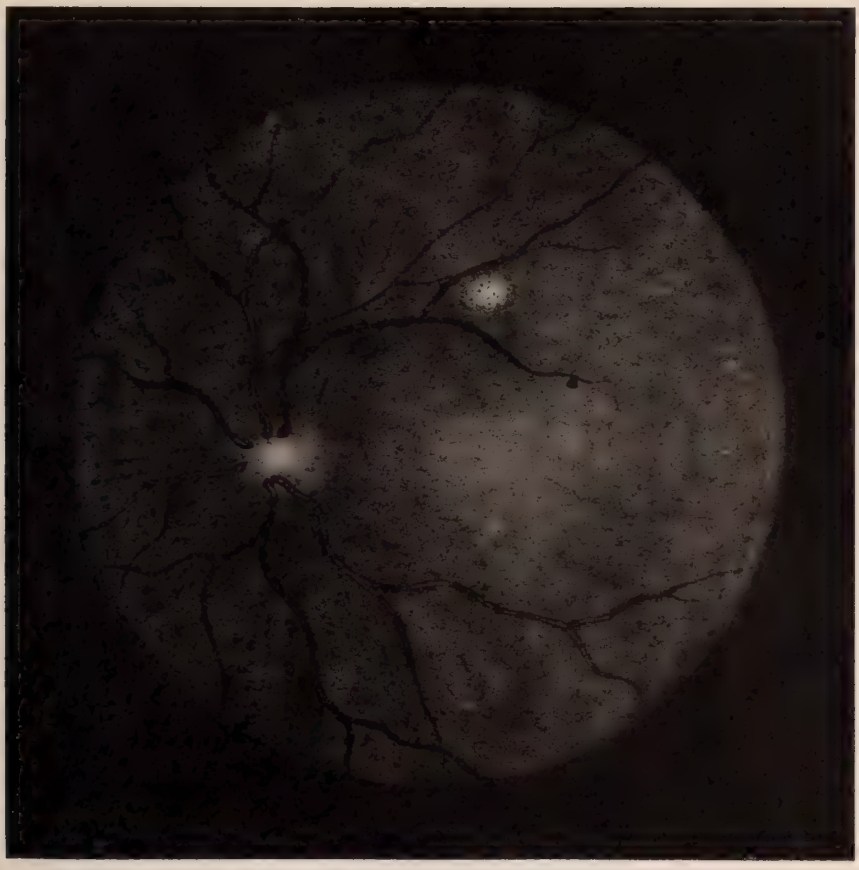


Fig. 6. Case IV. Left eye. Retinal edema, exudate and minute hemorrhages.

November 17, 1918, B. P. 170/120. Labor pains commenced at 4 p. m.

November 18, 1918, pains continued thru day with pronounced headache and nervousness, and blurring before eyes.

November 19, 1918, patient showed signs of exhaustion and child delivered instrumentally at 11 a. m. Patient was continued on eliminative treatment with clearing up of edema and albumin, being discharged in fair condition on December 2, 1918.

Pupils were then dilated with one drop of homatropin. Right eye shows practically entire obliteration of nerve outlines with general edema of retina. Just below and to nasal side was a small diffuse hemorrhage, while just above macula there was an area of infiltration through which the retinal reflex could be seen in places.

Retinal edema became more marked as one followed the superior temporal

vessels outward until some little distance beyond the macula, where was found a good sized detachment of the retina, the lower portion extending to the temporal equator having most fluid beneath the retina while the upper fold faded away to normal retinal level.

Left eye showed physiologic cup filled in and nerve borders indistinct, udates near macula. Upper outer quadrant shows no detachment of retina, but numerous small pigmented areas; no hemorrhage found. O.S. shows blurring of nerve, with thin exudate near macula, hemorrhages absorbing. Fields taken by Peter's campimeter show normal outlines.

12-1-18: Pupils dilated, no ophthal-

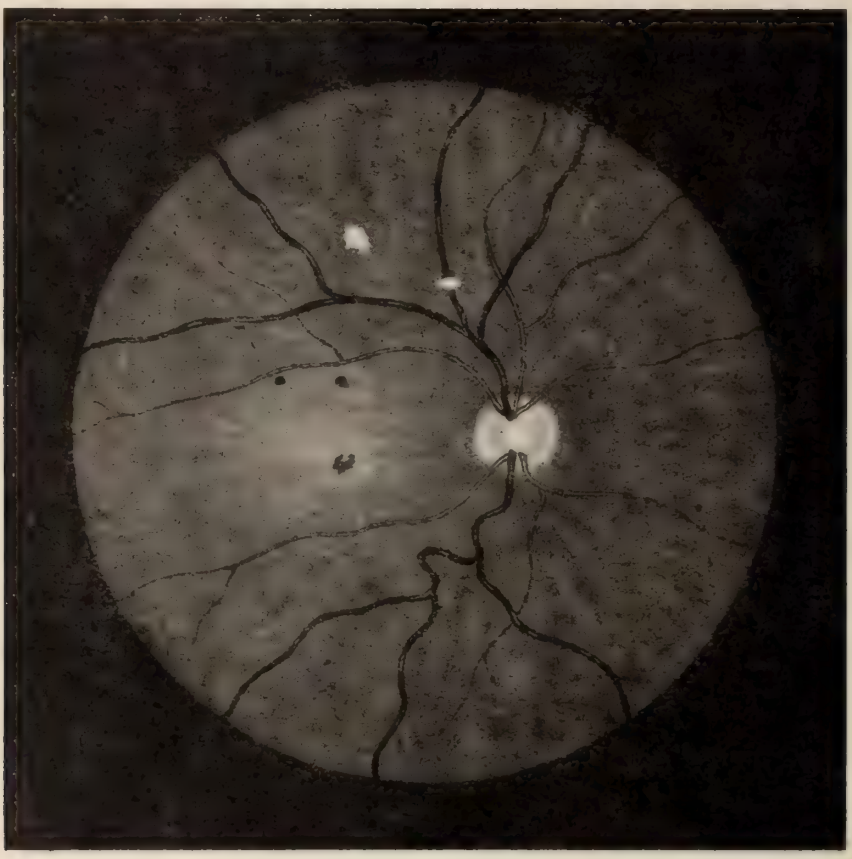


Fig. 7. Case V. Right eye. Retinal exudates and hemorrhages.

general retinal edema especially about nerve and macular region. Just above macula in close proximity to a vessel there is a thin exudate, while just above and to the temporal side are seen two small hemorrhages, the one nearest the nerve being a minute linear one, and the more distal one being several fine points. See Fig. 6.

11-28-18: Fundi examination with undilated pupils shows, O.D. blurring of optic nerve with two areas of thin exmoscopic change in findings from November 28, 1918.

Case V.—Mrs. F., (white), age 40. Entered the hospital February 8, 1919.

Family history negative. Marital history, eleven children without previous trouble. Present history, entered the hospital with history that eyes had been getting blurred for five days, which condition had been growing worse.

Examination upon entrance showed

patient eight months pregnant, blood pressure 205/110 and presence of marked albumin, with red blood cells and hyalin casts in urine.

Eye examination 4 p. m. on February 8, with dilated pupils and direct examination showed blurring of right nerve head, vessels large and tortuous, with marked edema of the retina, espe-

rhages seen. About two nerve heads below disc, retina was detached, with typical white appearance, more on the order of a very large wrinkle than complete detachment, as slight pinkish reflex could be made out in the periphery. (See Fig. 8).

February 9, 1919. Eye examination, just after delivery of a male child,

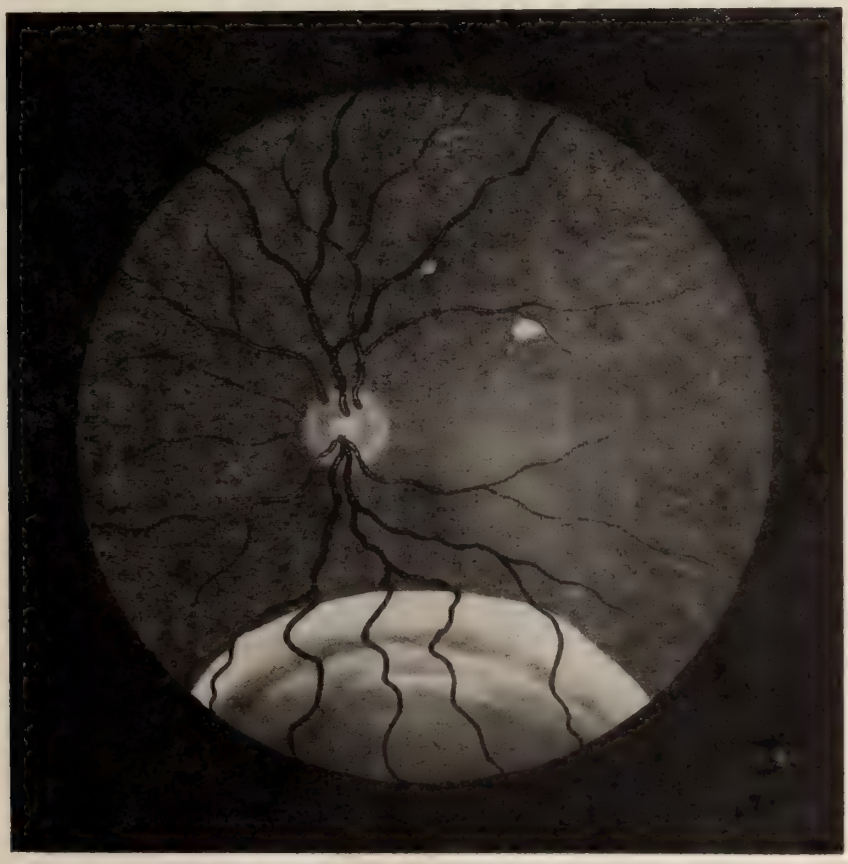


Fig. 8. Case V. Left eye. Detachment below, exudates above.

cially about macula, and several exudates and hemorrhages; the exudates being most marked along the superior temporal vessels, while the hemorrhages were near macula and below. Lower temporal vessels seemingly raised and more tortuous than others. (See Fig. 7). Left eye showed same condition about nerve, with tortuosity of vessels and edema of the retina. There was rather a large exudate just above macula near vessel; no hemor-

weight 5¾ lbs., no change could be noted. February 10, 1919, fundus examination showed no change in the right eye, but left eye showed an almost complete return of the retina to its bed, so much so that we were unable to demonstrate any detachment. Patient continued to show a neuroretinitis, with hemorrhages and exudates in right eye and exudates in left, until March 4, when she insisted upon leaving the hospital. Blood pressure was

then systolic 145, with a trace of albumin in the urine.

Case VI.—L. H., (white), age 33. Hopkins Maternity Ward.

History: Has had eight children, all living. Four weeks ago began to have swelling of limbs and was admitted to maternity ward on March 15, 1919, with edematous condition very marked. B. P. 205/110. Urine showed albumin and casts. Patient was delivered March 16, 1919, and this was followed by a couple of convulsions. Patient states she has had poor vision for two or three weeks.

Eye examination on March 19, at 5 p. m. showed pronounced blurring of outlines of right nerve, with retinal edema, vessels large and tortuous; as superior temporal vessels were followed outward there was noted increased tortuosity with definite elevation of retina measuring between 6 and 7 diopters. Pinkish reflex was present thruout this region, but definite wrinkling of retina was seen, several small exudates were noted in the edematous area about nerve and macula and one small hemorrhage near lower inferior nasal vessel. (See Fig. 9).

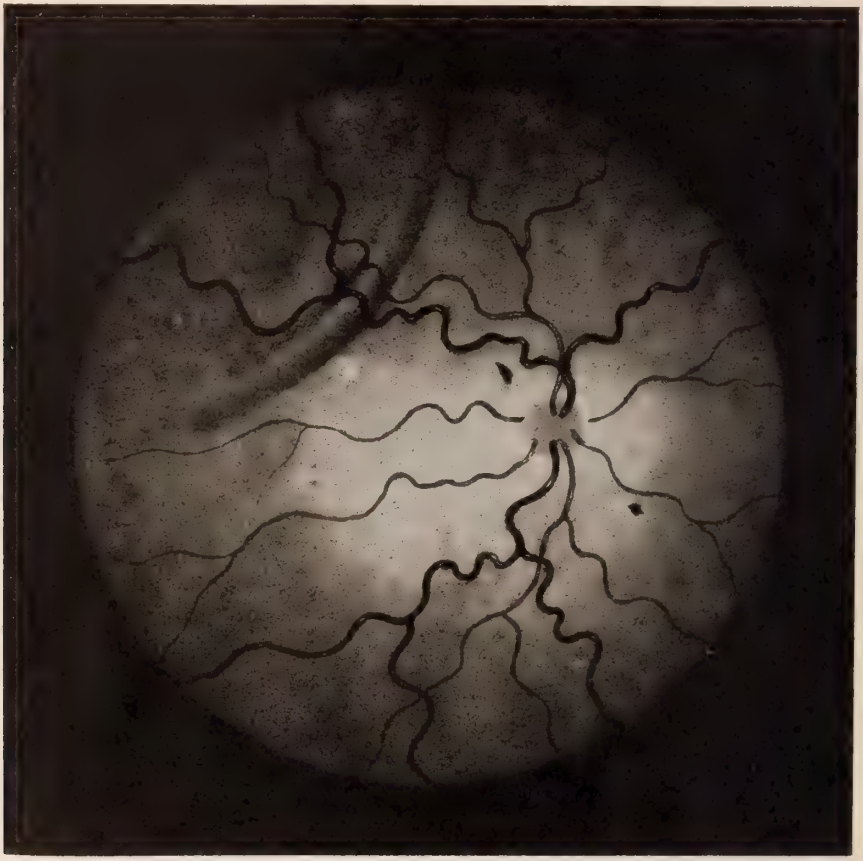


Fig. 9. Case VI. Right eye. Retinal edema, enlarged vessels, and fold of detachment up and out.

Left fundus showed same general condition as right, in the blurring of nerve head, retinal edema and small exudates and hemorrhages and tortuosity of vessels, but these were more pronounced just below and to the temporal side of the fundus, where wrinkling of the inner coat was found and where there was approximately the same elevation as in O. D., from 6 to 7 dameters. (See Fig. 10)

March 20, 1919, 3 p. m.: No change in fundi, with possible exception that elevation in O.D. may be less, patient says she sees much better.

March 22, 1919, no elevation of retina in either eye but neuroretinitis still present. Patient states she can see much better.

ment in each eye, and Batten[10] double detachment in a boy having nephritis.

While one can easily see how in any case of inflammation of the inner coats of the eye associated with edema, one could most easily have this transudation poured out under the retina thus producing a detachment, its infre-

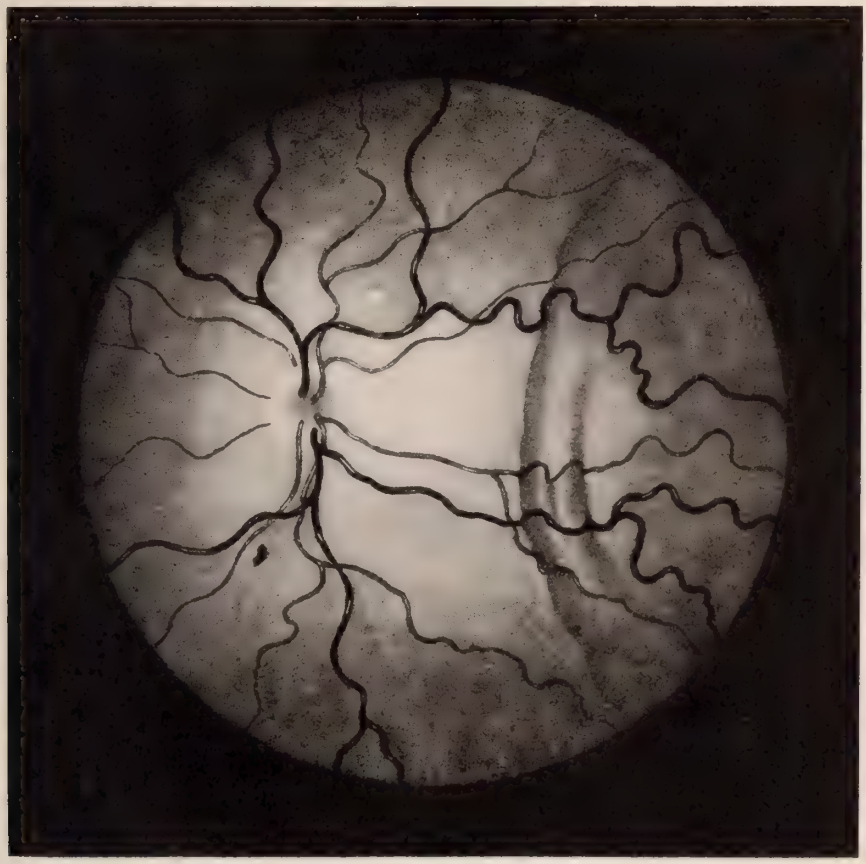


Fig. 10. Case VI. Left eye. Fold of detached retina outward.

April 8, 1919, both fundi show some neuritis, with edema of retina, exudates and hemorrhages.

REMARKS.

It is claimed by some obstetricians, that cases of toxemia or eclampsia which show eye changes, are always secondary to a kidney lesion.

To be sure detached retinas have been reported in cases of pure nephritis, as Jones[9] cites the case of a man having nephritis with double detach-

quency of record in this class of cases is not so easily explained. Many cases of eclampsia show edema of the retina extending from margins of nerve out towards the periphery, without either hemorrhages or exudates. These have been seen with increasing frequency since the introduction of the electric ophthalmoscope and using the direct method of ophthalmoscopy, especially so in those toxemia cases where unconsciousness of patient makes it often exceedingly difficult to make a thoro examination.

Some are now claiming that the unconsciousness is due to cerebral edema, and one can readily see how an edema of the retina starting most frequently with a slight blurring of the optic nerve and extending peripherally could be associated with cerebral edema, and it requires only to carry this pathologic phase one or two steps further to conceive this accumulation in such quantities as to cause separation of the retina from its bed, taking place most frequently in the lower part of fundus first, and then if the condition is not arrested continuing the separation around the entire circumference. When this stage arrives it would be logical to expect that both serum and blood would find their way outside of the vessels and lymphatics, producing exudates and hemorrhages. So much for our hypothesis, now how is it borne out by facts in our cases under observation? In the first case at the first examination, the patient was in profound stupor but the pupils were dilated and both fundi examined by direct method with result as described. Two days later imagine our surprise in finding such a change with double detachment in the right eye and a very large single one below in the left.

Baehr[11] asserts that both coma and convulsions are usually if not always due to cerebral edema either general or localized, and whether this occurs as a result of trauma or from influence of toxins the end results are similar. One is struck by the similarity of fundal pictures as seen in most cases of toxemia of pregnancy with its slightly blurred nerve head and retinal edema and those cases of fractured skull where the eye findings are usually of like degree in blurring of nerve head and edema of retina.

Wilson[12] and Snyder[13] report cases of eclampsia that ceased having convulsions as soon as lumbar puncture was performed, while Zangemeister[14] devotes fifty pages to arguments sustaining the contention that the clinical symptoms (convulsions) are due to intracranial edema.

The mechanism of detachment of the retina as contended by Leber[15] and Nordenson, a fibrillary change in the vitreous, does not seem in these cases to be at all apropos, but it seems more on the order of Raehlman's[16] theory of diffusion.

The first case will not bear out the contention that ophthalmoscopic changes never occur in eclampsia for a case having sixteen typical convulsions would certainly be classified as eclampsia; nor would any of these cases substantiate the theory of excessive congestion except the possibility of case IV. as cases II. and V. occurred before parturition and cases I., III. and VI. were not difficult.

Diagnosis: While the condition as it existed in these cases was very definite and if seen could not have been mistaken by even a novice, I am of the decided opinion that many more cases of detachment occur in eclampsia than are reported and that these occur far in the periphery and are frequently overlooked. Another point which certainly should be kept in mind is a rather frequent examination of these cases, and always with a widely dilated pupil. This is strikingly illustrated in cases I. and V., as the initial examination in case I. was not startling, but a few days later the appearance was far from reassuring and in case V. if examination had been deferred, as frequently happens, no detachment could have been found. Then again let me plead for a very careful paistaking examination, as cases I. and III. were very difficult of examination with the ophthalmoscope, and as the fundi were studied only after some effort; and case IV. was only discovered after careful searching of the periphery. One must also keep in mind the flat detachments as seen in case VI., where definite elevation and wrinkling were found but where the fundus reflex is not lost. It is quite probable that this case had typical detachments and was in the receding stage when first examined.

Prognosis: Altho the appearance is disheartening, and one is likely to give a very grave prognosis as one becomes accustomed to do in idiopathic detachments, here the prognosis de-

pends not so much upon the amount of detachment, but upon the accompanying neuroretinitis as well as upon the length of time that this has existed. The prognosis in reference to the detachment is exceptionally good as evidenced in this report, and also of cases cited, but as to ultimate vision it must of necessity be guarded as the neuroretinitis is often followed by marked permanent impairment of functioning retina.

Treatment: Altho eliminating treatment is essential after the condition is well marked, the most important treatment is prophylactic. In this age of modern medicine when blurring of vision occurs in any stage of pregnancy, and especially in the latter months, there should be a most careful and painstaking fundal examination, and in cases where there is found neuroretinitis, either with or without detachments, certainly from an ophthalmologic standpoint, premature delivery is justified.

While none of this series was treated by spinal puncture, I feel certain that repeated spinal puncture is a procedure that is at least worthy of trial.

As to local treatment I am inclined to the belief that negative is as valuable as positive treatment, and that nearly the entire result depends upon active elimination as outlined by the attending obstetrician. Case I. had active local treatment in the form of pressure, bandage, recumbent position, etc., but one could see no more marked improvement than in cases II., III., IV., V. and VI., where little or no local treatment was used. To be sure cases II., III. and V. did not have such good end results, but that occurred as a result of the neuroretinitis, which was of longer duration with more extensive scarring of retinal and nerve tissue, while case IV. I am sure had good end results, altho I was never able to get her to return to check up the vision, and case VI. is still in the hospital.

Summary: Retinal detachment in eclampsia is, according to most authors, a very rare condition and conspicuous by a paucity of literature. Six such cases have been under our observation since December, 1917, varying in extent from small to almost complete detachment of the retina. In contradistinction to so-called iodiopathic detachments, these have all subsided and become reattached with normal fields of vision.

They may be antepartum or postpartum, and may clear up in a few hours, and are frequently far forward in the periphery and found only after some searching. They are probably present much more frequently than heretofore recorded, and the prognosis is good so far as the detachment is concerned.

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CONJUNCTIVITIS DUE TO FOOD ANAPHYLAXIS.

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This paper calls attention to an unusual condition of extreme interest and some practical importance, and reports three cases.

It has long been known that certain foods, when eaten by individuals peculiarly sensitive or anaphylactic to these foods, develop certain symptoms or ill effects. Among the better known disturbances are urticaria, eczema, vasomotor rhinitis, angioneurotic edema, and bronchial asthma.

I shall produce evidence to show that conjunctivitis unaccompanied by any other manifestation may also be produced by the proteins of commonly used foods which up-to-date have not been recognized as causes of this disease. My attention was called to this possibility by stubborn inflammations of the conjunctiva recurring in the same patient at or about the same time year after year. Most of these cases had been treated for a considerable period of time before I saw them but had never had any treatment that permanently relieved or shortened the attacks. For a time the determination of the offending food was by either guess work or elimination. When the food happened to be a fruit or a vegetable which was eaten only at certain times of the year the diagnosis was comparatively easy. For a number of years I have seen cases in which I considered certain foods as possible causes of this recurring conjunctivitis, but owing to lack of coöperation and careful observation on the part of the patients I was not definitely convinced that such was the fact.

In the summer of 1915 I was very fortunate in having for a patient a young man who was not only intelligent and observing but who was willing to carry out any and all suggestions I proposed. For five or six years he had suffered from "sore eyes," which generally began in May and continued off and on till late in the fall. When I first saw him his lids appeared somewhat reddened and swollen, with a suggestion of a slight ptosis such as one sees in trachoma. The bulbar conjunctiva was markedly hyperemic, with a more moderate hyperemia of the palpebral conjunctiva. During the following two years he definitely proved to me and himself that his conjunctivitis was due to eating either strawberries or tomatoes. The patient was convinced long before I was. He would report in the afternoon with a conjunctiva that appeared normal, then eat freely of tomatoes or strawberries and return the following day with the usual "sore eyes."

During the time he has been under observation he has never had his "red eyes" except after eating one of the offending foods, nor has the eating of these foods ever failed to cause a hyperemia of the conjunctiva. Last fall this patient reported again, saying that some new food was causing a recurrence of his old trouble. The protein skin tests showed no new sensitization. I did find, however, that he had indulged in a catsup which contained tomatoes. We then found that this, when eaten on baked beans, always brought on a marked conjunctival hyperemia.

The protein skin test is the one used by Walker[1] in his investigations of the cause of bronchial asthma. The proteins used are prepared by Wodehouse[2], who in 1916 described the preparation and method of manufacture. The skin test is made as follows:

"A number of small cuts, each about an eighth of an inch long, are made on the flexor surface of the forearm. These cuts are made with a sharp scalpel, but are not deep enough to draw blood, although they do penetrate the skin. On each cut is placed a protein and to it is added a drop of tenth normal sodium hydroxid solution to dissolve the protein and permit

of its rapid absorption. At the end of a half hour the proteins are washed off and the reactions are noted, always comparing the inoculated cuts with normal controls on which no protein was placed. A positive reaction consists of a raised white elevation or urticarial wheal surrounding the cut. The smallest reaction called positive must measure 0.5 cm. in diameter."

The use of the skin test makes the diagnosis comparatively easy and cases are now found that ordinarily would escape detection. The majority of these cases are of moderate conjunctival injection and generally the patient's only complaint is as to the appearance of his eyes.

These patients may, however, present very annoying eye symptoms, as the following case will show.

A. B. R., 56 years, male, merchant. For the past four or five years he has been unable to read for more than five minutes at a time without, as he expresses it, "a feeling of sand in his eyes, the lids feel constantly as they do when one is very sleepy." He has rather frequent, sudden attacks of lacrimation, which come on without any known cause and stop as suddenly as they started. He says that he has had a perfectly miserable time of it for the past couple of years, with practically constant eye discomfort; so he became an "early to bed and late to rise" sort of a fellow, as the only time he was at all comfortable was when his eyes were closed. His glasses had been changed a number of times, tinted lenses had been ordered and worn, drops of various kinds and colors had been prescribed and used without any benefit whatsoever. The eye lids were slightly swollen and congested and there was a general enlargement of the conjunctival blood vessels which was more marked on the bulbar conjunctiva. Nothing found in nose or throat. General condition good. No bad habits, did not smoke or drink, and I could not find any change necessary in his glasses. The elimination of eggs from his diet was shortly followed by a total disappearance of his annoying symptoms. For the past two years he has been able to use his eyes as he wished, and he informs me that life is once more worth living. One control test followed by a return of his symptoms was all I could persuade this patient to make.

On a recent skin test with some thirty odd proteins this patient reacted to egg alone. This case is of additional interest in that as a child he suffered for eight or nine years from asthma and then later in life from hay fever. It may be that as a child he had a bronchial asthma from some food protein, outgrew this sensitization, and then became sensitized to rag weed or timothy pollen, to which in time he also became antianaphylactic, only to develop a few years ago a sensitization to egg protein.

The skin test should be made at the time the patient is suffering from the conjunctivitis, as in some people the anaphylactic reaction disappears after the patient abstains from the offending food any length of time, to reappear again on eating it.

In other cases one finds a positive reaction where the patient has eaten the offending food but once or twice during his whole life.

Talbot[3] has found infants who have never tasted egg, but who gave a positive skin reaction to egg.

In a number of cases the tendency to protein sensitization seems to be hereditary, as frequently the patient will volunteer the information that other members of his immediate family are subject to annoying and, at times, alarming symptoms after eating a special food.

People are frequently found who react to two or more of a group of closely related proteins, while in others the reaction is to one specified protein, as the following case illustrates.

Case 3.—A. H., 28 years. Male. For the past five years this man has suffered from an inflammation of the right upper lid which always occurred during or immediately following his summer vacation. While away he spent most of his time fishing for flounders, which he ate two or three times a day. During the remainder of the year he

ate very little fish and never any flounders. Not being able to obtain flounder protein, at the suggestion of Wodehouse I tried sole protein, as sole is a sort of first cousin to flounder, but obtained no results. Thinking that possibly too long a time had elapsed since the ingestion of this fish, two months later I requested the patient to eat flounder a few times so that I could again try the skin test. On the day following a two-meal test the lid inflammation recurred, but the sole protein test remained negative. I now prepared a home-made protein, and with this obtained a positive reaction.

In the absence of uncorrected ametropia, all recurring low grade inflammation of the conjunctiva which the patient calls "frequent attacks of red eyes," should be considered as possibly due to food anaphylaxis. This is especially true when the attacks appear the same month year after year. After obtaining a positive skin test the proof as to this food being the cause of the conjunctivitis is very readily obtained by the patient.

I believe that a number of diseases whose etiology is now grouped under the indefinite head of autointoxication will be found on closer examination to be anaphylactic phenomena.

In conclusion I will add that I also believe that the study of food protein anaphylaxis and bacterial protein anaphylaxis will explain the etiology of a number of eye diseases, especially keratitis and low grade inflammation of the uveal tract, and open up vast and fruitful fields for investigation.

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OCULAR LESIONS CONSECUTIVE TO INJECTIONS OF ANTITYPHOID VACCINE, KERATITIS HERPETICA FEBRILIS.

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This paper reports a case of ocular lesions following antityphoid vaccination, and reviews the previously reported cases, and the conclusions that have been drawn from them.

The scientific periodicals have been publishing for one year and a half a series of very interesting articles about the ocular lesions resulting in a small number of persons inoculated with antityphoid vaccine. We add a case in which were observed some points which have been previously noted and published.

Our patient, a German of 52, a bookkeeper by occupation, has resided in Guatemala since his 20th year. He has no pathologic record nor antecedents of any importance. He acclimated himself easily to the tropics, and has always lived in the city (1,500 meters altitude). Three years ago, being on a vacation in New Orleans, he had a herpetic keratitis, following catarrh of the upper air passages, for which he had consulted us on his return; and we could retrospectively trace the picture of the disease by dimness of vision, photophobia, lacrimation, conjunctival and ciliary injection, anesthesia, and dendriform ulceration of the cornea, miosis and hypotension, without pain or elevation of temperature, and no lesions of the face. A general examination was made, but the keratitis could not be attributed to any other cause than the catarrh of the upper air passages which preceded it. Under proper treatment it yielded in due time, leaving a thin, superficial opacity on the anterior part of the cor-

nea, which disappeared completely. Final vision result = 9/10.

During the three years that have elapsed from that time, the eye had been quiet until the 15th of May of the current year. On the evening of the 13th he received a third dose of 1 cc. of Mulford's "Typho-Bacterin Mixed," which contains per cc.:

1,000 millions of dead typhoid bacilli
500 millions of dead paratyphoid A. bacilli
500 millions of dead paratyphoid B. bacilli.

This injection was given on Monday at 6 P. M., and from midnight and all Tuesday he had a fever (39,6°C.), headaches, boneaches and general malaise. In the evening the pain decreased, the temperature fell and a cluster of nasolabial herpes appeared on the right half of the face. On Wednesday, he awakened with an inflamed, red, right eye, photophobia, constant lacrimation and blurred vision.

He consulted a physician immediately, who prescribed a solution of nitrat of silver; but remembering having previously had something similar, in which we had assisted him, he consulted us on Sunday, the 19th.

On that date the picture was the following: Right eye; diminution of visual acuity, photophobia, lacrimation, constant sensation of a foreign body, strong conjunctival and ciliary injection, two central, branching, superficial ulcerations of the cornea. Pupil sluggish and contracted, anesthesia of the cornea. Tension: diminished. In the nasolabial region of the right side I found dried herpetic particles. The teeth, gums, tonsils, nasal fossae and sinuses were healthy, and no area of focal infections was found. The point of injection did not present the least sign of infection.

We thought immediately of a herpes febrilis of the cornea, consecutive to an injection of polyvalent antityphoid vaccine, developed in a subject whose examination did not reveal other causes, but who had among antecedents a previous appearance of catarrhal herpes on the cornea, and to this anteceding lesion we attribute a great importance on which we will report later.

Morax[1] was the first who gave the alarm, publishing a case in whom, after a febrile access caused by an injection of T. A. B., a keratitis herpetica developed, which was of slight importance, since the patient recovered vision completely.

Gloagen,[2] chief of the ophthalmologic clinic of the Maritime Hospital of Cherbourg, records three other cases of keratitis herpetica. In the first case the third injection produced fever of 40° C., headaches, boneaches, which induced the physician to make a lumbar puncture on the following day. That same day an intense nasolabial herpes broke out. Three days later there appeared in the right eye a classic herpetic keratitis and the fluorescein showed the fine ramifications. The affection was cured in eighteen days, but a thin opacity of the cornea persisted which reduced the vision to 0.6.

In the second case the fourth injection was followed by general malaise, headaches, fever (40° C.). After the following day, nasolabial herpes appeared. Three days later, besides a dense palpebral herpes of the upper lid, a typical herpetic keratitis which affected almost all of the cornea, was observed. Cure in 25 days, but an opacity persisted which reduced the vision to 0.1.

These observations relate to herpes febrilis of the cornea. It is very difficult to judge them if they are not submitted to an impartial analysis, owing to the intimate relation which seems to exist between the cause and the effect. An incorrect interpretation would be extremely detrimental to a new prophylactic method which is expected to give incalculable service to humanity. We shall endeavor to interpret these observations for which we need to note other ocular affections which have occurred immediately after vaccination.

The febrile form is one variety of herpes of the cornea. It shows itself in the infectious diseases, accompanied by vesicular eruptions of the skin of

the face and of certain mucous membranes; and is considered a toxic neuritis of the trigeminus, the herpetic keratitis being a neuritis of the terminal filaments of the ciliary nerves.

All the observations are identical. One of the inoculations is followed by a febrile access, after which herpes appeared upon the skin of the face and the mucosa, followed by appearance of herpes on the cornea. The injection of T. A. B. is the cause of the fever, and the herpetic appearance. Let us note immediately that this latter is rather exceptional, considering the great number of vaccinations which are made.

We might suppose that the cause of the fever is a microbe, which has developed in a badly prepared or poorly preserved vaccine. We also presume that the microbes can find entrance into the organism by a faulty technic. One can imagine that a febrile access acts by reviving a latent infectious focus, preexisting in some part of the body. However, the microbes secrete toxins which affect certain nerves; or one could finally explain the process, by the action of a proteid substance which developed in the vaccine, and has the property of producing fever and irritation of the trigeminus.

The accepted opinion is that the antityphoid vaccine by itself can be the direct cause of the herpes of the cornea, it not being possible to find another cause. The observation that we present is very interesting because it treats of recurrence and our patient is therefore a subject predisposed to the nervous lesion, which presented itself before in an identical form, without the vaccine having to figure in the etiology of the process. The first time, a catarrh of the upper air passages preceded the lesions of the eye; and now it appears after a reaction of T. A. B., which brings us to the following conclusions: It has been supposed that the febrile herpes of the cornea directly depends upon the antityphoid vaccine; but our observation modifies this opinion because in our patient a predisposition existed.

Prof. de Lapersonne[3] published a case, a résumé of which we reproduce herewith. A soldier, after the second or third injection had multiple abscesses and infectious broncho-pneumonia; and in the course of this pulmonary complication, presented a unilateral metastatic ophthalmia. After such grave general complications he recovered with an atrophied and painful eye, which it was necessary to enucleate some days later. De Lapersonne thinks that the microbes of the infection, introduced into the organism with the vaccine, were the cause of that pyemia; but not the vaccine which does not contain infectious germs.

He considered this case extremely rare, but he thinks it should be known, so that in the future one may avoid similar cases by strictly following the rules of asepsis; and he advises that the patients be rigorously examined before vaccinating them, because latent infectious foci can be revived; and the visual organs must be especially examined by an oculist. Besides an infection, a recurrence of an iridocyclitis can happen. Avoid them in people who are predisposed thru a persisting pathologic state. In this manner one can conceive that in the luetic, rheumatic, tubercular, or in anyone who may have had a generalized gonococcic infection, etc., ocular lesions can appear when a violent reaction happens.

Calhoun[4] published two observations in an article entitled "Anti-Typhoid Inoculations and Ocular Lesions." The first observation was in a lawyer with a slightly positive Neisser reaction, who presented a typical iritis the day following an injection of T. A. B. The other case was in a luetic with a + + + positive Wassermann. Three days after the third injection the vision blurred and the examination showed several deposits on the posterior wall of the cornea, opacity of the vitreous, and two patches of acute choroiditis. Salvarsan, mercury and iodides made the lesions disappear.

Prélat,[5] who published a case similar to the second of Calhoun, thinks it very questionable if the vaccine has a predisposing action. There are reasons why, in such a patient a plastic luetic

iridocyclitis may develop, without it being necessary to resort to the antityphoid injection to explain genesis. Indeed, the luetic origin of double iridocyclitis not only seems to be possible, but certain, the antecedents, the clinical signs, the Wassermann, the favorable result that the treatment gave are positive proofs. It nullifies the hypothesis of direct action of the vaccine, but suggests that this may have played a coöperative part. On the other hand I find it very fair to bring to notice that, with the number of vaccinations which are given, it must be possible to meet one with some recurrences.

From his observations he finally deduces the following conclusions:

(1) The antityphoid vaccine in the luetic subject safe from any complications, does not seem to have any danger. If in these conditions some complications arise, it is not possible to make the injections responsible for the lesions. On the contrary, he considers it prudent, as de Lapersonne advises, to abstain from that practice in luetic and tubercular subjects, etc., who may have had lesions of the uveal tract, because they can be revived under the influence of the vaccine.

(2) Owing to the medico-legal consequences that might arise, in similar cases, the accidents that present themselves after the injections of T. A. B. must not be attributed to the vaccine until after a complete and minute examination of the patient; and it is not possible to accept this etiology without great circumspection and after a satisfactory verification. The observation of that patient is a proof of the necessity to judge such facts with extreme prudence.

The observations of Etienne Ginestous[6] belong to a circle of simple and tedious coincidences, because in the traumatism of an ocular globe, even in a very grave case like that which is the object of the first observation, it is usual to observe in practice momentary improvements, followed by rapid reactions which threaten the vision, or even produce amaurosis. This should not surprise ..., nor do we find this case exceptional. It concerns a shoemaker 19 years of age who, while playing, received a heavy blow on the right eye and lost the vision instantly. But on the following days he presented certain improvements even to the point of recovering one-fourth of his vision. On a day following an injection of T. A. B. he lost the sight again and he did not recover. Traumatic neuritis developed, nearing atrophy, an ordinary process in which it is not possible to account for direct influence of the vaccine.

The second case of the same author concerns a myope, with posterior staphyloma and chorioretinitis, vision with a $-5 = 2/3$. After a third injection, which caused fever and diarrhea, he noticed that his vision diminished to 1/6, after correction. We remember that the lesions of the retina of the myope can progress and the visual acuity diminish, even after the defect was corrected; and that at a certain moment, without the apparent determinating cause, a rapid diminution of vision occur. One must consider the immense number of myopes inoculated with T. A. B., and none of them complaining of poor vision after vaccination, and we also note that many myopes, without receiving any inoculations, suffer diminution of vision.

Other troubles have been observed, such as lesions of the retina (Morax), ocular motor nerve paralysis (Morax and Bourdier), whose etiology is most questionable, as it concerns luetics or patients whose luetic records have not been investigated. Morax himself admits that it is a question of coincidences, such as happens in the two observations of Ginestous. In résumé: It is a question of late consequences, of known processes which in their evolution do not diverge at all from the usual, and therefore do not seem influenced at all by the antityphoid vaccine.

So far there have not been published any cases of retrobulbar neuritis. De Lapersonne would explain them by a meningeal reaction of the sheath of the optic nerve. Of the same nature would be the lesions of the optic tracts and also those of the motor nerves.

He advises extreme prudence and really admits the action of the vaccine only in those cases in which the different clinical and laboratory examinations, and very particularly the reaction of Wassermann, have been negative.

It is necessary to differentiate the glaucomas. Is it a question of glaucoma secondary to old irido-cyclitis, with pupillar occlusion? Nothing is more easy than to think of an acute attack developed during a violent reaction.

The explanation of the acute and subacute glaucoma is much more embarrassing; and it would be really difficult in this case to deny the influence of the vaccine or to explain the process of a chronic glaucoma whose pathology is far from being clear, the manner in which the vaccine could aggravate it is not evident, above all when the aggravation is late, more than one month, and a febrile access did not follow the injections.

So far our knowledge of ocular lesions consecutive to injections of antityphoid vaccine is limited; but as conclusions one could establish the following propositions, which, with some exceptions, are the views of the majority of the authors referred to.

1. There exists no ocular lesion depending directly and exclusively upon the antityphoid vaccine.

2. Herpes febrilis of the cornea is the ocular lesion which is admittedly dependent upon antityphoid vaccine; but in certain cases, as in our observation, it dealt with a recurrence, and one must admit a predisposition.

3. In a like manner, the cases of iridocyclitis which have a constitutional defect must be considered. A reaction of the vaccine can bring on secondary glaucoma depending upon iridocyclitis.

4. Pyemia, whose cause is a fault of asepsis in the technic, can produce grave complications of metastatic purulent iridocyclitis.

5. Certain lesions of the optic nerves, the optic tracts and certain ocular paralyses, of which, so far, no observations have been published, could be explained by meningeal reaction.

6. An acute primary glaucoma can develop during the reaction of the vaccine. It is not possible scientifically to express in what manner a chronic glaucoma would be aggravated.

7. To admit the action of the vaccine, it is necessary that the ocular manifestations should present themselves during the febrile reaction or immediately after.

8. In certain cases it is not possible to attribute to the vaccine any action at all, it is simply a question of annoying coincidences.

9. It is not prudent to vaccinate luetic, tubercular, and rheumatic subjects, etc., who may have previously had lesions of the uveal tract.

10. There is no reason to deprive those subjects of the benefits of the vaccine who had no former lesions of the uveal tract; who are exempt, therefore, from all former ocular affections.

11. The patient must be submitted to a previous medical examination, and the examination of the eyes entrusted to an oculist.

12. Before judging on a medico-legal matter, due to the vaccine, it is necessary to use great circumspection and to have a perfect knowledge of all that has been said on the subject.

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THE EFFECTS OF FAULTY CRANIO-SPINAL FORM AND ALIGNMENT UPON THE EYES.

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Faulty posture of the head and spinal curvature are generally recognized as effects of ocular anomalies. This paper points out the reverse relation may be true, and the ocular symptoms relieved by orthopedic treatment.

Tilting of the head, high-headedness and its converse have long been recognized as products of, or have been found in such constant relation to the various heterophorias and heterotropias, notably the cyclophorias, as to fix the opinion that the cause of the ocular misplacements and torsion, and consequently of the cranial malposition, was primarily a fault of action of the extrinsic ocular muscles and particularly of the obliques.

Spectacular cures of marked torticollis, effected by operating upon these muscles in a few cases, further so emphasized this opinion, that the possibility of faulty cranial posture, as a primary result of marked cranial asymmetry, or secondary to faults of spinal alignment or of actual vertebral lesions, acting to produce ocular torsion and changed corneal curvature thru compensatory overaction of certain groups of extrinsic ocular muscles in their effort to achieve and maintain normal spatial orientation, apparently never were considered.

Prior to the inception of our work in August 1915, ophthalmic and orthopedic literatures were barren of facts dealing with such an association. In fact the ophthalmologist limited his notions of ocular mechanics to the orbit, while the orthopedist rarely went above the seventh cervical vertebra, from which point he usually dropped a plumb line in spinal examinations.

Our interest in this problem arose from having seen projectile wounds of the cervico-dorsal spine with frank ocular symptoms; from a case of acute glaucoma in which the first symptom, acute cutting pain in the cervico-dorsal region, was so agonizing as to mask the ocular lesion, or symptom, temporarily; from observing that obvious and gross skeletal deformity seemed more prevalent among cases of manifest squint than among ordinary eye cases and, finally, from noting that the sub-occipital and nuchal aching which accompanied many of the more marked refractive and muscular faults very often did not yield to the most accurately prescribed lenses or to muscle training, but were often temporarily relieved by cervical massage or manipulation.

A chance discussion of some of these facts with Dr. Charles L. Lowman, a capable orthopedic surgeon, revealed the fact that he had noted improvement or relief of eye symptoms in patients coming to him for such remote static lesions as flat foot, hip disease and, more frequently, cervico-dorsal lesions. "Pulling," "drawing" or "burning" sensations in the neck and back were common complaints among the last class, and were more pronounced during or after sewing, reading, writing, typing or watching moving-pictures, activities which require stabilization of the head, or shoulder-girdle fixation (essential to the use of the hands in any finely coordinated work) or both, as an essential to intense ocular fixation, thus putting strain on all the muscular and ligamentous attachments and structures involved in maintaining head balance and in fixing the shoulder-girdle.

We knew that only about ten per cent of all individuals could be classed, posturally, as belonging to the "ideally normal type." It was estimated that emmetropia and normal muscle balance existed in about an equal per cent of individuals and the parallelism seemed suggestive. Further, lateral and antero-posterior deformities of the spine are very common, anatomic pecu-

liarities are frequent in the cervical region and cranial asymmetry is the rule.

It seemed logical to assume, therefore, that not only could spinal curves and rotations be evolved compensatorily in the mechanics of balancing unequally weighted cranial halves upon the spine, but also that faults of cranial posture, such as tilting and high-headedness, could be the compensatory postural result of spinal bends and torsions due to unilateral leg deformities and faults in pelvic alignment, as well as to original lesions of the spine. We assumed, further, that the eyes could be involved in these skeletal defects; first thru reflex irritation, stretching or pressure upon the cilio-spinal sympathetic center and pathways, a relation to be detailed in a subsequent paper (American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology, Vol. XV, *Spinal Affections*); and secondly thru compensatory action of the extrinsic ocular muscles producing compensatory heterophorias and heterotropias and presumably changing the corneal curvature by their novel and unequal efforts to put and to keep the world right side up.

We believed it logical to hold that certain ocular muscles might become shortened by adaptation, in the same manner that the peronei in the leg shorten when the internal muscles stretch and let down under the increase weight caused by a disturbed line of gravity and that there was no reason why a tilted pelvis, for instance, should not produce compensatory changes in the eye structures as it will in foot structures.

On these assumptions several hundred consecutive eye cases were contrasted with the consecutive cases of postural defects appearing at the Crippled Children's Guild. In the former group, naturally, nothing like a full orthopedic examination, with the patient stripped, was possible. At first merely the binocular and monocular ductions were taken, together with the usual refractive findings, but later the fixing eye for distance and near was determined, the ocular torsions, the gross features of cranial and facial asymmetry were observed, as well as the location of a plumb line passing thru the external occipital protuberance and the position and degree of head-tilting, rotations and other cranial malpositions.

It was quickly found that among the cases which were without doubt primarily orthopedic, such as infantile paralysis, hip disease, tubercular disease of the spine etc., gross ocular muscle defects and irregular astigmatism, of notable degree, occurred in the proportion of about 3.2:1, when compared with the consecutive eye cases, the comparable cases among which, almost without exception were frankly out of skeletal alignment. A standard of over 3 degrees of left or right hyperphoria, of over 3 degrees of exophoria or esophoria, exophoria for near of 10 or more degrees and esophoria for near of any degree were taken as an empirical but practical basis for comparison. Left hyperphoria occurred in 72 per cent of the orthopedic cases and 61.5 per cent of the eye cases; and the characteristic ocular imbalance associated with the obvious postural imbalance was that of left hyperphoria; exophoria for distance and increased exophoria for near, due to weakness of the left internus, the right eye fixing both for distance and near, the left diverging at near, and the left eye showing torsion or cyclophoria. In the eye group it was seen that the great majority of patients complaining of suboccipital or cervical or brachial pains showed more or less obvious postural faults and a muscle balance corresponding to that of the characteristic orthopedic case. Every case of hyperphoria above five degrees in both groups showed more complicated head tilting and rotation, more obliquity of the shoulder-girdle and more marked spinal curves and rotations, than were to be found in the cases of lesser ocular inbalance.

Our first conclusions from the work begun in 1915 were reached in 1917. Orthopedic results in cases of serious deformities are obtained thru patient muscular, ligamentous and nervous re-education, and when our results appeared sufficiently suggestive to warrant publication, as well as to estab-

lish priority, Dr. Lowman, in February 1918, submitted the main orthopedic fiindings and the hypotheses then reached, in the form of a candidate's thesis to the Committee on Membership of the National Orthopedic Association. This paper appeared in the American Journal of Orthopedic Surgery, Dec. 1918, p. 459-492 with the title "The Effect of Faulty Skeletal Alignment Upon the Eyes."

Risley (Amer. Jour. of Ophthal., May 1918, p. 357) is reported to have made a study of a number of cases of decided cranial and facial asymmetry. Hatters forms were made of many of these and the grotesque distortion which these forms showed was frequently coincident with such marked facial asymmetry as a relatively flat or even concave zygoma on one side paired with a large convex one on the other, and with much variation in the distance of the eye from the median plane. This variation of the location of the eyes in the orbit, in the form of the globe, in the length, line of direction and point of origin and insertion of the extrinsic ocular muscles were considered by Risley to be large factors in producing the refractive defects and muscular imbalances noted in these cases. Risley made no observation of associated postural defects of cranio-spinal alignment.

Stevens (N. Y. Med. Jour., Aug. 17, 1918), writing on "Right Handedness in Its Relation to Visual Conditions," correctly interprets the unsymmetric shape of the skull as the direct effect of the over development of the motor area of the left cerebrum to correspond with the racial prevalence of dextrality. In infancy there is bilaterality of cortical movements which wrongfully undergo suppression in the infantile period as the result of prevalent racial training. Repeated examinations show that the cranial asymmetry which results produces a distortion of the left orbit, the upper arch of which is pushed out, thus changing the axis of the cavity and, as measured by the clinoscope, leading to a left cyclophoria, a fact wholly in accord with our clinical findings. In some cases Stevens noted a right cyclophoria or a cyclophoria of each eye, and finds that such deviations usually occur in the left handed or ambidextrous; or in those who were left handed or ambidextrous when young, but whose natural and instinctive manuality had been forced into dextrality to accord with popular opinion and action. Stevens accurately concludes that the lack of symmetry of ocular position associated with the cranial asymmetry, leads naturally to imperfect symmetry of action and to imperfections of binocular vision. He finally urges that ambidexterity be encouraged, a conclusion which, in our opinion, ought to be broadcasted with epigrams to the effect that "An unequal brain development makes an uneven mind" by which the idea may be popularized. Stevens made no observation of associated cranio-spinal alignment.

Verwey (Amer. Jour. of Ophthal., Sept. 1918, p. 677) reports the correction of heterophorias of low degree thru inclinations of the head.

De Kleijn (Archives neerlandaises de Physiologie, tome 11, p. 644, 1918) shows that in the rabbit, alterations in the posture of the neck, especially of the two upper segments, provoke and maintain definite posture of the eyeballs. From the experiments, accomplished by extirpating the otic labyrinths, Sherrington (Brain, London, Nov. 1918, p. 332-343), in a masterly deductive paper on "Observations on the Sensual Role of the Proprioceptive Nerve Supply of the Extrinsic Ocular Muscles," reaches the conclusions that "sensory impressions of the neck posture have probably to be added to the factors implicated in visual imperceptions of orientation as regards verticality and inclinations thereto," the other factors concerned in spatial orientation being; 1, the retinal proprioceptive; 2, the muscular sense derived from the proprioceptive nerve supply of the extrinsic ocular muscles; and 3, otic labyrinthism. Sherrington emphasizes the fact that spatial perceptions are by no means purely visual but are rather "visuo-musculo-labyrinthine," the afferent nerve fibers in the extrinsic ocu-

lar muscles yielding sensory impressions which are the basis of perception of postures and movements and which aid the proprioceptive nerves of the rest of the body, and especially those of the "gravitational labyrinth" in registering the attitude of the whole body and its relation or orientation to the vertical.

The logical practical deduction from Sherrington's work, which we feel justified in making in view of the abundance of our clinical proof, is that when one leg of this proprioceptive quadrangle is defective the others take up the increased burden of maintaining or attempting to maintain normal spatial orientation, or yield under the added effort. Thus an altered state of the muscles supporting the shoulder-girdle, neck and head, by deviating the head from verticality, may produce an altered static state of the extrinsic muscles of the eyeball, which causes altered muscular sensation in maintaining the eyeballs in their new postures. We believe that this altered sensation may evidence itself in any leg of the quadrangle by symptoms such as actual visual (retinal) tire, muscular imbalance, or actual equilibrial (otic) disorder.

The stimuli which evoke compensatory muscular action and altered sensation in the extrinsic ocular muscles appear to be both gravitational and visual (retinal), and represent an attempt to keep the world right side up and in line with visual perspective realized as correct thru prior experiences. The converse deduction may explain the difficulties evoked by the correction of gross refractive defects for the first time late in life. Here both muscle sense and visual sense have long united in the assumption that their faulty muscle pulls and imperfect vision were normal and their reeducation to a realization of normal orientation is often impossible.

Returning to the question of the origin of many of these deviations from normal: The racial training which assumes, erroneously, that dextrality rather than the inborn state of ambidexterity is the correct state of man, causes the relative enlargement of the motor area in the left hemisphere. This occurs during the plastic years of the infantile period when there is no bar to the consequent enlargement of the left side of the cranium which, in being more capacious than the right, and heavier of content, leads to asymmetry of the orbits, of the face, of the position of the eyes in the orbits and of the muscular distribution and action, the last being partly the result of the orbital asymmetry and partly the result of faults of spinal and hence of general posture.

For purposes of skeletal mechanics the skull must be considered as a terminal vertebra whose unevenly distributed weight is superimposed upon the atlas and axis and to balance which there has commonly been developed a long total left lateral spinal curvature which is as normal to all dextrous individuals as the corresponding long right total postural curve is to the sinistrous. In scoliosis studies the more common of these curves, the "total left postural" or "functional" curvature has been considered merely as an uncompensated curve due to relaxation, habit, overweighting, etc.; whereas, in fact we have what should be classed as a right cranio-cervical, left dorso-lumbar curvature, in strict orthopedic nomenclature.

Where there is bodily symmetry, or where all the forces making for asymmetry balance, the result is a vertical orthophoria, it being assumed in this entire consideration that no pathologic conditions as nasal sinus disease and no truly congenital anomalies exist to complicate the situation.

The lateral muscular balance we consider in the main the result of cranial, orbital and facial asymmetry as affecting the relative positions and musculature of the eyes and there is no doubt, from our demonstrations of complete ocular muscular readjustments to normal of lateral imbalances following spinal realignment, that cranial posture with regard to verticality, whether purely of spinal or of cranial origin, or the product of both, is the

activating factor in this, as in most ocular imbalance.

The relation of the shoulder-girdle to these problems is both close and interesting. The shoulder-girdle may be considered for purposes of the mechanics involved, as being slung from the neck and occiput by the trapezius and the deeper muscles, these muscles fixing the girdle in all finely coordinated work of the hands and arms, fixing the neck during all visual concentration, and being concerned in the sensory impressions of neck posture as regards to verticality. In the dextrous the greater weight of the right shoulder and arm causes this to sag, drooping the right side of the shoulder-girdle. The left shoulder rises correspondingly, while the head tilts or rotates (uncomplicated tilting is almost unknown) to produce a left hyperphoria or, if the tilting exactly compensates for the shoulder-girdle alteration, a vertical orthophoria. Hence the vertical ocular balance must be considered the product of the cranio-spinal curves and the shoulder-girdle position, according to the presence and degree of dextrality or sinistrality.

Other factors modify or complicate this common relation such as the faulty head postures which are beyond question the result of intrinsic heterophorias, if such a term may be coined to identify those due to muscular defects inherent in the position, distribution and action of the extrinsic ocular muscles by virtue of congenital or occupational faults, as opposed to the heterophorias which are demonstrably the result of original faults of skeletal posture. Among such skeletal changes we find those due to unilateral leg deformities and faults in pelvic alignment, and the various spinal deformities associated with faulty postural habits or the results of spinal pathology. In not every such case, however, are ocular anomalies found, as in the case of a woman of 47 with tubercular disease of the right hip dating from childhood, who wore a shoe raised two inches, but whose spinal curvature caused by the unequal length of the legs, was fully compensated by this shoe, by other curves above and by a head tilt which yielded a vertical and lateral orthophoria as the sum of all the forces.

In a large series of orthopedic cases under treatment, correct shoeing, corseting, bracing, massage, spinal manipulation, hydrotherapy, head suspension and gymnastics, led in a few months to several years, to a correction or beneficial modification of low degrees of muscle imbalance of all sorts, as well as to a lessening of astigmatism in some cases and to its complete cure in five.

The largest class of patients whose symptoms have previously been most distressing and most discouraging, because hitherto almost unrelievable, is that showing from 2 to 6 degrees of exophoria at distance, exophoria for near of from 9 to over 20 and usually variable, adduction equal to or often less than abduction, frontal, suboccipital and nuchal aching, provoked by close work and usually worse the following day, soreness at various points along the spine and with an increase in general nervous symptoms which has long since, unhappily, placed this large and important group of cases among the psychasthenics. Some of these cases have little or no refractive error, tho the majority show compound hyperopic astigmatism of moderate to considerable degree. Excluding amblyopia ex anopsia and visual disparity due to accidents, the right eye is, for the most part, the fixing eye both for distance and for near, the left eye diverges when test objects are brought near, the left eye is the higher, and its axis is tilted (cyclophoria, or the positive declination of Stevens), all of these being in line with the observations previously noted in connection with structural faults of the left orbit, of the musculature of the left eye and of general cranio-spinal asymmetry. A careful orthopedic examination shows that, with hardly an exception, these cases occur in connection with abnormal spinal twists and rotations, especially cervico-thoracic, with irregular and painful impingements of normal or of abnormally broad lateral processes, with overlapping impingements of

the posterior spinous processes in cervical lordosis, with arthritic enlargements of the articulations, fibrositis and periarticular thickenings due to ligamentous strain and trauma, cervical ribs, etc. Nearly all of these cases show muscular spasm and soreness, over the points of muscular and ligamentous insertion which are being unduly stretched as the effect of faulty skeletal alignment. A common fault is the lateral bending with rotation which occurs in scoliosis, where lateral and antero-posterior deviations of the shoulder-girdle exist with so much stretching of the brachial plexus as to cause brachial pain and incorrectly termed "brachial neuritis." The ocular disturbance so often associated is probably partly due to the reflex effect continuously produced in the cervical sympathetic.

In most of these cases the true relation between cause and effect is clearly shown by the more or less prompt relief to nervous, spinal and ocular symptoms which follows corrective orthopedic measures. In many cases where the abduction is weak the relief is distinctly accelerated by appropriate prism exercises, fixation exercises for improving the near balance, graduated reading and careful visual hygiene. In a few cases complete relief has not been obtained from these corrective measures. Possibly here the general postural asymmetry is excessive, and the uneven cranial weight and the uneven shoulder weight and action combine with occupational habits to maintain the postural fault to a degree.

Two practical points of ocular hygiene arise from this investigation: 1. In the cases which develop symptoms referred to the neck on close ocular fixation, attention should be given to correct seating, and to such cranio-cervical support and consequent relaxation that contraction of the erector spinae group cannot be maintained stiffly or, at least can be minimized. 2. In those cases where occupation demands ocular fixation combined with intense shoulder-girdle fixation, such as in sewing, reading and typing and especially when without arm support, the symptoms are often induced more by the weight of the hands, forearms and arms dragging upon the trapezius and keeping it contracted, than by the process of shoulder-girdle fixation alone. Here again the relief can be obtained by relaxation gained by correct seating, correct posture, by voluntary relaxation of the back and neck and especially by providing chairs with arms to relieve the shoulder-girdle of the pendant weight. Herein also lies the great value of the reading stand or rack which allows complete shoulder-girdle relaxation and permits the reader, as well, to assume a completely relaxed posture of head and spine.

The writer presents this elementary work, with all of its obvious imperfections, in the belief that a new point of attack and a means of prevention are shown against conditions, the persistence of which has been a source of discredit to ophthalmology, no less than to medicine as a whole.

Finally, the assistance and inspiration of Dr. Charles L. Lowman in this work are hereby acknowledged.

Conclusions: 1. We have established the first practical therapeutic connection, if not the first postural connection, between cranial asymmetry and spinal curvature.

2. We have made the first demonstrations that the common faults of head position, hitherto ascribed solely to faults of action and distribution of the extrinsic ocular muscles, often may be due to structural skeletal faults original in the lower extremities or spine; which affect the eyes thru their influence upon head posture, as well as thru their effect upon the cilio-spinal sympathetic center and the sympathetic pathways.

3. For the purpose of skeletal mechanics the head must be considered as a great terminal vertebra which assumes compensatory postures in the case of postural defects original in the extremities and spine, and gravitational postures due to its own imbalance on the spine, unless fully balanced by compensatory spinal curves.

4. Excluding conditions orginating from diseases, the basic skeletal faults

deemed responsible for many functional defects in the eyes and nose and, for much ocular and cranial pathology, are those arising from asymmetry of the cranium in connection with the racial prevalence of right handedness and the less common left handedness. From this asymmetry spring orbital distortions, and alterations in the positions, muscular distribution and muscular actions of the eyes, the left eye being mainly affected thru its proximity to the larger left cerebral hemisphere and the large left cranial fossae, and left hyperphoria, cyclophoria and left adductor weakness being the common muscular defects. From this common origin come also asymmetry of the facial bones, of the shape, position and ease of drainage of the nasal sinuses, and faults of the bony and cartilaginous septum, of the hard palate, the jaws and teeth.

5. To balance the unsymmetrically placed weight of the head on the spine long, lateral, compensatory curves of the spine are developed. These are exaggerated or further complicated by the effect of dextrality or of sinistrality in uncompensated shoulder-girdle deviations, which induce further changes in the posture of the head, thus neutralizing or exaggerating the cranial posture which would otherwise have resulted.

6. These faults of cranial posture influence the proprioceptive functions of the extrinsic ocular muscles, the retina and the muscles of the neck, and undoubtedly put more strain upon the labyrinthine mechanism in their efforts to readjust the ocular position with regard to verticality, or spatial orientation.

7. Stabilization of the head on the neck and shoulders is almost as essential to all intense and prolonged ocular fixation as the more limited action of the extrinsic ocular muscles. Stabilization of the shoulder-girdle is equally an essential, when finely coordinated manual work is the object of the ocular attention. Strains of this stabilizing system thru its overuse, and especially in the presence of spinal faults and uncompensated shoulder-girdle deviations, produce the distressing suboccipital, cervical and brachial symptoms incident to reading and to many occupations.

8. Severe ocular imbalance is found more commonly among cases which are primarily orthopedic than among average eye cases. Cranio-spinal postural defects are found almost uniformly in the eye cases complaining of suboccipital and nuchal aching and are, in the main, capable of relief or cure by methods of relaxation and by appropriate orthopedic and ophthalmic procedure. As a result of such treatment we have noted the lessening and disappearance of ocular muscle imbalance and, in a few cases, the lessening or disappearance of corneal astigmatism. (Our original investigation was limited to the relation of postural and eye-muscle defects; and it is likely that complete comparisons of the corneal astigmatism before and after alignment would have given a much higher number showing astigmatic changes.)

9. The logical applications of our work to preventative medicine are, (a) Ambidexterity must be insisted upon during the infantile period and the plastic, developmental years. This will produce not only the symmetric development of the cerebral hemispheres, but is the means of symmetric development of the cranium and of the superficial and deep components of the face. In this way developmental malpositions of the orbits, the eyes, the nasal cavities, jaws, teeth and spine will be prevented and the pathology which has its foundation in these early defects will be avoided.

(b) The prevention of ocular faults resulting from faulty spinal alignment lies, obviously, in the early recognition of the spinal defects by the pediatrist and by those responsible for our school hygiene, and in their cure in youth by the orthopedic surgeon.

THE CONTROL OF TRACHOMA AMONG THE ALIEN LABOR COMPANIES OF THE BRITISH AND AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

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As Lieut.-Col. and Assistant Ophthalmic Consultant of the American Expeditionary Forces, Dr. Derby had to deal with the problem of trachoma. He here describes the classification, segregation, and treatment of the infected men. Presented to the Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, June 11th, 1919.

Civilian labor was employed to a very considerable extent in France by the French, British and American forces. In many instances, these laborers were drawn from races in which trachoma is a common disease, and a large number of the individual laborers were themselves infected.

The history of the spread of trachoma among the armies of the various nations, before proper methods of control were in force, is well known. A few figures taken from Eason's article read at the 1918 meeting of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom may be given here. On the invalid list of the British Army during 1818 were more than 5,000 soldiers rendered blind by trachoma. From 1813 to 1817, from 20,000 to 30,000 men of the Prussian Army were affected. From 1816 to 1839, over 76,000 men in the Russian Army were trachomatous. A Belgian Army was disbanded because the disease was so prevalent and spread infection thereby thruout the civilian population.

The introduction of alien labor companies into France, in some of which trachoma was prevalent, brought a certain amount of danger to the civilian population and to the armies themselves. It was my fortune, while stationed with the B. E. F., in 1917 and part of 1918, to have an opportunity to study the British system of trachoma control and to take a small part in some of their work. Later, the task of inspecting the labor companies in the American Expeditionary Forces for trachoma was assigned to me, and as our plans for this work were modeled entirely on the system so admirably carried out by the British, I may be permitted to give a rather full description of their work.

BRITISH EXPEDITIONARY FORCES.

In the spring of 1917, the disease was noted among the Egyptians and Chinese to a considerable extent, and it was decided, after a consultation held between Colonel W. T. Lister and Major J. F. Cunningham of the Ophthalmic Consulting Service with the various army authorities interested, that a complete examination of these nationalities should be made. Orders were immediately sent out to the effect that "no cases with definite trachoma granulations or acute conjunctivitis be allowed to embark from Egypt or China or disembark in this country." Of several thousand Egyptians it was found that 19 per cent had active trachoma, and a serious problem arose as to the handling of them. They had been enlisted in groups in Egypt, each group under its own headman, and they could not be separated from him. Luckily, their stay in France was to be a short one, and therefore the measures employed in general were segregation, disinfection and treatment in each company.

The main problem was among the Chinese, for they came to stay and in large numbers,—over 100,000. There was some difficulty at first, as companies had been sent out in which a certain number of trachoma and conjunctivitis cases were mixed in with the clean men. As time went on, however, and the system became established, it was possible to remove the infected ones from these companies and to replace them.

Under the energetic guidance of Colonel Lister, the Ophthalmic Con-

sultant, and of Major J. F. Cunningham, a most excellent system was established and began to work in July, 1917. On the arrival of each shipload of men at Chinese headquarters, in addition to a general examination each man had to have his lids turned and inspected. These inspections were carried out by men familiar with the disease. If the lids were healthy and there was no conjunctivitis, the man was placed in a clean or "X Company." When conjunctivitis was discovered and no evidence of trachoma, the man owing to the difficulties of obtaining coolies entirely free from the disease, a certain number of trachomatous cases came over with practically every shipment, tho the number showed a very satisfactory diminution as time went on. It was impossible to hold clean men at headquarters for a sufficient length of time to rule out contagion, and therefore it was to be expected that trachoma would appear from time to time in the clean companies, as it did, since all these men were contact cases.



Fig. 1. Labor company in France drawn up for inspection.

was placed in a conjunctivitis or "Y Company." Trachoma cases were put in trachoma or "Z Companies." Doubtful cases of trachoma were usually placed in the "Y Companies." These labor companies were usually formed of 500 men, and were sent out from headquarters to the various areas where labor was required.

Clean companies, under medical officers without ophthalmic experience, could be sent anywhere, so long as provision was made for occasional inspections by ophthalmic specialists. These inspections were necessary, for although directions had been sent to China not to embark infected men, yet, The Y and Z cases were sent to places designated as "Trachoma Treatment Centers," where they were under the supervision and care of an ophthalmologist.

Examination carried out at Chinese Headquarters over a period of nine months showed that 5.04 per cent of the Chinese arriving had active trachoma, while 13.49 per cent had conjunctivitis, and many of these latter were well on their way to recovery from treatment received before they were sent out, and it was possible to place them in clean companies. The trachoma figures did not include a number of the early companies in

which the percentage of disease was large. Colonel Lister's figures in a report sent in a few months ago show, among 100,000 Chinese, approximately 8,500 cases of acute infectious trachoma and 5,500 cases of suspicious conjunctivitis.

Inspections of companies in the field were carried out by Colonel Lister and his assistants at frequent intervals, care being taken to examine the men at a time when it would interfere with labor as little as possible. Owing to the central location of Colonel Lister's headquarters (Boulogne) in relation to the British front, it was possible to examine a number of companies on a single day if the schedule was well planned. The Chinese were lined up in three or four files, according to whether three or four officers were to make the inspection, and came up in turn for the examination. Behind the examining officers sat the recorder at a table. Clean cases were immediately passed. If a conjunctivitis or trachoma case was detected, the man was detained by a non-commissioned officer, his number ascertained from his identity disk or wrist band, and it was recorded in the appropriate column of the recorder's book. The number examined was also recorded, so that there was a permanent record of all cases of disease and the men could be transferred to their proper companies. One copy of the record was left with the company. Under the system adopted, these examinations were carried out with great speed. With three medical officers examining 500 men could be gone over in 25 to 30 minutes.



Fig. 2. Method of inspecting the eyes for trachoma, four officers inspecting, recorder taking number of man found infected.

TREATMENT—As the Chinaman is prone to develop conjunctivitis, especially if working in a dusty atmosphere, Coloned Lister instituted the so-called "Universal Drops" treatment for the clean companies. This consisted in dropping a solution of zinc sulphat and boric acid into the eyes of each man once a day, preferably after returning from work. The men were taught to squat down in two long rows facing each other and to draw down the lower lids with the fingers. A Chinese medical orderly passed down in front of each one and instilled the drops. He was assisted by a man who passed behind the row and steadied the head

of each individual. As each row was treated, it was replaced by another, and the whole company was finished in about twenty minutes. The milder cases in the Conjunctivitis (Y) Companies were treated in the same way. In severe cases the lids were painted with silver nitrat or protargol.

Trachoma (Z) Companies had the treatment appropriate for each case—expression, silver nitrat, or the copper stick. Corneal ulcers were treated as in civil practice. An important factor in the limitation of the spread of this disease was regular sterilization of the Chinaman's towel twice a week.

By the procedure described it was not expected that these laborers would be cured of their trachoma, but it was expected that the spread of the disease would be limited, and that their working efficiency would be raised to the highest point practicable. I believe that these ends were accomplished. Trachoma if untreated leads to a loss of working power.

To quote from Colonel Lister's report: "The first examination of two (of the earlier) companies revealed 12 cases in one and 15 in the other. Owing to the importance of the disease not being recognized by the authorities, the treatment advised was not carried out and the notified cases of trachoma were not moved. In eight week's time there were 59 cases in one company and 81 in the other."

"A trachoma company was sent up to an army area for about six weeks and was untreated. At the end of this time the average number of men off duty daily for eye trouble was 30, and 15 men had been sent down to Headquarters as unfit to work."

This last company was sent down to the Base and was put under the treatment of Captain Hine, Ophthalmic Specialist at Camiers, with whom I saw them in October, 1917. Out of 588 men, 68 needed expression. From 30 off duty daily in October, the number fell under proper treatment to 7 in December and 2 in January. In two other companies the number off duty fell in four months from twenty-five to none.

No case came to notice of the disease having spread either to the civilian population or to troops. The Controller of Labor has stated that the men off duty in the affected companies was no greater than in the unaffected com-



Fig. 3. Men lined up to receive treatment for conjunctivitis and trachoma.

panies. Not more than two or three patients a month were sent back to Chinese Headquarters as unfit to work.

A system of ophthalmic reports was instituted giving the essential facts as to eye disease in each company, including the number of men off duty daily for eye disease. By a glance at these cards it was possible to see which companies were in need of attention. A system was also instituted by which



Fig 4. Method of instilling drops while assistant steadies the head.

the various areas of the British Expeditionary Force were divided so that sufficient inspections could be made.

American Expeditionary Forces.—In July, 1918 the Division of Ophthalmology of the American Expeditionary Force was asked by the Medical Division of the Labor Bureau to make an inspection of the administrative labor companies, with a view to ascertaining the amount of trachoma existing and to suggest any necesary measures for its control. This duty was assigned to me by Leuitenant-Colonel Greenwood the Senior Ophthalmic Consultant. A conference was held in Paris with Major W. H. Honor, the Chief of the Medical Division of the Labor Bureau, who, like myself, had served with the British Expeditionary Force and was familiar with the British trachoma problem and the way in which it had been handled. We agreed that our work should be carried out along the same general lines, but adapted to the special conditions which existed in the American Expeditionary Force.

We had in the neighborhood of 180 companies to be inspected, scattered over the whole area of France occupied by the American Expeditionary Force, from the aerodromes close to the front, back to Bordeaux and the other Base Ports. The companies were all taken over from the French, who organized them, and were all inspected by the French for contagious eye disease at

the various centers at which they were gathered together. Their disciplinary control was in the hands of the French, a fact which created difficulty in a number of instances. Racially, they could be divided into Chinese, Indo-Chinese, North Africans and mixed. The North Africans were composed of several different races—Moroccans, Algerians, Tunisians, etc. There were French Companies, Spanish Companies, many Portugese and other nationalities, but these for convenience we classified as mixed.

The work of inspecting the companies in the advance zone began on August 7. In general, the companies were notified several days in advance that an inspection would be made at a certain hour. The hour was chosen so as to interfere as little as possible with the labor of the company. In some cases the companies were examined on Saturady afternoon after working hours, and in some cases on Sundays. In certain instances, inspections were held before the men went to work or after returning from work,



Fig. 5. Method of watching progress of infected cases.

Owing to the pressure of the other duties, it was impossible for me to devote a continuous period to this survey, and the examinations were spread over a period of four months. The companies in the advance zone were covered by short trips from the Medical Consultants' Headquarters at Neufchateau, while those in the intermediate and base sections were covered by a special tour beginning on October 10 and ending November 10.

Our companies were small, sometimes not more than 50 men and never more than 300. They were very widely scattered and engaged on all sorts of projects.

during the period when the light of the summer season permitted. In the majority of cases, the work was done either just before or after the noon meal. There was no uniform schedule of labor for these companies. Some did not work the latter part of Saturday afternoon and some did not work on Sunday, and it was difficult to hold them for examination outside of their working hours. Inspections were, (in all but two instances) carried out by me; usually with one assistant, sometimes more.

The technic of the examination was that used by the British, already described. A record was made of the

individual numbers of the men affected. A copy of this record was left with the company, a copy was sent to the Medical Division of the Labor Bureau, and a copy filed in the Consultants' office. Thus, at the end of the inspection we had a record of all the diseased cases found at the time of the examination.

Cases were classified as Z, or trachoma, only when the diagnosis was evident. All doubtful cases were classed as Y, or conjunctivitis. In the Y class it was attempted to put only doubtful cases of trachoma and cases of conjunctivitis with secretion which appeared to be contagious. During the examinations, quite a number of cases of old trachoma, noncontagious, with smooth conjuntiva and old scars were encountered. These were passed as being harmless. The largest number of this group appeared among the North Africans. A number of eye conditions other than conjunctivitis were discovered and their treatment provided for.



Fig. 6. Men bringing their towels for disinfection.

Our figures show that 12,461 laborers were examined; and that among them were 1,618 cases of conjunctivitis, 13 per cent; and 261 cases of trachoma, 2 per cent. If we separate the nationalities we find:

1. Northern Chinese, 4,958 examined; 1,090 with conjunctivitis, 21 per cent; and 160 with trachoma, 3.2 per cent.

2. Indo-Chinese, 1,795 examined; 284 with conjunctivitis, 16 per cent; and 44 with trachoma, 2.4 per cent.

3. North Africans, 1,291 examined; 51 with conjunctivitis, 4 per cent; and 18 with trachoma, 1.5 per cent.

4. Mixed, 4,417 examined; 193 with conjunctivitis, 4.3 per cent; and 39 with trachoma, 0.9 per cent.

As noted before, the North Africans showed a large percentage of healed trachoma.

Our percentage of trachoma among the Northern Chinese (3.2 per cent) is much lower than that found at first by the British (8.5 per cent), but compares well with their later shipments. This may be accounted for by the fact that a number of our Chinese companies examined had already been gone over and the cases of trachoma weeded out. Several of the companies that had been previously weeded out, however,

showed a number of fresh cases of trachoma and a considerable amount of conjunctivitis. As a rule, the trachoma seen among our Chinese was in an early stage. In very few cases was it disabling.

As it was not possible in the beginning to follow the British lead and establish conjunctivitis and trachoma companies for the diseased eyes, it was decided temporarily to look after them in each company, as no other course remained open to us under the circumstances. A circular was therefore drawn up and sent out to every company by the Labor Bureau describing the purpose of the examination and the various measures to be employed. After the examination of each company, or of each group of companies when more than one were in the same area, the Commanders of companies, the Medical Officers responsible for them, and when possible the Ophthalmic Specialist attached to the nearest hospital, were gathered together and the situation was thoroly discussed and instructions given for the isolation and treatment of the Y and Z groups.

In many instances, the companies were in fairly close proximity to a Base or Camp Hospital at which there was an ophthalmologist stationed. He was informed of the policy decided on, and the general direction of the eye situation was intrusted to him. Active cases of trachoma were treated by him, as were those of the conjunctivitis group which needed special treatment.

A report was made to the Chief Surgeon of the American Expeditionary Forces, and to the Labor Bureau, giving in detail the figures of the various companies and the following recommendations were made:

"Trachoma cases should be isolated in special companies. These companies should be worked in some hospital area where they can be under the supervision and care of the Ophthalmic Specialist. The Director of the Labor Bureau has already ordered the formation of a trachoma company at a hospital center." Until these trachoma or Z cases could be transferred to such a company, instructions were given to include them with the Y or conjunctivitis cases.

"Conjunctivitis cases (Y) should also be put in special companies and given appropriate treatment. Until this can be carried out, the following course should be adopted, and the Commanding Officers of all companies have been instructed in the procedure. The men should be isolated in a separate barracks or part of a barracks. They should, as far as possible, wash separately, eat separately and work separately from the clean men. Their towels should be boiled for thirty minutes twice a week, as should handkerchief when in use. Local treatment consists in the administration of zinc sulphat drops (.3 per cent) twice a day. This treatment may and should be carried out without interfering with labor."

A detailed description of the British system of using the "Universal Drops" was then given as already quoted.

"The Y, or Conjunctivitis cases, should be examined by an Ophthalmic Specialist every three weeks. In six weeks, it should be possible to tell which of the suspicious cases are in all probability trachoma, and measures taken accordingly. Where trachoma has existed in a company, a certain number of the X, or clean, men will later develop it, and these must be carefully watched for. Unfortunately, labor companies move so frequently that arrangements for the supervision of the Y cases will break down in many instances under this system. If alien labor companies, especially Chinese, are to be employed for any long period of time by the American Expeditionary Forces, some provision for the formation of Y companies should be made."

"Clean (X) Companies.—The Medical Officer in charge of X Companies should be on the constant lookout for fresh cases of eye disease. If these cases do not respond to treatment in a short period of time, the advice of the nearest Ophthalmologist should be sought."

It should be remembered, in con-

sidering the trachoma problem, that the ordinary methods of handling trachoma in civil life do not apply here. We were in France to help win the war, and it was our duty to help the labor authorities by every means in our power by getting every possible ounce of work out of the labor companies. The British had shown conclusively that under a well organized system the disease could be controlled and labor rendered more, rather than less, efficient. Moreover, in the busy times we faced it was impossible to occupy hospital beds with any considerable number of trachoma cases. Rather than do this, the authorities preferred to send the laborers home, and in but few instances was this necessary.

A comparatively small number of cases of trachoma was found among our soldiers in France, and the proposal was made by the Senior Ophthalmic Consultant to the Chief Surgeon's Office that all such cases be segregated in a hospital area where they could have proper treatment and could be used as labor. On the ground that there were not enough of them to make this procedure worth while, this suggestion was not acted on, and they were held for treatment in the various hospitals.

In a large part of the inspection Lieutenant-Colonel Nelson M. Black, M. C., was associated with me and was of the greatest assistance. At times when Lieutenant-Colonel Black was not available. I was very efficiently aided by Lt. H. B. Chandler, M. C.; Captain Ralph Hatch, M. C.; Lt. R. J. Sprowl, M. C.; Captain Lloyd Whitham, M. C.; Captain C. F. Jump, M. C.; Major George W. Jean, M. C. At all times the assistance and cooperation of the Medical Division of the Labor Bureau was given without stint.

I feel strongly that the Ophthalmic Service of the American Expeditionary Forces owes a very large debt of gratitude to the British Service, not only in the special line of trachoma, but in many other ways. Many features of the admirable system developed by Colonel W. T. Lister, ably seconded by Major J. F. Cunningham, were taken over by us and added greatly to the development of our service.

The following circular was issued by the labor bureau for the instruction of their officers and personnel:

AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

Labor Bureau, A. S. C.,
Office of Surgeon,
Medical Division, A. P. O. 717,
France, Oct. 21, 1918.

Circular No. 4.

To Medical Officers Assigned to Administrative Labor Companies.
(Through Commanding Officers.)

1. A survey is now being made of the Administrative Labor Companies, A. S. C., under the direction of the Medical Division, Labor Bureau, by the authority of the Chief Surgeon American Expeditionary Forces, as described in Circular No. 2, Medical Division, Labor Bureau, Aug. 7, 1918. The purpose of this survey is to determine the extent of contagious eye diseases with the view of preventing infection and promoting efficiency.

2. Administrative Labor Companies, especially those composed of Chinese and Indo-Chinese, are frequently liable to two contagious eye diseases, Conjunctivitis (pink eyes), often in its chronic form, and Trachoma.

Conjunctivitis is a contagious eye disease which spreads rapidly by contact. It is, however, readily curable under proper treatment, and suitable precautions will limit its spread.

Trachoma is likewise contagious; but unlike conjunctivitis, it is very resistant to treatment and in its more severe forms produces irreparable damage to the eyes and may interfere seriously with the efficiency of laborers infected. Certain early cases of trachoma are impossible to distinguish from chronic conjunctivitis until they have been for some time under observation. The spread of trachoma may be checked by suitable measures. Proper treatment will arrest its progress.

Contagion. Both diseases are con-

veyed from one individual to another by direct contact with secretion from the affected eyes, by personal contact, by infected towels and by the use of the same wash basins. Cleanliness is the greatest enemy of these diseases.

Classification. The present survey will divide the laborers of each company into three classes:

Class X comprises the individuals with clean eyes.

Class Y comprises laborers with conjunctivitis. A few of these may later show trachoma.

Class Z—Trachoma cases.

3. As a *Preventive* measure in all labor companies, each man should have his individual towel and soap. Towels should be boiled for thirty minutes twice a week. The same should apply to handkerchiefs.

Class Y should be isolated so far as possible without interfering with their labor. They should live in a separate hut from Class X, or, at least, a portion of a hut should be partitioned off for their use. They should wash separately and eat separately from Class X, and should work in a squad by themselves as far as is possible.

Local treatment of Class Y need in no way interfere with their labor. An aqueous solution containing one-third of one per cent Zinc Sulphate and two percent Boric Acid is used.

This treatment is best carried out in the following manner: At a suitable time before going to work and after returning from it, Class Y cases report for treatment. They squat down on the ground in one or more lines, pull down their lower lids and look upward. The Medical Orderly passes along the lines with an assistant. The assistant, who stands behind the laborer, steadies the head with his hands, the Medical Orderly in front instills with a dropper one or two drops of the Zinc Sulphate solution which he carries in a small glass. This procedure may be carried out easily without having the dropper come in contact with the eye that is being treated. An orderly may be quickly trained in this work. By this method, up to one hundred cases may be treated in fifteen minutes. After the application of Zinc Sulphate, the eyes will smart for from one to five minutes, but not longer.

4. Z *Cases* will be reported by number to the Medical Division, Labor Bureau, A. P. O. 717. Orders will be issued transferring them to special trachoma companies. During the interval between the discovery of trachoma Z cases and their removal, they will be subject to the same precautions and treatment as pertains to Class Y. If due precautions, as outlined, are observed, laborers infected with conjunctivitis, X cases, and trachoma, Z cases, may be handled without danger of infection to other laborers or troops.

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GRANULOMA OF THE CORNEA

M. Feingold, M.D.

NEW ORLEANS

With reports of two cases, this paper gives a critical review of the literature, and draws the conclusions it seems to justify. Read before the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, August 5, 1918.

Possibly no structure of the body has been the subject of so much study, clinically and especially experimentally, as, owing to its peculiarities, the cornea. But in spite of the many varieties of corneal affections described, and tho the process of healing of wounds of all kinds of this structure, has been studied and recorded minutely, one fails to find, even in the best and most modern textbooks, any mention of granuloma formation of the cornea. For this reason, the following cases seem to deserve recording, and a review of the few cases reported in the literature might not be amiss. This seems especially desirable since some of the case literature is not easily accessible and because the condition is generally placed among the tumors of the cornea instead of among the inflammations and their consequences.

Case 1.—H. J., colored, laborer, aged 56, applied at the Charity Hospital Eye Clinic, Nov. 9, 1917, stating that, three weeks before, muriatic acid had splashed into his eyes and that the right one was so badly injured by it that enucleation had to be done two weeks later. The conjunctiva of the eyeball appeared reddish white, the whole cornea grayish, and he could notice hand movements. Gradually a grayish-red soft granuloma 3 by 3 by 2 mm. appeared on the conjunctiva of the eyeball at the lower temporal limbus, and a similar flat one 3 by 1.5 mm. at the upper temporal limbus.

Dec. 6, 1917, the lower granuloma was seen riding on the limbus with its greatest portion on the cornea, while the smaller granuloma was entirely on the cornea near the upper limbus. The cornea appeared at first glimpse quite clear in the peripheral portion, but this was due only to invasion of superficial and deeper vessels from all sides; thru it, the iris could be guessed at. The central portion was whitish opaque and slightly depressed, with irregular surface. Light projection and color perception were good.

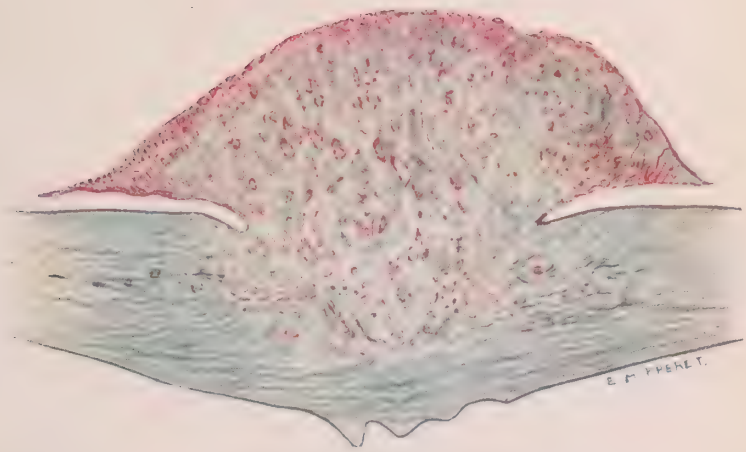
Later the upper granuloma moved 2 mm. from the limbus to the center getting smaller at the same time and appearing more red; the lower granuloma also grew smaller and more flat. The central area of the cornea became more bluish white and smaller, because encroached upon by the increasing ring of vascularization; the thickened grayish-red conjunctiva of the eyeball extended on to the cornea forming a false pterygium in several places. This was especially noticeable at the seat of the lower granuloma, which in the meantime had moved away from the limbus, leaving a narrow band of cornea between itself and the limbus. The upper nasal portion of the cornea cleared perceptibly and the patient could see faces.

Three months after the accident, the lower granuloma was smaller, triangular, and apparently pedunculated while the upper granuloma had entirely disappeared. During the further observation even the lower granuloma faded away gradually and the whole cornea cleared sufficiently so that, about May 1, 1918, patient could read 2-inch letters close to the eye. During the whole time the tension was carefully watched and always found to be below normal on palpation. Only once did the tension seem to be increased. Treatment consisted only in inspersion of ethyl-morphin hydrochlorid powder. See Fig. 1, Plate XI.

Case 2.—E. B., a farmer, aged 42, called at the Charity Hospital Eye Clinic, Sept. 29, 1915, because of inflammation of his right eye, which had begun when some unslacked lime got



CASE 1. GRANULOMAS OF THE SCLEROCOREA.



CASE 2. GRANULOMA OF CORNEA. MALLORYS CONNECTIVE TISSUE STAIN: X24.

into his eye three weeks before. The eye showed moderate ciliary injection; the corneal epithelium was markedly defective, the cornea itself diffusely nonsaturated, bluish, opaque with a deep seated, round, 3 mm. gray infiltration slightly below the center. There were 3 mm. of hypopon.

The hypopyon soon became absorbed but recurred several times. Gradually a small, soft, redish-gray tumor of granulation tissue appeared near the center of the cornea. Acetylsalicylic acid, ethyl-morphin hydrochlorid, argyrol, atropin, and physostigmin (eserin) were used to meet symptoms and indications. Repeated attacks of severe pain caused by increased intraocular tension finally necessitated enucleation which was done under local anesthesia, March 20, 1916. The eyeball was immediately placed in Zenker's solution, after hardening bisected in the equator and sectioned horizontally by Lee's dry celloidin method.

Histologic examination.—In the conjunctiva only a few plasma cells are seen, but the epithelial cells have a tendency to desquamation. The cornea is slightly pressed in toward the anterior chamber in the central part. This was apparently caused by the lid bulging the softened cornea in, when pressing on the projecting growth. The cornea is about 0.6 mm. thick in the periphery, somewhat thicker in the central portion. Here a mushroom-like growth is lying on the surface and is continuous with the corneal substance by its very short pedicle. The epithelium is missing on the whole corneal surface. At the limbus the epithelium of the conjunctiva projects for a short distance over the cornea, but is not in contact with it, forming a folded band which often folds back on itself toward the limbus. See Fig. 2, Plate XI.

But for an isolated, cell-like structure here and there, Bowman's membrane is entirely bare of epithelium. It is continuous over the whole surface of the cornea, except for about 0.98 mm. in the center corresponding to the pedicle of the growth. It is about 16 microns thick and seems to consist of two portions. The superficial one is about 3 microns thick and stains rather deeply with hematoxlyin and purplish with Mallory's connective tissue stain. The posterior portion stains more like the corneal substance. The anterior portion splinters off here and there to some extent from the underlying portion. Bowman's membrane, and to a slighter extent the adjoining lamellae of the cornea, contain numerous, small, amorphous and more crystalline, yellowish brown particles of different size (argyrol?). Bowman's membrane is everywhere in normal contact with the underlying parenchyma. In some sections, near the pedicle of the growth, masses staining intensely blue with hematoxlyin are seen between Bowman's membrane and the parenchyma and also in the spaces between the next three or four layers adjoining. These masses are fine and linear or more lumpy and often mask the corneal struture entirely (lime?). Numerous vessels pervade the whole cornea, lying mostly in the anterior two thirds. A few smaller vessels are immediately below Bowman's membrane. In the immediate neighborhood of all the vessels are seen cells, each with a long nucleus, staining deeper than the corneal cells, also an occasional eosinophil. The whole cornea is seemingly unaltered except that the fixed cells are evidently more numerous than normal. Higher magnification reveals some of these, at least, as possibly wandering cells, since their nuclei stain deeper blue and since two or three cells are at times seen in the same space. Except for the affected area, the cornea shows no differences in the arrangement and appearance as to color, etc., of the lamellae, in spite of the marked opacity in vivo.

The affected area is about 2.8 mm. in the largest diameter and is consequently larger than the defect in Bowman's membrane. It is roughly lenticular in cross section, that is, thickest in the center. It occupies the middle layers of the cornea, leaving the posterior fourth entirely free. Its edges are entirely in the deeper layers with comparatively unaffected corneal substance in front of it. Over the central

portion, on the other hand, corresponding to the defect in Bowman's membrane, this area extends even thru the anterior layers, and is here continuous with and forms the pedicle of the mushroom-like growth on the surface. In the affected area, the lamellae have lost their parallel arrangement, have changed direction, and have a tendency to bend forward into the pedicle. The lamellae are more widely separated and are possibly fewer in the center. The vessels are very numerous, especially near the pedicle. Between the separated lamellae and surrounding the blood vessels, numerous cells of the following types are found: (1) cells, each with a large, pale vesicular nucleus: endothelial and young connective tissue cells; the nucleus is often smaller and distorted by the surrounding tissue; (2) plasma cells; (3) polymorphonuclear leukocytes; (4) occasional eosinophilic leukocytes; (5) small, round cells, apparently lymphocytes; (6) cells in mitosis, most probably of the type mentioned in Group 1. The character and arrangement of the cells varies from place to place. Here the plasma cells prevail, there the polymorphonuclear leukocytes, etc.

The growth projects above the surface of the cornea about 0.93 mm. and is about 2.25 mm. in the greatest meridional diameter. It is button or mushroom-like, overlapping the cornea because it is bigger than the opening in Bowman's membrane, through which it is continuous with the corneal substance. Only in a small area does the growth appear more sloping on the surface and not overhanging. It is not covered by epithelium. On and near the surface, a network of fine fibers, arranged more or less parallel with it, is seen. These fibers have all the appearance of fibrin. Here they enclose an edematous area, there the network contains numerous leukocytes and traces of extravasated blood in other places. The skeleton of the growth is made up of more or less radially arranged fan-rib-like septums of connective tissue and possibly of some remnants of corneal tissue. Small and large vessels often showing bifurcations are very numerous. The vessels are arranged in a fanlike manner as in papilloma and near the surface are seen rather large sinus-like cross sections, filled with blood. The space between the connective tissues groundwork and the vessels is filed with cells of various character. They are all of the same nature as those of the affected area of the cornea, but are more numerous and the relative frequency is here different, the cells having large, pale, oval nuclei, and the leukocytes generally prevail. Plasma cells are also more often seen than in the cornea.

Behind the affected area more numerous nuclei are seen than in the balance of the cornea. The posterior surface of the cornea bulges somewhat toward the anterior chamber and shows undulations. These are due to wrinkling of Descemet's membrane which forms archlike projections into the chamber. There is no break in Descemet's membrane. These arch formations seem to be partly empty; partly they contain fine granular coagulum staining pink with eosin and partly some stratified tissue rich in nuclei, resembling the adjoining cornea.

Over the central part of the cornea, the endothelial cells are almost entirely missing; an occasional cell on the posterior surface of Descemet's membrane cannot positively be identified as such and resembles more a lymphoid cell. Only near the angles of the chamber are the endothelial cells forming a continuous layer, but are even here fewer than in the normal eye.

The anterior chamber is about 1 mm. deep in the center. The angle is perfectly free in most sections and the structures surrounding it are almost normal; in a few sections, a peripheral adhesion of the iris to the cornea measuring about 0.4 mm. is seen. The anterior chamber contains only a slight amount of granular, pinkish staining coagulum containing a few cells of lymphoid character.

A small focus of lymphoid cell infiltration is found in the iris root and a similar one near the sphincter. A small, broken-up posterior synechia exists in the pupillary margin. Ciliary body, choroid and

the other structures show nothing of interest. There is no glaucomatous cup.

NATURE OF THESE CASES.

From the description, it is quite clear that Case 2, showed the characteristic symptoms of corneal burns, not the subject of this paper, such as loosening and desquamation of the conjunctival epithelium, failure of the corneal epithelium to adhere, etc., together with a condition in the cornea, having all the histologic characteristics of a granuloma, which had developed in the anterior layer and on the surface near the center as a result of the destruction of the corneal tissue by lime. The clinical course of the first case makes it almost certain, in spite of the lacking histologic examination, that here also the growths were pure granulomas. These, tho ultimately situated on the cornea, had their beginning in the conjunctiva of the eyeball near the limbus. With the advancing clearing of the necrotic area, the granulomas advanced more toward the center of the cornea, shrinking in the periphery on account of the scar formation at the rear, until ultimately all the remaining granulomatous tissue was choked off by the scar formation and the accompanying reduction of the blood supply.

A search of the literature for cases of true granuloma of the cornea will have to exclude at the outset the formations of granuloma tissue as the result of tuberculosis and leprosy. These cases undoubtedly belong to a different class, as is already evidenced by the etiology. One cannot positively class with these cases Bock's reports of granuloma following parenchymatous keratitis, on account of our present view concerning syphilitic parenchymatous keratitis.

TYPES OF GRANULOMAS.

If we thus limit ourselves to the pure granulomas of the cornea, it is for practical reasons advisable to divide them into the following three groups:

1. Granuloma in the region of the cornea, the result of a prolapse of the iris following perforation; this might properly be called granuloma of the *pseudocornea.*

2. Granuloma of the cornea extending from the conjunctiva of the eyeball near the limbus after injuries, etc.; granuloma of the *sclerocornea.*

3. Granuloma of the cornea, developing away from the limbus and not the result of perforation; granuloma of the cornea proper.

1. It is evident that the cases of our first group cannot be classed as granulomas of the cornea, but they are here considered for purely external reasons only. While not very frequent, they are more often to be observed than the other two forms of granuloma. In our second case, a superficial examination gave one the impression of a granuloma of this kind, as depicted by Parsons, Fig. 103. In Blaskovics' case, to be mentioned later, this possibility was also considered. In this group belong the two cases of Sichel, his observations 205 and 206, since perforation of the cornea had occurred in both instances. The case of Schmidt-Rimpler was probably of the same kind. His patient, a young laborer, after getting lime in both eyes, had paracentesis done on the right cornea on account of hypopyon. After nine months the right cornea was entirely opaque, everywhere traversed by blood vessels and showing a thick button of granulation tissue.

Schaeche's case of a boy who developed panophthalmitis with perforation, after mortar injury six months before, also belongs here. Large, mushroom-like granulomas formed at the point of perforation.

The case represented by Pagenstecher and Genth on their Plate 12, Figures 3 and 5, may possibly be classed here.

Lawson's case of a cicatrix horn growing from the cornea, seems to be an unusual form of granulation tissue formation developing after corneal perforation.

2. Of the granulomas belonging in Groups 2 and 3 of the foregoing classifications, the textbooks make no mention whatsoever. The American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology contains

only meager reference to these conditions on pages 3436 and 5631. A good description by Wintersteiner with enumeration of the cases reported is found in the German Encyclopedia and may be repeated here: "As granulomas of the cornea have been described some few reddish, soft tissue-granulations growing to pea size which later become pedunculated and regressing and which developed after an ulcer, an injury, or a chronic inflammation." No mention of the condition is made in the French Encyclopedia.

The only other references to granuloma of the sclerocorneal type in the available American literature are found when Weeks, discussing granuloma pyogenicum of the lids, wonders whether the so-called granuloma of the cornea or of the sclerocorneal margin is not akin to it. The granuloma of the cornea has a tendency to recur, he says. He has examined two sclerocorneal tumors. In the same discussion, Jackson mentions a case of granuloma at the margin of the cornea, in existence six to eight weeks, having a purplish red surface; the edges reminded one of an epithelioma, but were perfectly soft.

In the discussion of burns of the eyeball by lime, Lewin and Guillery mention the following cases in which the granuloma formation began in the conjunctiva of the eyeball and advanced onto the cornea. (1) The cornea of a mason's helper, after mortar had splashed into his left eye, became covered with granulation tissue, reaching from the limbus almost to the center altho no ulceration had developed. (2) The case of Desmarres of a mason whose cornea after he had fallen into a lime pit became covered with a sarcomatous growth. (3) After getting lime into the right eye twenty-five days before, a boy showed mulberry excresences on the swollen conjunctiva and the vascularized limbus. Two months later, the excrescences covered the whole cornea. After three months, only a small point of the cornea was clear and the remainder was covered by an enormous granulomatous mass pedunculated at the base. (4) Gosart's case of a fleshy pterygium which partially covered the cornea.

In this group also belongs, without doubt, our first case.

Beierle reports a case belonging in this group of hypertrophy of the conjunctiva and granuloma on the otherwise intact cornea of a dog. He assumes injury of the cornea.

3. The most interesting group is formed by those cases in which the granuloma unquestionably originated in the cornea itself, away from the limbus, and did not follow perforation—only resulting from a destruction of corneal tissue, with or without the formation of an ulcer. It is for these cases alone for which the term granuloma of the cornea should be reserved. Search of the available literature discloses only the following cases.

Blaskovics' patient, a woman, aged 25, had recurrent eye inflammation with photophobia when a child. When 8 years old, she received an injury to the right eye and a white spot in the center of the cornea resulted from it. Four years before she came under observation, a red area appeared in the center of the spot and increased gradually. When seen by Blaskovics, the tumor was 10 by 11 mm. in diameter, 1 mm. thick, yellowish red and soft, its surface irregular. Granuloma from an iris prolapse was considered a possibility, but tumor of the cornea finally diagnosed. The examination of the enucleated eye revealed no bacteria. The cornea showed absence of the superficial layers in the center. The deeper layers were loosened. Near the growth the cornea was infiltrated with round cells and numerous vessels extended into it from the conjunctiva. Bowman's membrane was absent in the whole extent of the growth. A 1 mm. band of unaffected cornea extended all around the growth. It was divided by connective tissue septums, forming wide meshes. These contained homogeneous intercellular substance with small round cells, and the nuclei were often in mitosis. He considers it a case of typical granuloma of the cornea.

Blaskovics also quotes as true granu-

loma the three cases of Bock. In his first publication, Bock relates two cases of granuloma formation of the cornea among ninety-two cases of parenchymatous keratitis. The masses disappeared gradually and left dense opacities. His third case was that of a boy, aged 13, who had had parenchymatous keratitis of the right eye some time before and on whose left eye a growth developed during the four weeks previous to consultation. In the center of the opaque cornea, which showed deep vessels, a growth of 3 mm. was visible. It increased rapidly during the two weeks of observation and became constricted at the base. The excised growth showed the picture of a wound granuloma. Its pedicle was covered with one layer of epithelium. The condition is looked upon as the result of a circumscribed excessive accumulation of lymphoid cells which after breaking thru the lamellae in front of it, could grow unhindered. These cases are not mentioned in Lagrange's excellent work.

The case of Pagenstecher and Genth on their Plate 12, Figures 1 and 2, is an undoubted case of pure granuloma of the cornea proper, tho some misunderstanding has been created in the literature about it, owing to the use of the word sarcoma in the English translation of the German text. Its granulomatous character is also maintained by Lagrange and by Gayet, whom he quotes.

The granuloma in Raabe's case developed at the seat of a healing septic ulcer of the cornea which had been cauterized. The histologic examination showed granulation tissue.

Hirschberg and Ginsberg describe a large, prominent, coxcomb-like, grayish-red granulomatous tumor on the cornea of a girl of 9 having tuberculosis. The tumor showed granulation tissue with numerous leukocytes and areas of myxomatous tissue. It was not covered by epithelium.

A vascular pedunculated growth, developing rapidly after injury, was reported by Bargeton and thought to be possibly a sarcoma, but histologic examination confirmed the clinical diagnosis of botryomycosis. A similar diagnosis was made by Reihaus whose patient, a woman of 46, had much eye inflammation when a child, and whose left cornea showed a small white tumor beginning at the lower margin and extending into the pupillary area. The histologic examination of the excised tumor revealed it possibly to be the product of proliferating inflammation and certain small bodies found are interpreted as "hefa." Axenfeld, reviewing these two cases, says, "There is no proof that any of the cases were any different from what have been described in the literature as granulomas. Further investigation is necessary to determine the pathogenesis of these growths."

Our Case 2 agrees in all histologic essentials with the cases of Blaskovics, Bock, Pagenstecher and Genth, Raabe, Hirschberg and Ginsberg, etc., and is therefore, one of a pure granuloma of the cornea, of which histologic examination could be made.

Bajardi reports a pedunculated granuloma on the cornea of a rabbit, probably resulting from an ulcer. It was covered with epithelium. Gay found a pea-sized tumor on the cornea of a bitch, consisting of a granulation tissue.

It does not seem quite certain that the case of Adler is really a case of granulomas of the cornea although apparently classed as such by Lagrange. Strangely enough, this case does not seem to be reviewed in the contemporaneous German literature. A railroad employee, suffering from gradual diminution of sight with moderate local inflammation of the eyes for two years, showed gray, gelatinous granulations on each cornea, eighteen on the left and fewer on the right eye. The histologic examination revealed them to be a kind of miliary granuloma, consisting of corneal tissue covered by an epithelium much thicker than normal and suggesting those fibrous formations one sees especially on serous membranes following chronic inflammation. But in view of the peculiar histologic findings the bilateral arrangement. the multiplicity of the growths.

and finally because of the occupation of the patient it might be pardonable to think that the condition of each cornea was nothing else but a kind of hypertrophy of the corneal epithelium, as seen at times after recurring irritation, produced in this case by repeated foreign body injuries.

A number of cases are recorded in the literature under different names, such as fibroma, myxoma, sarcoma, etc., in which the condition described can without undue force be explained as some result of granuloma formation of the cornea either showing greater development of fibrous tissue, or showing changes of a myxomatous nature, etc. Some of them are undoubtedly only changes in a pseudocornea following perforation or destruction of the cornea. As such may be classed the cases of H. Adler, Benson Cases 1 and 2, Capellini, Falchi, Gallenga, Mitvalsky, Polignani, Qualino and Guaita, Rogman, Rumschewitsch, cases 1 and 2, Scott and Story, Silex, Simon, Szokalski, Zirm, etc. In this connection Parsons (264, 265) remarks: "No sharp line can be drawn between purely inflammatory conditions and many so-called growths . . . As to the embryonic spindle-celled type of sarcoma, it may be doubted whether some of them are not simple granulomata (granulation tissue)." Similar opinions are voiced by Lagrange, Blaskovics and Wintersteiner.

It is difficult to say where Stellwag's case is to be placed. The histologic examination, tho quite insufficient for classification, is not of such a character as to exclude the possibility of a granulomatous origin.

ETIOLOGY.

In connection with the question of etiology, one will have to consider two points: (1) Under what condition does granuloma arise in tissues and especially in the cornea? (2) Why did the destruction of corneal substance not lead to any secondary infection but only to the formation of granulomas?

On this point, Mallory says, "Healing by granulation is the repair of wounds where there is more or less loss of tissue which has to be filled in by new formation of cells. The injury is often excessive, much foreign material has to be removed."

It is interesting how well this description applies to all cases of granuloma of the cornea in which a good history of the origin exists. Burns of the cornea by lime or other chemicals will be followed by necrosis and the necrotic material will have to be cast off before repair can set in. The same thing will apply to destruction of the cornea by ulcers, vesicle formation, etc. If the corneal tissue has been destroyed by an inflammatory process, such as in parenchymatous keratitis, it need not lead to any loss of substance on the surface, resulting in an ulcer; the process of removal of the necrotic material and the details of repair will be essentially the same, and may, therefore, lead to granuloma formation. It is more difficult to explain how these cases with their long standing necrotic ulceration escape secondary infection and rapid destruction of the remaining cornea. It may possibly have to be ascribed only to a fortunate circumstance that the ever present pathogenic microorganism did not enter the tissues. After vascularization has taken place in the cornea, and even more so after the granulation tissue has begun to develop, the cornea becomes more proof against the attacks of bacteria. In this connection, it is interesting to remember the remarks of Weeks and Axenfeld quoted in the foregoing.

TREATMENT.

In the treatment of these cases, it will be good to bear in mind the continued danger of infection and therefore to limit one's self to as little manipulation as possible. Abscission of the granuloma may not be advisable, in view of the several reports of their recurrence, and especially so because such action may open an avenue for infection. It is best to await the absorption of the granuloma in consequence of the scar formation and the accompanying reduction of the blood supply. This plan was carried out in the first case reported.

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OPHTHALMO-THERAPEUTIC IGNORANCE REGARDING OPTIC ATROPHIES.

MARK J. SCHOENBERG, M. D.

NEW YORK.

This report is of a collective investigation regarding the current treatment of optic nerve atrophies among American ophthalmologists.

During the past few years the therapeutics of neurosyphilis has been enriched by the addition of one new drug and a new method of medication: salvarsan and intraspinal or intracranial injections.

Knowing the disappointing results obtained by ophthalmologists by their old routine method (mercury, iodids and strychnin), in treating syphilitic optic atrophies I made the attempt a few years ago to obtain a general idea about their experience and attitude regarding the treatment of this condition since the introduction of the salvarsan and spinal medication. I sent letters* of inquiry to several hundred

*With this occasion I wish to express my thanks for their frank and prompt reply. I am fully aware of the fact that we have to be very cautious in drawing conclusions from replies coming from an extreme variety of sources. But nobody can deny that an investigation of this sort shows us the general consensus of opinion and gives us a fair idea of how little 200 of the foremost men engaged in this specialty feel that they can accomplish with the present means of treating atrophic conditions of luetic nature of the visual pathways.

colleagues and received over 200 replies from ophthalmologists of large experience from all over the country.

(1) Are you obtaining better results in the treatment of progressive optic atrophy of luetic nature since the addition of salvarsan to our therapeutics?

To this question 56 ophthalmologists answered that they never used salvarsan; 106, that the results are worse or indifferent; 24 regard with favor the use of intravenous injections of salvarsan, but add that their experience is very limited.

(2) Do you use intraspinal injections in luetic atrophies? What results?

To this question 139 answered that they never used spinal injections; 4, that their experience is too limited to give any opinion; 23, that they have used this method with no success; 17 have used the spinal treatment in 1 or 2 cases and were favorably impressed.

As we see, the majority was unfavorably inclined towards the intravenous administration of salvarsan. As for the spinal treatment the state of affairs is still gloomier: The method had not even been given a trial by most ophthalmologists.

This investigation will surely raise in the minds of the readers a number of objections and comments. Nothing can be answered to the objection (if they have any) of those who never tried salvarsan under any form or method. No definite conclusion can be drawn even from the statement of those who say that the results (in cases treated by intravenous salvarsan injections) are indifferent or bad, be cause: (a) In the replies received the confusion is frequently made between the neuritic and taboparetic type of optic atrophies; (b) Nothing is mentioned about the dosage and total amount of salvarsan, frequency of administration, duration of treatment, etc. Many have given up the treatment after 1 or 2 injections, which does not prove anything.

Regarding the lack of experience with the intraspinal treatment of 143 out of 183 ophthalmologists we have the impression that it is due to the fact that this method is considered by our confréres either very difficult, dangerous or ineffective. The question of efficacy of spinal treatment and intravenous injections of salvarsan will be discussed more fully in another paper. The statement of those who have used the spinal treatment without beneficial results cannot be accepted as first class evidence, because we are not furnished with results regarding the condition of the patients and how systematically the treatment had been carried out.

The writer knows of cases which have been given up because one or two spinal injections have failed to improve the vision, or because vision continued to fail after the first injection. These cases and such treatment do not prove anything. An arrest of the process causing the failing vision or even an improvement should be expected only after a systematic course of 6 to 12 or more spinal treatments have been administered, combined with a general cautious but persistent antiluetic treatment. It is superfluous to add that the technic of spinal puncture is not very difficult, nor is it dangerous if done with care. The tens of thousands of spinal punctures done with impunity in this country and abroad prove my contention.

Among the questions and suggestions contained in the replies to my circular letter the following ones deserve to be mentioned:

1. Many ophthalmologists are of the opinion that salvarsan acts injuriously upon the optic nerves which are in the process of atrophy; others believe to the contrary, that it is more injurious in nonluetic atrophies; and still others think that salvarsan may cause atrophy in perfectly intact optic nerves. Since these opinions are in part based on hearsay and in part upon a *post hoc propter hoc* occurrence, we have no right to accept them as facts. Time and accurate observations will clear up this point. To those who have used a great deal of salvarsan in syphilis of the central nervous system one thing is clear, namely, that it is *not* injurious to the healthy or damaged optic nerves, if

administered in proper doses and at proper intervals.

2. Some express their belief that the drug is beneficial only in incipient cases of optic atrophies. Experience shows that this is true only in some cases. I have seen patients with a moderately advanced optic atrophy greatly benefited by spinal and general treatment.

3. Some, notwithstanding the numerous reports in neurologic literature, consider the spinal treatment as a dangerous procedure. My own experience is opposite to their belief. I have never seen one single case in which I had reason to regret the use of the spinal method of treatment, and Dr. I. Rosen, Chief of the Department of Syphilis of the Vanderbilt Clinic, who has given several thousands of injections, never had a single accident.

4. A few gentlemen from Philadelphia have based their doubts on the value of salvarsan in optic atrophies upon the supposition, almost universally accepted, that the drug is a spirochetecide and not an antidegenerative. While this objection seems to be quite right, we must not forget that there is still a possibility that the action of salvarsan may not be directed only upon the spirochetae, but may (as I think very probable), act upon the tissues as a stimulant as well. Furthermore, it is a fact that there are cases of optic atrophies in which the process was arrested by the systematic and judicious treatment with salvarsan and mercury.

5. How much should we fear a Herxheimer reaction while treating lues of the optic nerves, is a question brought up by a few colleagues. A very well known and highly reputed ophthalmologist does not use the salvarsan on account of a possibility of setting up a reaction in the optic nerves of sufficient intensity to cause a permanent damage to the nerve fibers. This fear, very current at the beginning of the salvarsan era, has gradually subsided now, when we use much smaller initial doses preceded by Hg. intramuscularly.

6. One colleague calls my attention to the fact that in some patients with chronic or latent nasal sinusitis the condition may become acute under the influence of salvarsan; and thus act upon the optic nerves—a sort of Herxheimer reaction in the nasal sinuses.

7. Finally, a large number of ophthalmologists, many of them among our leaders, flatly declare that their experience with the treatment of luetic optic atrophy is limited, because they refer their cases, where they belong; some to neurologists, others to syphilographers. It is undoubtedly correct to have the patient examined by a trained neurologist, because the patient has, most of the time, syphilis of the entire central nervous system, not only of the optic pathways. It is probably advisable to put the patient in the hands of a syphilographer experienced in the treatment of neurosyphilis; but it is unfortunate to throw him overboard and let the neurologist or syphilographer take entire charge of him. We have only to read up the reports on cases of neurosyphilis with eye manifestations, and, no matter who the author is (be he a leading syphilographer or neurologist), we will be surprised by the lack of completeness of and interest in the ophthalmologic phase of these reports.

Reliable ophthalmoscopic examinations, fields of vision, measuring of the acuity of vision, etc., can be made only by ophthalmologists; their special interest in the visual organ makes them more fit to judge of the progress obtained and more concerned about the outcome of the entire case. I should consider as ideal to have the ophthalmologist administer the treatment, and have the neurologist and syphilographer act only in advisory capacity. This would give him more experience on the neurologic end of the subject, and would stimulate him to try again to find a better way of treating syphilitic involvement of the optic pathways.

THE DETERMINATION OF DEVIATION IN SQUINT BY THE PRIESTLEY SMITH METHOD, WITH A MODIFICATION TO INSURE GREATER ACCURACY.

William F. Holzer, M. D.

WORCESTER, MASS.

This paper written while its author was interne at Wills Eye Hospital, Philadelphia, describes in detail the Priestley Smith method of measuring squint, with a modification to insure greater accuracy.

The angular method of measuring the deviation in cases of concomitant squint with the Priestley Smith tape does not commend itself as highly as it should, if one may judge from the descriptions usually given in our text books. In most books the tape method is briefly dismissed, oft times with a foot note, or goes unmentioned. Some of the descriptions present a vagueness in the method of its application, neglect to name length of tape or define gradations; and some present contradictions as to position of corneal images.

A very important and yet often neglected step in the estimation of a squint is a regard for the angle gamma, or angle kappa of Landolt. The Priestley Smith tape method as described by Worth[1] accounts for the angle, without the necessary separate determination, and addition if positive to convergent and deduction from divergent squints; and vice versa if negative. Worth says in part: "The patient is first told to fix the mirror, while the light of a lamp is reflected into the fixing eye. The position of the image of the mirror, on the cornea of the fixing eye, is noted. The light from the mirror is now thrown on to the deviating eye, and the patient is directed to look at the surgeon's tape hand. This is moved horizontally, till the position of the image of the mirror on the cornea of the squinting eye, is similar to that which it formerly occupied on the cornea of the fixing eye." (Corresponding to the visual axis of the eye.) Practically every other description of the method of application directs the image of the mirror to be placed in the centre of the cornea, which corresponds to the optic axis of the eye; thereby disregarding the angle gamma.

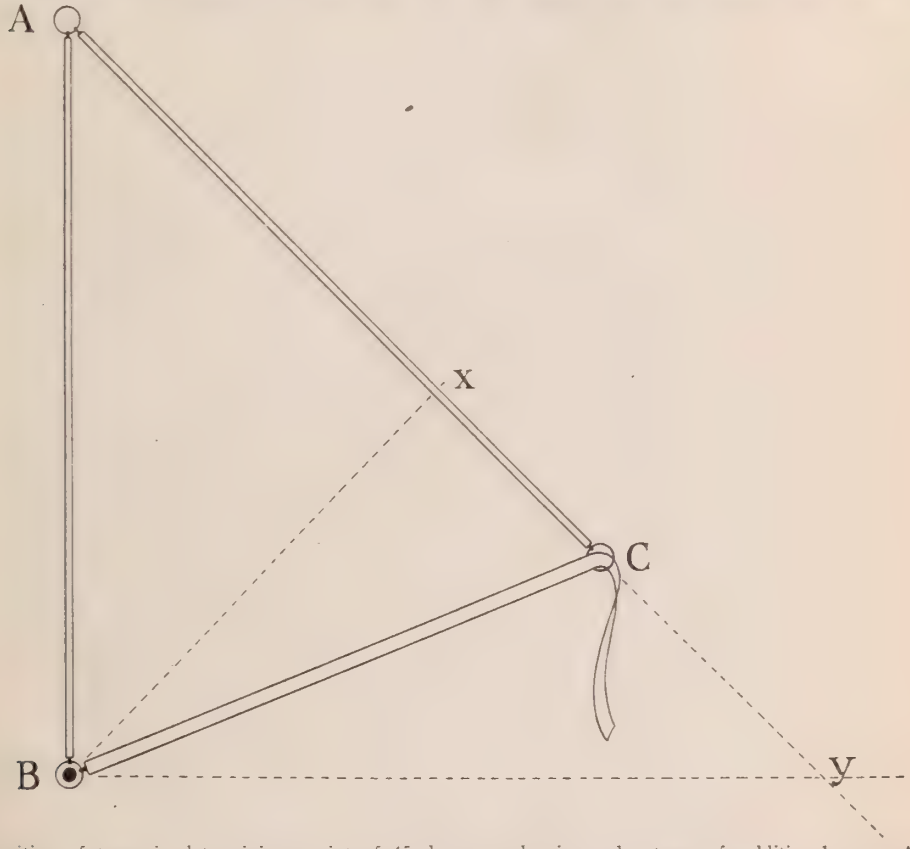
Two criticisms are apt to arise; first, the diviation when fixing at six metres compared with fixing at one metre or at sixty centimetres (length of the later tape); and, second, the error due to measurement on the chord of the arc as compared with measurement on the arc. Maxwell[2] demonstrated that the angle measured at twenty-five centimetres (less than the length of the tape) averaged 2.1 degrees greater than at six metres. The "mathematical error" (the difference between an angle measured on the arc of a circle and the chord of the arc) is so small as to be practically negligible. On the other hand the "observation error" (the inability of the observer to place exactly in a corresponding situation on the deviating eye the position, centric or eccentric of the corneal image in the fixing eye) is common to most methods of measuring deviations, the degree of accuracy depending upon the skill of the individual observer.

The writer has made a slight addition to the Priestley Smith tape, very simple but which he deems quite important; never having seen it noted. It is the addition of a "constant radius," by means of a tape from the ring, held by the patient against the cheek, to the hand of the observer which slides along the graduated tape, maintaining a constant radius.

A cloth or steel tape graduated in centimetres, two pieces of half-inch cloth tape, measuring with rings attached sixty centimetres, and three one-inch steel or nickel rings, one to three sixteenths of an inch thick, constitute the necessary materials for the tape.

The accompanying diagram illustrates the position of the tape in the measurement of a concomitant squint of 45 degrees. To A (ring held by pa-

tient against cheek) is attached tape A B and ring B (thru which ophthalmoscope handle is placed). B C represents the tape graduated in centimetres (1 cm. = 1 degree) attached to ring B and passed thru ring C. The tape A C is the writer's addition. Being the same length as A B it maintains a constant radius as the hand slides along the graduated tape passing thru ring C. B C represents the chord of an arc of a circle whose radii are A B and A C.



Position of tapes in determining squint of 45 degrees, showing advantage of additional tape AC (Holzer); which prevents errors from holding tape BC too near patient (X) or too far away (Y).

The determination of deviation is made by the Priestley Smith[3] method. Let us take for example a convergent squint of the left eye. Measurements should be made in a dark room with a lamp situated behind the patient. The ring A is held against the right cheek below the fixing eye by the patient. An ophthalmoscope or retinoscope handle is passed thru ring B and held in the observer's left hand. The image of the light behind the patient is now reflected from the mirror of the ophthalmoscope or retinoscope into the fixing eye, and the patient is directed to fix the mirror. Thru the sight-hole in the mirror the observer notes the exact position of the corneal image. He now turns the mirror to the left eye; the patient still fixing the mirror with the right eye, and notes that the image on the left cornea is situated eccentrically outwards, showing that this eye deviates inwards. He now directs the patient to follow, with his fixing eye, a finger of the observer's right hand over which ring C has been placed. The right hand is gradually moved horizontally outwards along the tape B C while the observer notes the changing position of the corneal image thru the sight-hole of the mirror, until

the left eye has rotated outwards enough to bring the image to the *corresponding situation* occupied in the fellow eye (right) when that eye was fixing the mirror. When this point is reached he pinches the tape and reads off the degree of deviation; one centimeter on the tape equalling one degree of deviation.

The same position of the hands and tape can be employed in measuring a divergent squint of the right eye, with the left eye fixing. To measure a convergent squint of the right eye or a divergent squint of the left eye the principle is the same but the hands and tape are reversed. The tape can be held taut between the ring and the finger, obviating the necessity of the weight usually mentioned.

The diagram illustrates at a glance the "constant radius" maintained by the writer's additional tape A C. It presents graphically the advantage of the tape in avoiding errors by faulty position of the distal end (C) of the graduated tape B C. A reading made with the tape in the Bx position would be less than that made at B C, because the distance between the patient and the end of the tape at x is less than 60 cm. With the tape occupying the position By, the reading will be greater than that made at B C, since the distance from the patient and the distal end of the tape at y is greater than 60 cm.

This method is applicable to almost every case. Parsons[4] says: "This test is by far the best for small children of any yet devised." It is almost a purely objective test, accurate, rapid and simple. The tape is compact, portable and inexpensive.

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NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

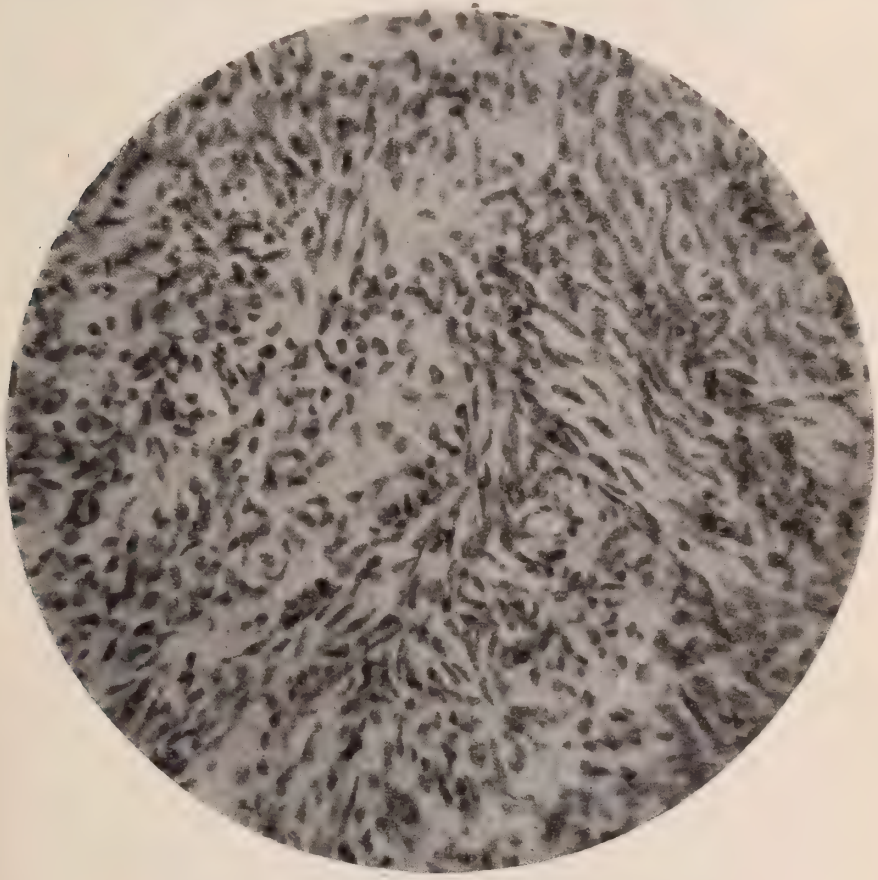
PRIMARY SARCOMA OF THE IRIS WITH REPORT OF A CASE.

HARRY FRIEDENWALD, M.D., F. A. C. S.

BALTIMORE, MD.

Primary sarcoma of the iris is of such rare occurrence as to warrant the publication of each individual case. According to Laven[1] about 130 were on record in 1913. The case which it is the desire of the writer to report has special interest because it belongs to the so-called leucosarcomata, and because its removal by iridectomy was followed by a satisfactory result during the period of observation of one and a half years.

The patient, Miss E., aged 40, was first examined by me in 1909. Her central vision was perfect. I prescribed glasses and noted that the eye-grounds were normal. I saw the patient again in 1915. In April, 1917, she again came for the examination of the refraction. I found vision perfect in both eyes. But on using the ophthalmoscope I noted slight distortion of the left pupil and on examining the iris with the loupe I observed a small pinkish mass protruding into the anterior chamber from the surface of the nasal part of the iris, about midway between the pupillary and the peripheral margins, and about 2 mm. in diameter.



Primary spindle-cell sarcoma of iris. (Friedenwald's case.)

The diagnosis of sarcoma was made. Dr. George E. de Schweinitz was con-

sulted on May 8, 1917, and he concurred in the diagnosis as well as in the recommendation that iridectomy was indicated. It should be stated that a blood Wasserman was negative.

The patient was operated on May 15, 1917. An incision was made with a von Graefe knife, was enlarged with scissors and a large piece of the iris was excised. The patient made a rapid recovery. There was a slight drop in vision. September 14, 1917, her vision was, Right eye +0.5 cyl. ax. 90°= 20/19, Left eye +0.5 cyl. ax. 90°= 20/38. The patient was last seen on December 12, 1918. The eye showed perfectly healthy conditions nineteen months after the excision of the growth.

The excised iris was given to Prof. Standish McCleary for examination. His report dated May 24, 1917, was that the growth was a spindle cell sarcoma, almost perfectly free from pigment. What little pigment was present was found at the extreme margin of the growth and may have been the pigment of the iris tissue.

The minute size of the growth and its satisfactory removal by iridectomy are of interest and prove that the growth was excised in an early stage. This is also in accord with the view that the nonpigmented sarcoma or so-called leucosarcoma,* of the uvea is an early stage of a growth which in its further development becomes pigmented. According to Schieck[2] the nonpigmented round-cell sarcoma represents the first stage, the nonpigmented spindle-cell sarcoma the second stage, the pigmented spindle-cell sarcoma the third stage. The case reported is therefore typical of the second stage of melanosarcoma of the iris.

*The term leucosarcoma as used by ophthalmologists to denote nonpigmented sarcoma should be discarded in view of the wholly different sense in which it is applied by pathologists. "This term, introduced by Sternberg, is meant to designate those cases in which a definite, tumor-like lymphoid mass is developed and is composed of lymphoid cells which seem to escape into the blood-stream giving rise to leukemic alterations of the blood." (MacCallum).

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THE STUBBORNNESS OF SOME CASES OF CONJUNCTIVITIS

By Dr. Juan Santos-Fernandez.

HAVANA, CUBA.

Since beginning my ophthalmic practice in Cuba, more than 40 years ago, I noticed some cases of conjunctivitis, almost always of a catarrhal nature, that resisted all efforts made to cure them, and did not end with the brevity and success of most cases. Sometimes they got much better and were almost on the point of being cured, when the disease regained new strength and caused the patient new troubles, especially when there was need of reading by artificial light. Many times I have been consulted by some patient who even with some pride let me know that he had consulted various physicians and ophthalmologists without having been cured.

Cases of this nature, as they did not mean any mysterious trouble, were almost sure to be included in the long list of "seen without results." I tried not to order the same drugs that had been prescribed for him before; but I was convinced that the failure did not lie in this drug or the other, because with them other patients were cured in 4 or 5 days.

We presumed that this stubbornness was due to a lack of observance of the most rudimentary hygienic principles, violated by even people that occupy the most exalted positions, without any desire to do so. This is due to the fact that one does not apply the same criterion and impartiality to his own troubles as to his neighbor's.

Sometimes by letting the patient talk all he wants we are able to establish a diagnosis, because the symptoms have been felt by himself and the physician can direct himself to some extent by this. At other times the description misleads the physician because

the patient has a mistaken impression of his own troubles.

Generally the patient does not trust much to hygienic councils but wants something that will cure him quickly. Many patients would run away from medicine and doctors if they became persuaded that we, in many cases, only follow the cycle of a disease and that nothing can greatly shorten that cycle, much less stop it *ipso facto*. The physiologic process of the organs cannot be disturbed often without some untoward effects.

Going back to our original thesis, we have been surprised when a case of conjunctivitis that many times is cured with a simple zinc sulphat wash, for example, becomes so unyielding at other times to every drug used in ocular therapeutics, and this without any apparent reason.

In order to have a technical and definite understanding on this matter it is well to follow Hippocrates' recommendation of keeping a reflective observation of every case every day, and by making an examination of the etiologic factors of conjunctivitis in general and especially of the catarrhal cases. We shall lay aside the diphtheritic and the gonococcic types and limit ourselves to the group of so-called simple conjunctivitis, when we are not able to determine its cause, or catarrhal when the symptoms may give rise to some suspicions of incipient trachoma. This is chiefly suspected when after some days of treatment the symptoms do not disappear.

It is known that the conjunctiva is in contact with the air so full of germs, and that the microbian host normally in the eyes is great, while local or general alterations may exalt their virulence and cause a catarrh or any other conjunctivitis.

When the astringent action of the collyria is sufficient to abolish the conjunctival injection or has a bactericidal action of enough strength to counteract the action of the germs described, generally a case of conjunctivitis can be cured in a few days if the ophthalmologist himself (or a trained nurse) is the one that instills several times a day the antiseptic solution used, placing it well inside of the everted *cul-de-sac* of the superior fornix. This generally cannot be done by the patient or his relatives, because the germs lodged in the retrotarsal folds cannot be reached by the simple dropping of some solution inside the lower eyelid. Many patients that do not even wash out the secretion lying upon the lids, this lasting for many hours, and the solutions ordered being applied by unskilled people, it is no wonder that the conjunctivitis develops freely and only ceases after the disease has run its entire cycle and if there have been no complications.

By having the treatment given by the ophthalmologist or some trained assistant as often as required by the virulence of the germ, all this can be avoided. But as it would be impossible for the surgeon to go himself several times a day to the patient's home, the best thing for the patient would be to stay for several hours, or come several times a day to the office, or go to a clinic or hospital where the proper attendance can be had.

After the chief bacteriologic facts of modern science have been known it is easy to see how frequently contagion and infection may occur and how long a conjunctivitis may last, if the proper hygienic rules are not followed closely, and the eye of the patient is seriously endangered by that lack of hygienic principles.

By following this rule we have been able generally to cure stubborn cases that had resisted treatment, sometimes for more than 4 months, thus clearing up suspected cases of trachoma. We have frequently maintained true trachoma can be relieved and often greatly so, but it never can be cured until its three full stages are run.

In short we are of the opinion that conjunctivitis, like keratitis and other ocular affections, has a long course and complications because the patients believe that they can be cured with a simple prescription. This is not always sufficient and there is need of a constant inspection and proper treatment directed personally by the ophthalmol-

ogist, or his assistants, in order to know when to modify the treatment and when to supply the same.

Taking all things into consideration it is really surprising that more cases are not lost, due to the carelessness in following the most rudimentary hygienic rules and to the unskilled administration of drugs by nonexpert hands.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

COLORADO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

April 4, 1919.

Dr. F. R. Spencer, Presiding.

Ectopia Lentis.

D. A. Strickler, Denver, presented four cases of ectopia lentis in the same family. They were the mother and three children, and there was a fourth child which was said to have the same defect. The mother was forty-eight years of age, and had noted defective vision from early childhood. There was no history of unusual eye trouble in the ascendants. Both lenses were cataractous and lay almost horizontally in the vitreous. The vision of the right eye with +4. sphere was 20/200, of the left eye with +9 sphere 20/40. A daughter aged eighteen years had been pronounced normal at three years of age by a former Denver oculist. It was thought that the dislocated lenses were first diagnosed at the age of nine years. The vision was R. 20/200 with —14 sphere, L. 20/70 with —16 sphere. The lenses were both displaced downward and outward, altho not extremely. A boy aged fourteen years was said to have had dislocated lenses at six months of age. The vision was R. 20/70 and L. 20/100 with +3 sphere. The upper margin of the right lens was at the center of the pupil, whereas the left lens was only moderately displaced downwards. The case not shown was in the oldest child, a girl of twenty-one years. There were no other children. Double vision was not noticed in any of the cases.

Discussion. G. F. Libby, Denver, thought that there must be an hereditary factor in these cases.

Edward Jackson, Denver, had successfully needled such a lens. These lenses are of course always more movable than the normal, and it is difficult to make much impression on them with a needle. The lens always shows a marked tendency to heal up unless a decided cut is made. He had extracted such lenses, but a good many more he had simply let alone, giving the patient the best correction possible. If the lens is thoroly across the pupil one has to correct the high myopia, whereas if much of the pupil is free from the presence of the lens one has to correct for the aphakia.

F. R. Spencer, Boulder, referred to a case of his own in which there had been so much dislocation as to amount to a practical aphakia, so that very good vision was had with a high plus sphere.

E. R. Neeper, Colorado Springs. The difficulty of needling can be obviated by needling from the point of traction, and the desired effect can also be more readily obtained by using and rotating a short bladed knife.

Atypical Phlyctenular Conjunctivitis.

D. A. Strickler, Denver, presented a man aged thirty years who since November, 1918, had suffered in his right eye from a condition more or less resembling phlyctenular conjunctivitis. Redness and pain had first come on after driving in the wind, and the first attack had cleared up in a week under atropin. The trouble reappeared after about ten days. There was at present a bleb at the upper outer margin of the cornea, approached by a typical fan of vessels. The urine contained blood, and more albumin than was accounted for by the blood, but the microscopic findings were negative. The

nasal condition was apparently normal. The pain was so severe that the patient had had sleepless nights on account of it. The teeth had been x-rayed and one had been removed. Dr. Strickler leaned to the belief that the condition was of tuberculous origin.

Discussion. W. C. Bane, Denver, suggested the possibility of a minute body being carried on the eyeball.

W. C. Finnoff, Denver, had seen the patient two weeks previously at the clinic, and stated that at that time the eye was free from irritation. Moreover the left eye had also been involved.

Edward Jackson, Denver, thought that the left optic disc had a decidedly swollen appearance, and was inclined to suspect the sphenoidal sinus until it had been eliminated. The hematuria looked like tuberculosis.

G. F. Libby, Denver, referred to a case of optic neuritis which he had reported at the December meeting as cured, and in which cleaning out the sphenoidal sinus had cleared up the eye condition with recovery of vision.

W. C. Bane, Denver, spoke of a case in which Dr. Claude Cooper of Denver, in operating upon a nasal case, came across what he supposed to be the optic nerve unprotected, in the sinus.

F. R. Spencer, Boulder, had under his care a case in which bilateral neuroretinitis was probably due to sphenoidal and ethmoidal disease. He also referred to another case seen in the army, in which the loss of vision was undoubtedly due to sphenoidal disease.

W. C. Finnoff, Denver, referred to a case seen with the army in London, England, in which the vision was lost but rapidly recovered after opening the sinuses.

O. M. Orendorff, Canon City, objected that most cases of eye involvement from sinus trouble were from posterior sinus disease, whereas this man was complaining of an anterior eye condition.

Optic Neuritis.

George F. Libby, Denver, made a supplementary report of the case which he had reported at the December 1918 meeting of this society (American Journal of Ophthalmology, February 1919, page 155). On February 10th the vision of the left eye fell suddenly to 5/10, and it remained so for eight days altho a coincident intestinal indigestion was relieved meanwhile. The patient was then referred to Dr. T. J. Gallaher, who found hyperplastic ethmoiditis with slight empyema of the left sphenoid. On February 20, Dr. Gallaher did complete exenteration of the anterior and posterior ethmoidal cells, cutting down the anterior wall of the left sphenoid, and leaving permanent, perfect drainage. On March 3rd the L. V. was 5/4 partly, and on April 16th, 5/4 fully. There were no visible changes in the optic disc during this relapse but toxic irritation of the nerve seemed a reasonable explanation of the lowered vision.

Disseminated Choroiditis.

George F. Libby, Denver, presented a man of forty years who stated that in the summer of 1906 the vision of the right eye had fallen to counting fingers only, that of the left becoming slightly reduced three months later. The patient came under the care of Dr. Alfred Wiener of New York City at this time. KI was given internally, mercurial ointment rubbed into the temples, and dionin instilled into the eye. The vision was restored to normal in one year and a half, and had remained so since. The fundus of each eye now showed the typical picture of disseminated choroiditis, and correction of a low amount of hyperopic astigmatism relieved symptoms of eye strain. There was no history of specific infection, and Dr. W. C. Mitchell had found the Wassermann reaction negative. The general physical condition was good and the patient wholly efficient in his occupation as a bookkeeper.

Discussion.—Edward Jackson, Denver. The appearance of the choroid is that of a syphilitic choroiditis and not of a tuberculous; there are so many smaller spots without areas of complete atrophy.

Dr. Libby (closing), thought that in the absence of definite specific manifestations, the patient, who had been pretty effectively treated according to the history, would be better let alone than scared by suggestion of further active treatment.

Iridodialysis.

W. C. Bane, Denver, presented a man of fifty-five years who had on March 13th been struck in the right eyeball with a leather tip which had flown off a whip with which he was striking his horse. Blindness was immediate, and the pain was very severe for about a day, but no attention was sought for the eye. Seen on March 18th, the iris was found to be detached at the upper outer margin over an extent of about 5 mm. There was blood in the anterior chamber. Vision was of the hand moving at one foot and the tension was reduced to 6 mm. of mercury. Under atropin in one per cent solution, a cantharides-collodion blister to the temporal region, and small doses of calomel and aspirin internally, the general condition of the eye had improved, and the vision had risen to 4/60.

Hemorrhagic Retinitis.

W. C. Bane, Denver, presented a man of sixty-nine years the fundus of whose right eye showed flame hemorrhages below and close to the optic disc, more numerous in the lower nasal than in the temporal quadrant. The disc was swollen and moderately choked. Examination of the urine had revealed nothing pathologic, and the blood pressure was reported normal. The left eye had been poor since childhood from an irregular corneal opacity.

Discussion.—W. H. Crisp, Denver, suggested, as regards etiology, the presence of arteriosclerotic changes in the retinal vessels in the constricted portion of the optic nerve behind the disc.

Staphyloma Sclerae.

H. R. Stilwill, Denver, again showed the case of staphyloma sclerae from injury which he had brought before the society at its December meeting (see American Journal of Ophthalmology, 1919, page 153.) The lens was now cataractous, but the eye had been quiet since December. The patient had good light perception and projection.

Macular Choroiditis.

W. C. Finnoff, Denver, presented a man of thirty-four years whose right vision had been failing for almost a month. He had had a bad cold while in France in February, but had been well since. A week ago he noticed a speck in the center of the right field of vision. He had frontal headaches which increased during the day, and the letters blurred and ran together when reading. The vision was R. 0.9, L. 1.2, not improved with lenses. The right visual field showed a small central scotoma. The Wassermann test was negative, as was also the urine. There was a yellowish area with some pigment disturbance about one-third the size of the disc, and oval in shape, just above the macula of the right eye. There had been some improvement in the condition since it was first seen three days previously. The patient's teeth were bad, and he had been advised to have them taken care of.

Discussion.—Edward Jackson, Denver. It is difficult to ascribe etiology in this case, but the lesion is apparently subsiding; in other words, it is rather of an acute character.

Keratoglobus or Buphthalmus.

J. A. McCaw, Denver, presented a case of congenital buphthalmus in an elderly man. The cornea was 15 mm. in diameter. The lens had been extracted from the left eye, and at the operation the cornea collapsed, falling down into the eyeball, and dropping back after it was lifted. There were six diopters of astigmatism in the cornea. The sclera did not appear to be enlarged, and there were no glaucomatous symptoms.

On behalf of J. W. Lehan, Greeley, the secretary presented a boy of eight or nine years who eighteen months or so previously had become almost completely blind in each eye. The history was

practically negative as regards kidney disease. The fundi presented only moderate changes, in the form of small scattered pigment deposits. The condition of the eyes had not appreciably changed for the past six months.

Discussion.—Edward Jackson, Denver, suggested that a Wassermann test should be made. The boy still had his first set of front teeth, worn down to the gum and widely separated. The appearance of the fundus was suggestive of that sometimes seen in women after subsidence of a retinitis of pregnancy. The history and the appearance of the fundus did not suggest retinitis pigmentosa, but the condition was likely syphilitic. The pigment did not appear to be arranged especially around the retinal vessels, but undoubtedly there was a very general degeneration and atrophy of the retina.

Wm. H. Crisp, Secretary.

CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

April 21, 1919.

Vice-President Dr. A. L. Adams, Jacksonville, Illinois, in the Chair.

Snydacker's Blepharoplasty in Morax' Clinic.

Dr. E. F. Snydacker said that about fifteen years ago a girl came into his service at the Michael Reese Hospital frightfully burned. She was an epileptic; she had fallen onto a stove in a fit, and she had virtually fried the side of her face. From there she got into the Cook County Hospital, and he tried to remedy a severe ectropion of both the upper and lower lids by using Thiersch and Wolfe grafts. These grafts had taken, but were so degenerated and so shrunken that, if anything, they added to the hideousness of her appearance rather than benefited her.

When he saw her it was simply a problem of getting flaps because the injury was so severe, the burns were so deep and so adherent to the bone everywhere, that he realized it was impossible to correct the difficulty with grafts, so his object was to get skin that he could use for plastic purposes, and in looking her over carefully and studying the situation it seemed to him there was one place from which he could get the skin. She was literally fried from the top of the forehead right down to below the jaw, and the only skin he could see that was available was the skin of the neck, and he conceived the idea of taking a long flap, going down the neck.

This skin seemd to be loose and suitable for plastic skin, so he took a long flap, cutting it at an angle, and as the case was so deformed anyway, he had everything to gain and nothing to lose. He began at the angle of the jaw, cut diagonally a flap ten inches in length, turned it up to avoid kinking of the pedicle as much as possible. He laid this on a bridge of gutta percha, and covered the upper portion of the flap with gutta percha. He took a flap from the neck, turned it up, split in two the end with one part covering the upper lid, with the other the lower.

He left this flap in place seven or eight days, at the end of which time it was an easy matter to close the wounds in the neck. The skin was elastic and plastic. The deformity in the neck was largely concealed by the collar. At the end of seven or eight days he cut a bridge off which he did not need because he was able to cover the wound in the neck very easily. He simply cut that off at the time of the operation and was able to close the wound in the neck nicely. In cutting off this bridge he made use of only one suture to close the wound in the neck entirely, the rest of the wound had been closed at the time of the operation, and he found that he made a nice repair of what seemed to him an impossible situation. He showed this girl before a meeting of the Chicago Medical Society at the time and the result seemed a very nice one.

He had occasion, in fifteen years, to do this operation four times. One case was a severe case of lupus which had been treated by the X-ray, and in addition to the lupus she had frightful X-ray burns with great sloughing of the skin. She had lost the side of her

nose completely, so that the whole septum was exposed. There was a gapping wound beside the nose. The lower lid was entirely gone. This was another case where he needed a very large skin surface to repair this very extensive defect.

Again, he did the same operation. This time he made the flap a little more slanting; in fact, he had to make a little turn in the pedicle and he wished to avoid that this time. He also went a little lower because he became more bold. There was no danger of its sloughing if one followed certain basic principles. He went below the clavicle, turned the flap of skin up and was able to do a blepharoplasty and rhinoplasty with the same operation from the same flap. He made a lower lid and a new nose. The skin grew perfectly without trouble, and he again followed the method of cutting off the bridge.

In the third case there was a severe gangrenous sloughing following an automobile accident in a boy, who was dragged along the street.

The fourth case was a severe burn, not as severe as in the case of the girl who had epilepsy, but this time he believed the operation was feasible and should be done. It was done, and was not followed by any special deformity because the collar concealed the wound and the subsequent scar very well, so he went in rather boldly. The only case in which he did not get a satisfactory result was in the case of the automobile injury, and the reason he thought was because he operated too soon, while there was still some slough; and he had to do another operation to correct the partial failure.

He published this operation in the Archives of Ophthalmology, and later in the Klinische Monatsblätter für Augenheilkunde.

Morax took up the operation and modified it. He thought the first case that Morax operated was one of a very severe loss of tissue in a sloughing nevus, one of those large nevi that covered the face. He presented a picture showing the operation Morax performed. Morax made the operation, and instead of throwing away the bridge which the speaker cut off, and throwing away the portion he did not use, he conceived the idea that when he had taken a flap from the neck, he turned it up, covered a part of the defect or as much as he could in the first operation, then instead of cutting this part off, throwing it away, he waited until circulation was established; he left it a little longer than Dr. Snydacker did. He took the other part and turned that up and covered the rest of the defect with a portion of the skin which Dr. Snydacker had thrown away.

Morax had performed this operation seven times, and he also found that while it seemed a severe procedure and a daring one to take flaps ten, eleven or twelve inches long, it could be done with perfect impunity. If one followed certain basic principles there was no danger of losing any of the flap, and furthermore, the resulting defect was less than by taking flaps from places where they could not be concealed. Where one took a flap from the neck the collar would conceal practically the whole wound. One could take large defects and cover them perfectly with plastic skin well adapted for the purpose, and do this without materially adding to the difficulty.

Delmasso in Madrid performed the operation successfully, also a German named Fulchen. An assistant of Morax had published an inaugural dissertation on this operation which he had done in his clinic and also a resumé of the cases on which they had operated by this method.

No one claimed that such an operation should be done for slight defect. To remedy the ordinary ectropion one would not go down and take a long flap of skin to remedy a slight defect, and the speaker said he had never claimed that this operation was adapted for such purpose, nor did he expect it would be used for such a purpose.

What he did claim was this: It was an operation which replaced the old Italian method, the Tagliocozzi operation, anchoring the arm to the head; especially in rhinoplasty, where they

had to have a large skin surface, where they anchored the arm to the head for ten days, and made a bridge from the skin of the face or nose. The operation described was so much more practical, simpler and safer that it surely would in time displace that operation. This claim Morax had substantiated. It was a simpler operation to do than the old Italian operation. It was perfectly possible to do the operation without loss of flap which in a certain number of cases one was bound to lose in the Italian method; because where there was communication of the flap passing from the arm to the face, one was bound in a certain proportion of cases to have infection, no matter how carefully he protected the flap. One could not absolutely protect it.

If in making these flap operations one carefully measured the size of the defect that he wanted to cover and carefully marked out how far he wanted to go, and allow for a liberal shrinkage, say thirty to forty per cent, if one made the incision diagonally, following the sternocleidomastoid muscle, there was not much likelihood of a kink in the pedicle. If one would avoid kinking of the pedicle, if he was immaculately clean in his work, if the flap was made large enough so that there was no tension on it, it would take every time. There was no reason why a flap ten inches long should not take as well as one two inches long.

He thought the operation was better for rhinoplasty than for blepharoplasty, but one could combine the two as he had done in the lupus case. For these severe defects the operation was feasible and surely simpler and easier to do than the old Italian operation.

Discussion. — Dr. Dwight C. Orcutt asked Dr. Snydacker how he prepared the surface.

Dr. Snydacker replied that he made the ordinary preparation.

Dr. Orcutt asked whether he removed the skin of all the thickened tissues before he operated and how long before.

Dr. Snydacker said that it was necessary to dissect out all adhesions; that one had to put the lids on a stretch, and this was one of the hardest things to do. The lids ought to be sutured together for a number of weeks, six weeks was better than two or three weeks, but the longer one sutured the lids the better the result.

There was one difficulty in the operation he failed to speak about; one patient got a rather heavy upper lid; that is to say, the skin was a little heavy over the upper lid, and when one got thru there was a slight ptosis of the upper lid, but it was far better to have redundant heavy skin, and he would a good deal rather have ptosis than an ectropion which almost always recurred where one got too little. This was the difficulty in any flap operation on the upper lid, namely, that when one got thru he was apt to have a slight ptosis. There was no question that the Thiersch grafts in the first result gave nicer looking lids and better acting lids for the first few months. But any one who had seen much work done with Thiersch grafts knew where there were extensive defects, that in the end they shrank and degenerated and the result was unsatisfactory.

Dr. H. W. Woodruff, Joliet, Illinois, thought that the operation described by Dr. Snydacker would be very valuable in many of the severe cases that he spoke of. The speaker believed that ectropion of the upper lid could be repaired by the use of Thiersch grafts much more readily than the lower lid. In the lower lid one was more apt to have a return of the ectropion with Thiersch grafts but this did not apply to the same degree to the upper lid. The cases of destruction of the entire lid, both the conjunctiva and skin surfaces, would require something still further in order to make an eyelid.

The speaker saw something in the line of skin grafting in the work done by Dr. New in the Mayo Clinic which was exceedingly interesting. In repairing a nose Dr. New dissected a flap from the forehead, dissected the skin up, and put a Thiersch graft on the raw surface of the flap, so that he had a flap both surfaces of which were covered with epithelium. When the

graft had taken, he swung this down to make a nose, so that he had both the internal and external surfaces covered with epithelium. It occurred to the speaker that this same scheme could be adapted to restoring eyelids, where it was necessary; as where the entire structure of the lid, both conjunctiva and skin had been removed for malignant growths or lupus.

Dr. Oliver Tydings said the society was to be congratulated on having the privilege of listening to the description of the operation of Dr. Snydacker, which was scientifically conceived and brilliantly executed with beautiful results. As he understood, the condition for which the operation was performed was not one where all of both eyelids had been lost, but distorted remnants of all tissues except skin remained; the muscle was still intact if not in place.

Dr. Snydacker said it was not to replace the cartilage.

Dr. Tydings said it could not replace cartilage or muscle; that a globe left exposed by accident or disease would be in great danger.

Dr. Snydacker said that in the automobile case in which there was sloughing a strip of cartilage with a few hairs was adherent, and he had something to anchor the skin to.

Dr. Tydings asked what protected the cornea.

Dr. Snydacker replied that the cornea was not injured.

Dr. Tydings asked about the length of the exposure of the globe, especially the cornea to the drying influence of air.

Dr. Snydacker replied that there was no long exposure.

Dr. Tydings said that if the musculature was preserved one had a base on which to work. The main point in the handling of these cases with ectropion was to keep as far away from the bony surface of the orbit as possible and dissect as close to the ciliary region, being careful not to injure the follicles of the hair bulbs, and not to disturb scar tissue beneath, where it was adherent to the bone, because many of these cases were attendant upon fracture, as observed by the late Dr. Beard, and by keeping away from the orbital walls one could obtain better results.

With regard to the use of the Thiersch graft on the upper lid, he had never had a failure. He had always covered it well. He recalled one particular case of a young woman, the whole lid was everted, the ciliary margin attached to the upper orbital wall, the conjunctiva and tarsal cartilage everted, and presenting an unsightly mass. The condition was due to an abscess occurring in childhood. By dissecting close to the ciliary body and making as large a flap as he could, from above, dissecting the surface free and using a Thiersch graft he got a beautiful result. The only trouble was, it was in a colored woman and the skin he took from the inner side of the arm when exposed to the sun, turned black and looked as if painted. Ultimately it faded out and was not observable, or not as markedly as in the first place. He had never had occasion to employ the extensive grafts, but if he had he would follow the suggestion and work of Dr. Snydacker.

There was one point he desired to speak of, and this was concerning the case of lupus that had been treated with unfortunate results by the X-ray, which treatment had caused an X-ray burn. One could get results every time in treating lupus by the use of tuberculin. He could arrest the progress with tuberculin, and he had never seen it fail in a case of lupus. It was lupus that first attracted his attention to the use of tuberculin.

Dr. Richard J. Tivnen emphasized the importance of the dressing used in these cases. There was no class of work in his judgment where there was so much attention to detail demanded as in cases of skin grafting. Among the essential details one of the most important was the aftercare and the method of dressing. It was the general impression among surgeons that grafts prosper better without any dressing, that is, the "open method." His own experience had taught him the advantages of the open method of dressing and he now used it entirely.

Dr. Snydacker stated, in reference to the use of grafts on the lid, that for smaller degrees of ectropion he had resorted to a little operation which he reported a few years ago. He had found it so simple, so easy and so certain in the smaller degrees of ectropion that he had been using it since then. Where he had a lower lid to deal with he repaired the defect in one lid by using the skin of the other lid. He made a circular flap and used skin, following the lines of the orbicularis and anatomic lines. If he wished to repair the lower lid he loosened the outer angle of the eyelid; he destroyed the hairs at the edge of the lid; he dissected or loosened the skin of the upper lid by means of a Graefe knife for a short distance, drew down the upper lid, brought the circular flap in place and replaced it. The ectropion could not return because the lines of shrinkage were in the opposite direction to the ectropion.

Influenza as a Causative Factor in Acute Glaucoma.

Dr. Dwight C. Orcutt said that during the last few months, since the prevalence of influenza, there seemed to have been a larger number of cases of glaucoma observed at the Infirmary. About Christmas and during January there was a marked increase. He had seen more of the sequelae of influenza in the various conditions which he handled, such as headache, transitory diplopias, than ever before in the same length of time, so that he began to inquire among the cases of glaucoma and found that the majority of them gave a history of having had influenza during the fall or winter that was followed by a glaucomatous attack, in some instances immediately.

Reasoning from analogy the recent contagion was of the edematous type. Of the pneumonia patients who died, many died of acute edema. When one was called in to see cases of influenza he observed puffy, edematous conditions of the body. There was a stasis of the circulation, and glaucoma being a circulatory disease, the circulation being very poor, produced the glaucoma. So that he brought this subject up to find out what the experience of other members might have been during the past few months in regard to glaucoma.

Dr. Munns had the data taken from the histories of patients at the Infirmary, and thru the kindness of other members of the staff they had been able to get a list of the cases they found during the past six months, and in comparison with them they had gone back over a period of some four or five years trying to find out the number of cases of glaucoma.

Dr. Shirley Bogart Munns stated the standard textbooks on diseases of the eye mentioned influenza as an exciting cause of glaucoma. With this in mind one should not expect a paper dealing with glaucoma in relation to the recent influenza epidemic to be in any way startling.

In comparing the cases of glaucoma admitted to the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary during the months beginning September 1st, 1918, and ending March 31st, 1919, with those admitted during the corresponding 7 months of the 3 preceding years, one finds a great increase in the acute form during the past 7 months. To simplify the classification, the simple chronic cases, of which there were very few, and the chronic inflammatory cases were classed under one head as chronic. In 1915-16, 14 per cent of the cases of glaucoma were acute; in 1916-17, 26 per cent were acute; in 1917-18, 20 per cent were acute, and in 1918-19, 60 per cent were acute.

During the past seven months there were 13 cases of acute glaucoma admitted to the Infirmary and 9 cases of chronic glaucoma. Of the 13 acute cases, 8 gave a history of the so-called Spanish influenza preceding the onset, one followed an attack of erysipelas, another had at the time of entrance a late secondary syphilid and a four plus Wassermann, while another proved to be a diabetic. The two other acute cases gave no history which would suggest an exciting cause. Only two of the nine chronic cases gave a history of Spanish influena immediately pre-

ceding an acute exacerbation. There were twice as many cases of secondary glaucoma during the past seven months as there were during the same period in any of the three preceding years.

In the acute inflammatory variety of glaucoma which we were considering in this paper, the pathologic condition was classified as an inflammatory edema. Not only was the actual fluid increased in amount, but the very vascular uveal tract was edematous thruout. Now Spanish influenza was *per se* a disease of edema. If the toxin would so alter the vessel wall that the blood serum would pass too rapidly into the surrounding tissues, was it not possible that this might occur in the uvea? Extensive involvement of the lungs obstructed the pulmonary circulation and thus produced venous stasis which might tend to favor the production of glaucoma. Atropin was the one great drug used during the recent epidemic. It was given in larger and more frequent doses than ever before. It was not uncommon to find the patient with atropin mydriasis. Could not this have been a causative factor in the production of glaucoma? Producing mydriasis by dropping atropin into the conjunctival sac of persons over forty was a dangerous procedure. All of the cases they had of acute glaucoma complicating Spanish influenza were over forty years of age.

Returning to the statistics, 5 of the 13 cases of acute glaucoma did not bear any relation to the recent epidemic. With only 5 acute cases the proportion of this type was reduced to that of the three preceding years. Thus it could be assumed that the 8 cases, while probably predisposed to glaucoma, were directly excited by an attack of Spanish influenza.

Discussion.—Dr. Clarence Loeb stated that the remarks of the previous speakers would seem to show that there was some relationship between so-called influenza and acute glaucoma. In speaking of this one should be very careful to distinguish between the influenza we knew a great many years ago and the influenza that occurred in the last year. The former was the product of the influenza bacillus, whereas the latter was an entirely distinct disease so far as we had been able to learn from internists. Therefore, he thought in the title of the paper a distinction should have been made between former influenza and the so-called Spanish influenza.

Dr. G. Henry Mundt said he would like to know whether any difference was noted in the efficiency of the treatment of the 8 cases reported with eserin or operation. The theory or supposition was that eserin was probably less efficacious than in the ordinary type of glaucoma. The speaker had seen some cases of glaucoma following or during an attack of so-called Spanish influenza, two of them were acute and one noninflammatory which developed during an acute attack of influenza.

He thought the members should be very cautious about saying much regarding the use of atropin precipitating glaucoma. He did not know whether it did or not, and he would like to hear the experience of others in regard to precipitating glaucoma by the use of astropin.

Dr. Harry M. Ivins, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, said he had had a few cases of acute glaucoma during the winter months when the influenza was quite prevalent. Whether or not the influenza had anything to do with producing the glaucoma he could not say. He had not thought of it in that light. As to the use of atropin in producing or precipitating glaucoma, he had always supposed that glaucoma could be caused and was caused by the use of atropin.

He recalled the case of an old gentleman who was working in the Masonic Temple at Cedar Rapids and was seized with a severe pain in his eye. He went to the family physician who supposed that the man had an iritis. He put atropin in the eye, and before the doctor discovered what had happened the man was blind in that eye, and later became blind in the other eye and today is totally blind. This was an instance where a man went blind following the use of atropin, altho

it did not prove he did not have glaucoma in the first place or would not have had it and would not have been blind.

Dr. Thomas O. Edgar, Dixon, Illinois, in reply to the question of Dr. Mundt, cited a case of irido-cyclitis, that he had recently observed, in which atropin was indicated, but, almost every time it was used the tension went up temporarily; and when atropin was discontinued the tension would go down. On the other hand, during an exacerbation of a case of chronic irido-cyclitis, with extensive posterior synechiae, the use of atropin caused the tension to become normal again, undoubtedly because it loosened up the adhesions. Such experiences were not isolated.

Dr. Oliver Tydings said it would be unfortunate to let it go out that it was the consensus of opinion that atropin was not contraindicated in suspected cases of glaucoma. He had not had any experience in seeing glaucoma precipitated by the use of atropin, but he recalled some cases that were attributed to it.

The only fulminating case of glaucoma he ever saw was when he was called to see a patient for the first time, who said she had not felt well for a day or two, but had not called a doctor until she noticed she could not see. This was about 8 P. M., and he asked for an immediate operation, this was declined. Consultation was granted, and both eyes operated upon the next morning before 6 o'clock. The patient was stone blind at the time of the operation, and was until her death some years later, and she had not had sufficient trouble before that evening to call a physician. There was no history of the use of atropin, or that she had used any domestic remedy which could be suspected of cycloplegic action. This was not a case where vision had been lost as a result of hemorrhage followed by glaucoma. Gifford, of Omaha, had reported a number of cases of glaucoma following the use of homatropin. The speaker saw one case in a young woman, twenty-one or twenty-two years of age, who was absolutely blind in one eye. He saw her after she had been blind in one eye five years which she attributed to some drops that were instilled into the eye at the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary. She did not know anything about this, but he knew the girl was blind in one eye from glaucoma.

If the colloid theory of Fischer, of Cincinnati was right, the speaker thought that anything which would tend to produce mydriasis or would interfere at all with the drainage system, would produce glaucoma. He certainly would not want atropin instilled into his own eyes if he had glaucoma.

Dr Mundt said he hoped none of the members misinterpreted what he had said. He simply asked whether any member knew of a case of glaucoma that was precipitated by the use of atropin or any other mydriatic.

Dr. Clarence Loeb said that several years ago he had a case of glaucoma simplex which was very well controlled by the use of the ordinary miotics. One day the patient consulted him, and the eyes were found in good condition. Another prescription for pilocarpin was given him. His eyes were much worse that afternoon, after using one drop of the new medicine, and they became suddenly very much worse. He found this man was suffering from an attack of acute glaucoma. He looked up the prescription and on it was written two per cent pilocarpin. The druggist stated absolutely that the prescription was filled as written, but the same medicine was used as a control in a rabbit and it produced dilatation of the pupil. He did not know whether atropin or hometropin was used, but certainly one of them was given instead of the pilocarpin that was prescribed, and there was no question that it caused an acute glaucoma.

Dr. N. C. Nelson stated that at the Infirmary he had taken the blood pressure and intraocular tension in about 75 cases before operation. They found quite a number of patients that had developed glaucoma who had a high pulse pressure and showing that the intraocular tension was increased. Very high pulse pressure was very often found even if the intraocular ten-

sion was not increased at the time the blood pressure was taken but would develop an increased tension after operation. They found that a patient might have a high blood pressure (systolic) the pulse pressure being normal; also that a patient could have a normal blood pressure (systolic) according to his age, but have a high pulse pressure.

He thought that if all cases were followed up closely; and blood pressure and intraocular tension taken in all cases before operation, one would find there was a glaucomatous condition present already, and any operation or traumatism to the eye helped to precipitate a latent glaucoma. This condition was probably due to the whole system undergoing the same changes as those that produced arteriosclerosis. They had not as yet worked out as many cases as they would like to do, but so far as they had gone there seemed to be a very close relation between the high pulse pressure and glaucoma.

Dr. Orcutt, in closing, stated that the sooner one operated on a case of acute glaucoma, the sooner he would save the eye. If one could gain the consent of a patient suffering from acute glaucoma, with a tension above 35, his advice was to operate, as one would be able to save a good useful eye.

The operation he had been following almost entirely was trephining, and during the past year he had not had one failure in his service from trephining. He had had one case of an old chronic glaucoma in one eye, and an acute condition in the other eye, in which the glaucoma recurred in the chronic case. A second trephining was done on the lower portion and the eye had been all right since.

The worst case he had ever had was one in which atropin was used. He finally resorted to operation and the patient recovered with fairly useful vision. Glaucoma might develop in iritis or uveitis where atropin was used due to the adhesions interfering with circulation of the eye.

Dislocation of Both Lenses.

Dr. Oliver Tydings exhibited and reported a case of dislocation of the both lenses in a Sister, thirty-five years of age. The pupil was not widely dilated. He had not examined the case for three or four weeks. He had used cocain three times since coming here but had not been able to secure much dilatation of the pupil. There was no irregularity of the pupil. Last July the patient came to him with the lens dislocated in each eye. At that time the zonule was not broken above but the lens was dislocated temporarily in each eye. Patient was fitted with glasses some years before and was wearing minus ten or eleven, he did not remember which. After advising her to be operated on, he did not see the patient any more until about a month ago. When she came back the lens was not only broken towards the nasal side but the zonule above was broken. In the meantime the patient had gone to an optometrist in Indiana who succeeded in fixing up a pair of glasses for twenty-two dollars, and they were plus. They were cataract lenses.

He would like the members to examine the case and offer suggestions as to treatment.

Discusion. Dr. Orcutt said he had had the case of a boy with both lenses dislocated upwards. In this case he needled them.

Embolism of the Central Artery.

Dr. D. C. Orcutt exhibited and reported the case of a man who, while sweeping, suddenly became blind two weeks ago. When admitted to the Infirmary he was just able to see his way about. As he had not the history of the case he was not able to say definitely what the man's vision was; but there was every indication that this was a case of embolism of the central artery. Both arteries were shrunken. The fundus was white. There was a bright red spot in the macula. The urine showed the presence of albumin. He had a blood pressure of nearly 200. He had not made a positive, but simply a tentative diagnosis of embolism of the central artery.

Cyst Occupying the Region of the Lacrimal Sac.

Dr. Clarence Loeb reported the case of a man who gave the history that he awoke one morning with a severe inflammation of one eye with swelling, which lasted two days. This swelling was situated over the lacrimal sac and was about the size of a lima bean. It had a resistant feeling such as a sebaceous cyst would give. Was this a case of sebaceous cyst or one of dacryocystitis?

Discussion. Dr. Michael Goldenburg did not think Dr. Loeb's case was one of sebaceous cyst, but an anomalous development of the anterior ethmoid cells. The walls of the ethmoid cells were very thin, at times, and on blowing the nose one could notice swelling. He had had three such cases in which the anterior ethmoidal cell was involved. If one applied firm pressure over the swelling it would evacuate it. He saw one case of swelling of the lacrimal sac in which no pus could be expressed. He irrigated the sac and forced fluid into the nose quite freely. An incision was made in the region of the sac and the sac was found to be normal. In one case he followed the sac along the orbital wall for about one and a half inches and into the ethmoid, made a good big hole, and closed it up anteriorly, compelling it to drain into the nose.

BALTIMORE CITY MEDICAL SOCIETY.
OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SECTION

March 19, 1919.

Dr. Downey presiding.

Base Hospital Unit.

Dr. Whitham read a paper on the history of the eye department of the Johns Hopkins Base Hospital Unit, from its arrival in France with the first convoy of American troops in June, 1917, until its enlargement into the newly formed opthalmic center in April, 1918, and described the growth and development of the latter institution, with a sketch of its purpose and the scope of its activities from that time until his departure for America on February 1, 1919.

Detachment of the Retina in Eclampsia.

Dr. Clapp read the paper published in full p. 473.

In discussion Drs. Harlan, Randolph and Fleming stated that they had never seen such a condition.

Albuminuric Retinitis.

Dr. Clapp then exhibited a fundal drawing of a case of acute albuminuric retinitis, which was very atypical. At each macula was a central pearly white mass surrounded by a yellowish white exudate; the right eye showed more advanced stage than the left; left macula showed some fat globules above surface of retina.

Neuroretinitis.

Dr. Downey presented a drawing of a case of acute neuroretinitis, which was found later to be specific.

Recovery of Sight After Injury.

Dr. Harlan reported a case of a gun-shot injury with the shot remaining in the eye, as shown by x-ray. He had given an opinion that the eye was lost; but recently had seen the patient and with a correcting glass the individual had a vision of 20/30.

C. A. Clapp, Secretary.

ABSTRACTS

Ramsay, A. Maitland.—Treatment of Prolapse of Iris. (British Journal of Ophthalmology, Nov. 1918, p. 554.)

This article presents a very good resumé of the usual methods of treating prolapse of the iris, with variations depending upon whether the case is one of recent origin or more than forty-eight hours standing, and whether the prolapse is due to a penetrating wound of the cornea or the result of a perforating ulcer of the cornea.

In speaking of quite recent prolapses

due to penetrating wounds of the cornea, Ramsay points out that such conditions may be overlooked by the inexperienced, since the grey color of the iris is difficult to see; that, however, the shape of the pupil is always altered, pear-shaped with the narrow part pointing to the prolapse; that the endeavor should be made to draw the iris out of the wound and back into the anterior chamber by atropin or eserin according to whether the wound is central or peripheral, but that this endeavor is not often successful since the bruised iris has lost its elasticity and is easily drawn into the wound after replacement and thus form an anterior synechia even though it does not prolapse again; and that, if replaced, infection may be carried into the eye. All things considered, therefore, believes careful excision to be the best treatment for a recent prolapse.

After excision of the prolapse in such cases, and coaptation of the edges of the wound, the latter is covered with a conjunctival flap brought from the limbus in the neighborhood of the wound. After the parts have been carefully dried, a coating of paraffin is applied to seal the edges of the flap to the cornea and give additional protection to the wound; the paraffin employed is a substitute for ambrin and is known as No. 7; it is non-irritating to the eye and is readily applied in the liquid state by a medium-sized camel-hair brush; it becomes solid almost immediately.

When the wound implicates the sclera as well as the cornea and the prolapse includes the ciliary body and cornea as well as the iris, with loss of vitreous, no speculum should be employed but the upper lid be held back with retractor or strabismus hook. The bulbar conjunctiva should be separated from the posterior lip of the wound, and undermined freely for a considerable distance around the seat of injury. The whole of the prolapse uvea must now be carefully excised, and the lips of the wound approximated by drawing the conjunctiva over the cornea like an apron, and fixing it securely in its new position by as many sutures as may be required—the fewer, however, the better. No attempt ought to be made to stitch the sclera.

Next he considers the treatment of prolapse following penetrating wounds which has existed several days, pointing out the necessity of breaking down adhesions and the difficulties connected with such separation, and also the necessity for avoiding the entrance of sepsis into the interior of the globe. When the prolapse is small, it may be wisest to leave it alone altho the subsequent danger of secondary glaucoma and the liability to future infection must be remembered; on this account it is advised to deal surgically with such prolapses, if prudent to do so, by separating the iris from the lips of the wound and excising and then removing any tags of iris tissue left behind with fine forceps or scissors. If the edges of the wound show signs of septic infection they should be touched with the galvanocautery, and afterwards covered with a conjunctival flap. In such cases, the writer is in the habit of giving 4,000 units of antidiphtheritic serum subcutaneously and a second dose of half this amount twelve hours afterwards; he has seen favorable results following the use of serum and advises its use confidently in all cases where the eyeball is infected.

Finally, the treatment of prolapse due to perforating ulcer of the cornea is considered; this complication may follow the perforation of any cornea ulcer but occurs most frequently in the marginal ulcer seen in phlyctenular keratitis in children. In such cases the opportunity for simple excision rarely presents itself since the ophthalmic surgeon does not, as a rule, see the child until several days after the perforation has taken place. Under such circumstances, a small prolapse is found covered with exudate, speedily transferred into connective tissue, and the only prudent treatment is to leave the case to nature. When, however, the prolapse is large, the remains of the cornea and newly formed connective tissue are not strong enough to

withstand the force of the intraocular pressure, so, instead of the prolapse flattening, it bulges forwards, and unless something can be done to arrest it, the eye will be destroyed by anterior staphyloma or by general distension of the globe; in such cases the expectant plan of treatment is unsuccessful and an attempt should be made to reduce the prolapse and to strengthen the cicatrix. The night before the operation the conjunctival sac is filled with White's ointment (1:3000 bichlorid) and at the time of the operation the skin of the eyelids and surrounding parts is painted with iodin. The conjunctiva is then seized by forceps and divided with scissors at the sclerocorneal border in the neighborhood of the prolapse, and separated freely from the episcleral tissues. The prolapse is now burned down to the level of the cornea by galvanocautery, heated to a dull red, care being taken not to destroy the exudate which seals the iris to the substance of the cornea, and if possible the anterior chamber should not be emptied. The conjunctiva which has been separated from the eyeball is then drawn over the prolapse and the ulcer of the cornea, so as to cover them completely. While the flap is held in position by two pairs of forceps, a small piece of conjunctiva should be excised on either side, in order that, when the sutures are tied, two raw surfaces are approximated; this prevents the flap from slipping back into its former position and greatly assists the whole object of the operation which is to bring about the firm healing of the flap of conjunctiva, the cauterized surface of the iris and the edge of the ulcer of the cornea. The conjunctiva supporting the cornea should be covered by a layer of paraffin, atropin instilled, followed by a disc of ten-per-cent collargol gelatin. In several weeks healing will have taken place, but secondary glaucoma may supervene; hence iridectomy should be performed. When the iris is drawn towards the cicatrix so that the pupil is obstructed, the iridectomy should be placed so as to give the most satisfactory optical result. Even at best, however, vision is seriously impaired, and in cases of deep ulcers of the cornea every effort ought to be made to prevent accidental perforation by timely paracentesis of the cornea through the floor of the ulcer; by that means prolapse of the iris will be prevented and the formation of anterior staphyloma avoided.

C. H. M.

Morax, Moreau, and Castelain.—Types of Alteration of Macular Vision in Traumatic Occipital Lesions. Ann. d'Ocul., 1919, v. 156, p. 1.

The authors describe the lesions seen since 1914, using the method of examination described by Moreau. (Ann. d'Ocul., 1918, v. 155, p. 357.) The great difference between traumatic hemianopsia and that due to vascular or meningeal lesions is that in the former there is initial great intensity of functional disturbance, a complete blindness which may last days or weeks, to be replaced months later by circumscribed loss of function in the form of a scotoma, often very limited, in similar parts of the visual fields. Once established, this does not change, the hemianopsia remaining a permanent lesion. The patients described were examined in this stage, and were 88 in number, comprising only those where the trauma affected the occipital centers and not the fibers elsewhere, e. g., the chiasm.

The functional ability of the retina may be divided into three zones, (a) the zone of fixation, corresponding to the macula, 1.5° to 2°; (b) the central zone, corresponding to the macula, about 10°; and (c) the peripheral zone, the rest of the retina. The present article deals with lesions affecting only the first two zones. Lesions of the right hemisphere cause left homonymous hemianopsia; while lesions of the left hemisphere cause right homonymous hemianopsia. To produce bilateral homonymous hemianopsia, a lesion of both hemispheres is necessary.

There are seven types of hemianopsia summarized in the following table:

Types of Hemianopsia.

I. Homonymous hemianopsia, 27 cases.	
A. Not affecting macular vision	19 cases
B. Affecting macular vision	8 cases
I.. Sector hemianopsia, 18 cases.	
1. Inferior	
A. Not affecting macular vision	6 cases
B. Affecting macular vision	8 cases
2. Superior	
A. Not affecting macular vision	1 case
3. Double inferior	
A. Not affecting macular vision	3 cases
III. Hemianopic scotoma, 20 cases.	
1. Median type	
A. Without macular involvement	1 case
B. With macular involvement	4 cases
2. Inferior sector	
A. Without macular involvement	3 cases
B. With macular involvement	4 cases
3. Double sector	
A. Without macular involvement	4 cases
B. With macular involvement	1 case
IV. Homonymous hemianopsia with hemianopic scotoma of the opposite side, 14 cases.	
A. Without macular involvement	4 cases
B. With macular involvement	10 cases
V. Double hemianopic scotoma, 4 cases.	
1. Median	2 cases
2. Inferior	2 cases
VI. Homonymous hemianopsia with central scotoma	2 cases
VII. Blindness	1 case
	86 cases

Each type is illustrated by one or more case histories with fields of vision, and drawings indicating location of the cranial wound. C. L.

Cantonnet, A.—The "Hole in the Hand" Test of Binocular Vision. Med. Press, Oct. 23, 1918.)

The writer describes an amusing physical phenomenon which he considers an excellent means of guaging binocular vision: If a cardboard tube or roll of paper is held before one eye, the right for example, and the left hand is placed open about ten inches before the left eye, the right eye will see whatever is visible thru the lumen of the tube, while the left eye sees only the hand; the images of the two eyes are fused in the brain, and we get the impression that the left hand has a hole in it thru which we see the objects comprised in the field of vision as seen thru the tube.

Cantonnet uses this test not only for the purpose of proving binocular vision, in which case both the tube objects and the hand must be seen, but he employs it to detect heterophoria: If the tube is seen to the right of the center of the hand or to the right of the hand, this indicates excessive convergence; if the hole is seen on the left side of the hand or to the left of the hand, this shows divergence; if the hole is displaced perpendicularly, a vertical deviation exists.

This test is recommended as simple and sensitive especially as a means of diagnosis at the disposal of the general practitioner, though he also finds it of great service in the treatment of strabismus at all stages. C. H. M.

J. E. L. Kraft and **G. ten Doesschate.—Treatment of Gonorrheal Ophthalmia by Diathermia.** (Tydschrift, f. Geneesk, July 21, 1917.) These authors report three cases.

The patients were treated with the large instrument of Koch and Storzel, which receives an alternating current of about 150 volts, with 50 alternations in the second. This current comes from the street current, a direct current of 220 volts, thru a special transformer. The instrument is regulated in the primary and secondary diathermia current. The regulation of this last one depends on the sensibility of the patient, with consideration of possible diminishing of the heat sense. The electrode which is put on the eye is made from solid metal and bent so that the surface conforms to the front of the eyeball. Between the lids and electrode a thin layer of cotton, wet in salt solution, is put. The other (lead) electrode is tied around the patient's neck.

It is most probable that the success is due to the heat development with its successive hyperemia, as nothing is seen of electric reactions.

Case 1. Eighteen years old, treated for gonococcal urethritis since Nov. 27. On Dec. 9 L. E. became inflamed. Next day he was sent to Utrecht. Treatment with 2% Arg. nit., 10% protargol and 1/5000 potas. permang. The right conjunctival sac became also infected, but was well again after a few days. In the left appears, especially at the upper side of the cornea, a strong chemosis, so that this is covered half way. An ulcer followed, the keratitis kept growing in severity, and gonococci were continuously found in the pus.

On Dec. 23 L. E. was treated with thermopenetration, current less than ½ ampere. After three hours the chemosis had nearly disappeared.

Dec. 24, there was no more secretion of pus; no chemosis, the cornea had cleared. After two more treatments, of 15 minutes duration, the patient was discharged cured.

Case 2. Two years later a second patient was treated. March 13, a 26 years old man showed a gonorrhoic inflammation of L. E. without symptoms of urethritis. He came under treatment on March 24 with L. E. V = 1/200; perforation of cornea and prolapse of iris; R. E. V —5/5. L. E. kept secreting pus containing gonococci in spite of diathermia treatment. On March 26 R. E. showed pus with gonococci, with lowered vision. Two hours after the first diathermia treatment (during 15 minutes) no gonococci were found in the quickly diminishing pus. R. E. was cured quickly, while it took about 10 days to sterilize L. E.

Case 3. Man 24 years old had for 6 days pain in L. E., and since 4 days of R. E. in connection with gonorrhoic urethritis. The patient came with a large deep ulcer of L. E. Besides the usual treatment he received daily diathermia treatment; but the number of cocci in the pus hardly diminished. The skin of the eyelids was strongly macerated thru preceding moist compresses, which prevented reaching high temperature, on account of pain. In the night of April 14 the ulcer of O. S. perforated, after this no gonococci could be demonstrated. They continued a few in R. E.; but disappeared after starting diathermia again, which had been stopped during some days for some accidental reasons. E. E. B.

Medical Inspection of Schools in New Zealand. (The Medical Journal of Australia, 13-4-18).

From 1912 to 1916 six doctors examined 100,000 children. From 7% to 10% of the children have defective vision. The inspectors notify the children as defective when they read less than 6/9 in each eye with Snellen's test-types. As usual more defective sight is found in the upper classes. Owing to various causes the child is compelled to choose between no treatment at all or treatment by an unqualified optician. It is suggested children's clinics should be established in connection with the out-patient departments of the hospitals. For country children no scheme has as yet been evolved F. P. M.

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THE ABUSE OF CANALICOTOMY IN SIMPLE EPIPHORA.

Is there or is there not a tendency among the rank and file of Ophthalmic Surgeons toward sane and safe treatment of lacrimal diseases, especially the simple forms of lacrimal obstruction? The conservatism of the Philadelphia Surgeons, the radicalism of Baltimore and of some Surgeons in the Middle West, are the extremes.

Is there no safe middle ground? Yes:— The treatment is drainage, first, last and all the time, but anatomic drainage and not artificial drainage. Why is canalicotomy for epiphora so often performed in these more enlightened days, when the cause, be it conjunctivitis with excess of tears and thickened secretions, punctal obstruction, lacrimal sac catarrh, closure of the saccal or nasal ends likely due to hypertrophied turbinals or deflected septum leading to obstruction, may and should be first removed before radical procedures are performed upon the tear passages?

Certainly if probing is to be resorted to, dilatation of the punctum is the first step, to be followed by syringing with mild solutions. If cocain with adrenalin then be injected into the sac, large sized probes, even No. 8 Bowman, 6 Fox or 4 Theobald may be passed without pain and without resort to the unwarranted slitting of the canaliculus. These sounds are as large as the normal bony canals will contain. Then after removal of the ocular or nasal cause a practical cure will ensue.

The lacrimal puncta are not only the beginning of the sewer system for the drainage of the tears and mucous secretions, but the canaliculi form with these entrances a very perfect capillary, gravity and suction pump apparatus, the latter acting both by the ring muscle around its lumen and by the pressure massage of the movements of the lids. All but the open sewer gravity functions of the lacrimal passages are destroyed by the transformation of this tube into a slot by slitting the canaliculus by the Weber, Bowman or Stilling knives. Canalicotomy should not be done except in the presence of pus in the sac, and for that not very often.

H. V. W.

THE ATLANTIC CITY MEETINGS

It is safe to say that the gathering of Ophthalmologists in the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June 11-13, at Atlantic City, was the largest gathering of the kind that will be held this year anywhere in the world. There were more than 450 who registered their attendance, about one-tenth of the total registration of the Association; and among those who registered with the Section on Laryngology, Otology, and Rhinology were many who divided their time between the meetings of the two sections.

The meetings of the American Ophthalmological Society which followed, June 14-17, were smaller, about 120 registered; but were of equal scientific interest and importance. This oldest American organization of specialists seems largely to have recovered its scientific activity, after the depression incident to the absence of members in military service.

In the programs of both meetings war requirements, emergencies and experiences furnished the dominant interest. Almost half of those whose names appeared upon the programs had been in active service, and nearly all the others had been serving on the various boards and units for the examination of recruits. While war experiences have been the basis of so many of the papers presented and discussed at these meetings, the more complete history of ophthalmology and the advances it made in the recent war is yet to be written, after individual observations have been more generally coordinated, and more thoro study has been bestowed upon them.

In the reports of the above meetings to appear in this JOURNAL the attempt will be made to duplicate as little as possible, the reading matter put before our subscribers. A steadily increasing number of foreign subscribers must be informed of what is going on in Ophthalmology in the United States; but the bulk of our readers are American. The *Journal of the American Medical Association* reaches the great majority of them, and in it will be published most of the papers and discussions of the Section. These papers have already reached half our readers in the presession volume; and all of them will become available thru the transactions of the section, which will also contain a full report of the discussions to which they have given rise. Under these circumstances, except for the few papers that do not get published in the *A. M. A. Journal,* the account given in these pages will be little more than a resumé that will indicate what may be found in these fuller reports.

With the American Ophthalmological Society it is different. Its program with brief abstracts of most of the papers is sent to its members, less than 200 in number; and when its transactions containing those papers, and the discussions to which they gave rise, are published, they will have but a limited circulation outside its membership. Hence it is right that more of those papers should be published in full in this journal and elsewhere; and we will try to give a more complete account of both papers and discussions than is required for the meetings of the Section.

However much of value may be gained from reading reports of these meetings, let no one suppose such reading can be equivalent to attendance on the meetings themselves. Personal contact with one's colleagues, the subtle significance of tone and manner, cannot be transferred to the printed page; and much of the value of the meeting lies in those private talks between two or three friends where discussion is directed by individual interests and needs, where question and answer can follow each other so directly that the discussion is always kept to the point, and there can be no failure of interest.

The efficiency of democracy is kept up by the continual infusion of new blood. Much of the success of these organizations depends on the wise choice of a new presiding officer each year, one who is familiar with the work of the society from long participation in it, and is particularly interested in making the meeting of his year a success.

The routine work of the organization is done by the Secretary, who when found efficient, is kept in office so long as he feels himself sufficiently compensated by the thanks and appreciation of his colleagues; and by a standing committee. In the Section of the A. M. A., the "Executive Committee" consists of the Chairmen of the three years immediately preceeding. In the American Ophthalmological Society, the "Council" is composed of five members, one chosen each year to replace the senior member, who retires from that body.

This year it was not surprising that the officers of the Section should be chosen from among those who had been the leaders of so large a portion of its members in military service. But it was an interesting coincidence that three of them had been so closely associated in their work in France, as the accompanying photographic reproduction shows. Dr. Allen Greenwood was chosen Chairman, Dr. Nelson Miles Black, Vice-chairman, and Dr. George S. Derby, Secretary of the Section.

Dr. Lee Masten Francis, who will represent the Section in the House of Delegates, was also closely associated with his colleagues in the work in France. Dr. Walter R. Parker, late chief of the Division of Surgery of the Head in the Surgeon General's Office, was chosen to represent the Section on the American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations. He succeeds Dr. Edward C. Ellett who by the completion of his second term on the Board became ineligible for reelection.



Nelson Miles Black George S. Derby
Allen Greenwood

In the American Ophthalmological Society, custom determines the choice of the Vice-President of one year, to be the President of the next. In this way Dr. Hiram Woods of Baltimore becomes President of the Society and

Dr. John E. Weeks of New York, Vice-President. Dr. Thomas B. Holloway of Philadelphia, having in the last year proven an efficient Secretary, is re-elected to that office.

Next year the American Medical Association will meet in New Orleans, probably early in May; and the American Ophthalmological Society will meet at Hot Springs, Va., in June. Those in charge of the preparations for these meetings are among our most valued collaborators and contributors. We tender them the hearty support of this journal in making their meetings most useful to the ophthalmologists of America. E. J.

WELCOME TO THE NEW EYE JOURNAL.

The Revista Cubana de Oftalmologia, under directorship of Dr. Francisco Maria Fernandez, of Havana, Cuba, with a large list of collaborators thruout the world, save in the enemy countries.

Surely this is the most pretentious first number of an eye journal that has appeared. It is a quarterly and to the reviewer's great pride, has been modeled upon the former American Quarterly, "Ophthalmology," now amalgamated with our journal.

The first number contains two hundred and twenty-six pages, of which sixteen are given to biographies of some of the editors of the original articles. Eight are by Juan Santos Fernandez upon various subjects. Of particular interest are those on cataract and trachoma. Uribe Troncoso has an article on acné-rosacea of the eye. Espino, Rinconos, Gonzales, Penichet, Cohen, Escolano, Francisco Fernandez and Guiral have the others.

A number of paragraphs are given to the progress of Ophthalmology, and more to extracts from the literature. Reviews of French, Spanish, American and Japanese journals are given.

Reports of the Section on Ophthalmology of the New York Academy of Medicine, the Ophthalmological Society of Madrid, and the Mexican Ophthalmological Society, together with necrologic notices and news items, make up a very commendable book.

The printing, paper and illustrations are beautifully done. Certainly Fernandez' ambition has led him to begin a great work, a man-sized job in fact, and a credit to the foreign language press.

H. V. W.

BOOK NOTICES.

The Blind, their condition and the work being done for them in the United States. By **Harry Best,** PhD., New York; The MacMillan Company. 1919. 763 Pages. Price $4.00.

After a life-time spent in the treatment of the eyes by the reviewer, it has always been a marvel to him that the practising oculist sees relatively so few of the blind. Our work being preventive of this terrible condition, it behooves us to have a little more knowledge of those who have passed beyond our help and this work is therefore a welcome source of information. The field of inquiry therein has been limited mostly to the United States, but takes up a vast number of subjects under the general headings of "The General Conditions of The Blind; Blindness and the Possibilities of its Prevention; Provision for the Education of Blind Children; Intellectual Provision for the Adult Blind; Material Provision for the Blind; Organizations Interested in the Blind; Conclusions with Respect to the Work for the Blind." Our particular interests are the questions of pensions, indemnities and legal measures. A great number of abstracts of legal cases are given, and are very valuable for reference. As experts, ophthalmologists are more or less often called into court, and questioned about these things.

H. V. W.

This book contains a wealth of material regarding blindness, as seen in its sociologic, institutional, economic and legislative aspects. If to it one adds the insight into personal problems and living adjustments, that are so well revealed in the little book of Javal, he

will have a very good mastery of the subject in all its phases; as it is liable to be presented to the ophthalmologist by patients, corporations or courts seeking his advice and assistance.

E. J.

The Refraction of the Eye. A Manual for Students, by **Gustavus Hartridge,** F. R. C. S. London, Sixteenth Edition. 12 mo., 294 pages, with one hundred and ten illustrations. Philadelphia. P. Blakiston's Son and Co. 1919. Price, $2.25.

With regard to such a book, which has reached its 16th edition, the function of this notice is merely to introduce the work to a new set of readers, a new generation of students of ophthalmology.

As the subject of refraction becomes a fixed and definite part of the medical curriculum, we may expect a long life for the best text books relating to it. By comparison with others of its class this is found, after 35 years, still to be the best for the average physician taking up the study of ophthalmology as a specialty. It presents the basic facts briefly and clearly, with an abundance of illustrations, and practically no algebraic formulas to struggle with.

The plan of representing astigmatism by two lines at right angles to each other, and accompanying figures to give the diopters of ametropia in each meridian has been introduced to the profession thru this little work, and, is widely used to help understand and teach the subject.

Perhaps the most important additions we find are the account of new kinds of glass used in spectacles, and of the visual requirements for the Royal Air Force which has come into existence since the 15th edition was published. It is in striking contrast with the American standard, that the British admits fliers with vision of 6/12 in the best eye capable of correction to 6/6, and in the worse eye, 6/18 correctible to 6/12.

There are larger books on refraction, but none better than that of Donders which has been before the profession for 55 years. There are important things that are only to be learned from these larger works. But it would be a grave mistake for any one starting out to get a practical working knowledge of the subject to begin with the treatise of Donders, or others of similar size and detail. The best we can say of Hartridge's book is that it has all its old excellences and is kept well up to date.

E. J.

The American Encyclopedia and Dictionary of Ophthalmology. Edited by Col. Casey A. Wood, M. R. C., U. S. A., etc. Assisted by a large staff of collaborators. Fully illustrated. Vol. XIV. Chicago, Cleveland Press, 1919.

This volume carries the work from "Protractor" to "Retina, Cyst of the," making the number of pages thus far issued 11,208. The number of collaborators who have contributed to this work is 61, of whom 8 are already deceased. Judging by other encyclopedias and dictionaries there should be about three volumes still to come, and with the continued good health of the Editor and energy of the publisher these should be forthcoming by about the end of next year. We can begin to feel sure that it will be completed; and as such a tremendous undertaking is not likely to be attempted again in the near future, this work with possible supplementary volumes will long remain the great reference work on ophthalmology and related subjects.

In this volume, as in its predecessors, certain subjects, because of their scientific and practical importance and the space given them, stand out prominently. "Pupil in Health and Disease," written by Dr. Derrick T. Vail, occupies 245 pages, and constitutes the most complete monograph on its subject to be found in any language. But it differs from most monographs in adopting the encyclopedic, alphabetic arrangement of the topics treated. Thus "Diagnostic Value of the Pupil" is followed by "Dilated Abnormally," and "Epilepsy," "Eserin," and "Essential Mydriasis" follow each other in immediate succession. The number of such topics is several hundred, and

there are many cross references within the section, so that it is really a better work for references than a more systematic monograph might be. To have stimulated the production of such an addition to ophthalmic literature is something in which Editor and Publisher might well take pride.

The other long section of this volume is the one on "Refraction and Accommodation of the Eye" by A. Edward Davis, 255 pages. Alphabetic arrangement is here impossible. So the section is broken into chapters, the headings of which are arranged in a sort of table of contents, placed at the beginning of the section; and prefixed to this is a list of cross references to 24 other sections of the Encyclopedia which bear on portions of the subject.

About half the section is devoted to "Introductory Principles and Methods of Human Refraction," and the remainder to "Clinical Applications of Refraction Methods." In the latter part illustrative cases are used very extensively. In the former we find, as familiarity with Dr. Davis previous writings would lead one to expect, an excellent, detailed account of the use of the ophthalmometer.

But it must not be supposed that these long sections include nearly all there is of interest and value in this volume. The section on "Radium in Eye Diseases," 10 pages, by the Editor, will be found fresh and of important interest to every one who is trying to keep up to date in ophthalmic practice. The same is true of such sections as those on "Retina, Angioid Streaks in the," "Angiomatosis," "Angiosclerosis." "Pterygium," 23 pages, and "Ptosis," 47 pages, will measure up to standard. They also appear to be the work of the Editor, who has evidently taken a larger share in the compilation of the present volume than of most of its predecessors. With the return of men from military service the support of a wider circle of collaborators should be possible. The Encyclopedia is a live, going concern, and is worthy of editorial as well as of financial support.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Charles Benson, of Dublin, died February 16, 1919.

A. A. Bradburne, formerly of Manchester, after lingering illness during which he resided in the south of England, died May 13th.

Walter Thomas Clegg, London, died in May, 1919.

Sir James MacKenzie Davidson, London, died at the age of 62. He was one of the foremost authorities in the world on X-rays, especially in their applicability to ophthalmology.

Louis Edouard Desjardins, of Montreal, died recently.

Edward F. Drake-Brochman, London, died early in May after a brief illness, aged 76.

James Hinshelwood, of Glasgow, died recently at Mentone, at the age of 60 years.

Lieut.-Col. Wm. Watson, C. M. G., F. R. S., died recently. He was one of the Professors of Physics at the Imperial College of Science, South Kensington. He was well known for his work on color vision.

COMING MEETINGS.

The Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmic Society will meet at San Francisco August 4-7.

The Colorado Ophthalmologic Congress will be held in Denver, August 4-5, and will include both ophthalmic and oto-laryngologic papers and discussions.

The American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology will meet at Cleveland, Ohio, Oct. 16, 17, 18.

PERSONAL.

Dr. Alexander Brown announces the removal of his offices from the Medical Building to the Lathrop Building, San Francisco, California.

The residue of the estate of the late Dr. Richard A. Reeve, of Toronto, goes to the University of Toronto, but the amount is not definitely known.

Dr. Ryuzo Kodama, Associate Professor of Ophthalmology in the Tohoku Imperial University, Japan, is studying with Professor Ludwig Hekoten, of Chicago, Illinois; and attended the ophthalmological meetings at Atlantic City.

Dr. Francisco Maria Fernandez of Havana, Cuba, was a guest at the meetings of the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association and of the American Ophthalmological Society. He expects to remain in the United States thruout most of the summer.

According to the British Journal of Ophthalmology, C. B. Goulden, late of Oldham, has been appointed surgeon to the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital. W. H. Brazil has been appointed ophthalmic surgeon to the Stratford-upon-Avon General Hospital. C. Killick, late of Maidstone, has been appointed surgeon to the Bradford Royal Eye and Ear Hospital. Alfred E. A. Loosely has been appointed assistant surgeon in the ophthalmic out-patient department at the London Temperance Hospital.

Col. Casey A. Wood, M. R. C., was recently surprised, deeply gratified and much touched by a letter from Mrs. John Couper, of London, England, in which he was informed that her husband (an old friend and teacher of Dr. Wood's) had bequeathed to the Doctor his own well-worn ophthalmoscope. This is the famous instrument which Mr. Couper used for so many years, and around which, for all the old-time students of Couper, there cluster so many very pleasant associations. The instrument is a "Couper ophthalmoscope" in even a secondary sense, being one of the long, slender ophthalmoscopes invented by Couper and supplied with the familiar endless chain of lenses subsequently adopted by Morton as the essential mechanism of his, perhaps, more widely known ophthalmoscope. The instrument will be mounted in a specially prepared case, and, so protected, will, together with the letter of Mrs. Couper and the biographic notice of her distinguished husband from the pen of Dr. Thomas Hall Shastid in this JOURNAL be presented to the Library of McGill University.

MILITARY NOTES.

Dr. George F. Suker, Chicago, has returned from military service to private practice.

Dr. Vard H. Hulen has returned to San Francisco after several months active duty in France.

Dr. Harry S. Gradle released from military service, has resumed practice at 22 E. Washington St., Chicago, Illinois.

Dr. Alexander D. McConachie, of Baltimore, announces that he has returned from France, and has resumed practice of ophthalmology and oto-laryngology.

Dr. H. W. Dudley has opened an office in San Francisco. Dr. Hans Barkan of San Francisco, will return to private practice on July first, after receiving his discharge from the army.

Lieut.-Col. Edward C. Ellett of Memphis, Tenn., who was commanding officer of Base Hospital Number 115, returned home about May 15th from his service overseas.

We are sure that all ophthalmologists who have returned from the service, have not been reported to us. Those who have been overlooked will confer a favor by so advising us.

Major Charles A. Bahn, M. C., Tulane University, New Orleans, formerly Adjutant Base Hospital 24, Ophthalmologist Base Hospital 24, and Consultant in Ophthalmology Limoges Hospital Center, is now visiting the eye clinics of Paris and assisting in the instruction of American officers studying there. Major Bahn is preparing an article on "Ophthalmological Paris" to be published shortly.

SOCIETIES.

Dr. Arthur J. Bedell, Albany, was appointed Chairman and Dr. I. W. Voorhees, New York City, Secretary of the Eye, Nose and Throat Section at the recent meeting of the New York State Medical Society.

Dr. Frank Allport, Chicago, was elected President and Dr. Chas. F. Burkhardt, Effingham, Secretary of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the Illinois State Medical Society.

The annual meeting of the Ophthalmological Society of Egypt met on Friday, March 7th, 1919, one day only, at Cairo. The paper on "Causes of Blindness in Egypt," read by Dr. A. F. MacCallen will appear in full in an early number of this JOURNAL.

MISCELLANEOUS.

"The National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness," Inc. leads the movement for the conservation of vision in the United States, publishes the facts about needless blindness and how to prevent it, plans campaigns of education and advises the workers, provides the literature with which to educate the people, promotes legislation for protecting helpless infancy from the great calamity of being made blind, and carries on relentless warfare on trachoma, wood alcohol poisoning, industrial accidents, harmful lighting conditions, and other causes of impairment of vision. This committee has members in every state in the Union, and in many foreign countries, and is glad to welcome everyone interested in this most necessary work of preventing needless blindness and deterioration of sight.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Middleton, A. B. Congenital Eye Conditions Affecting Vision Out of Three Hundred Thousand Troops at Camp Travis, Texas. (1 col. pl., 6 ill.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 377-388.

Panni, N. P. Detection of Simulated Myopic Blindness. (1 ill. Charts.) Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 219-224.

Tuttle, E. R. Eye Symptoms an Aid to Diagnosis. Florida Med. Assn. Jour. April, 1919, p. 177.

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Santos Fernandez, J. Paralysis of Third Pair After Injury to Head. Rev. de Cubana de Oft., v. 1, p. 280.

Theobald, S. Correction of Muscular Anomalies of Eyes. (Dis.) Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 72, pp. 1827-1831.

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Dwight, C. G. Trachoma. Wisconsin Med. Jour., v. 17, p. 485.

Fernandez, F. M. Provoked Conjunctivitis. (Bibl.) Rev. Cubana de Oft., v. 1, pp. 343-347.

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Hiwatari. Origin of Lymph Follicles. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, Sept., 1918.

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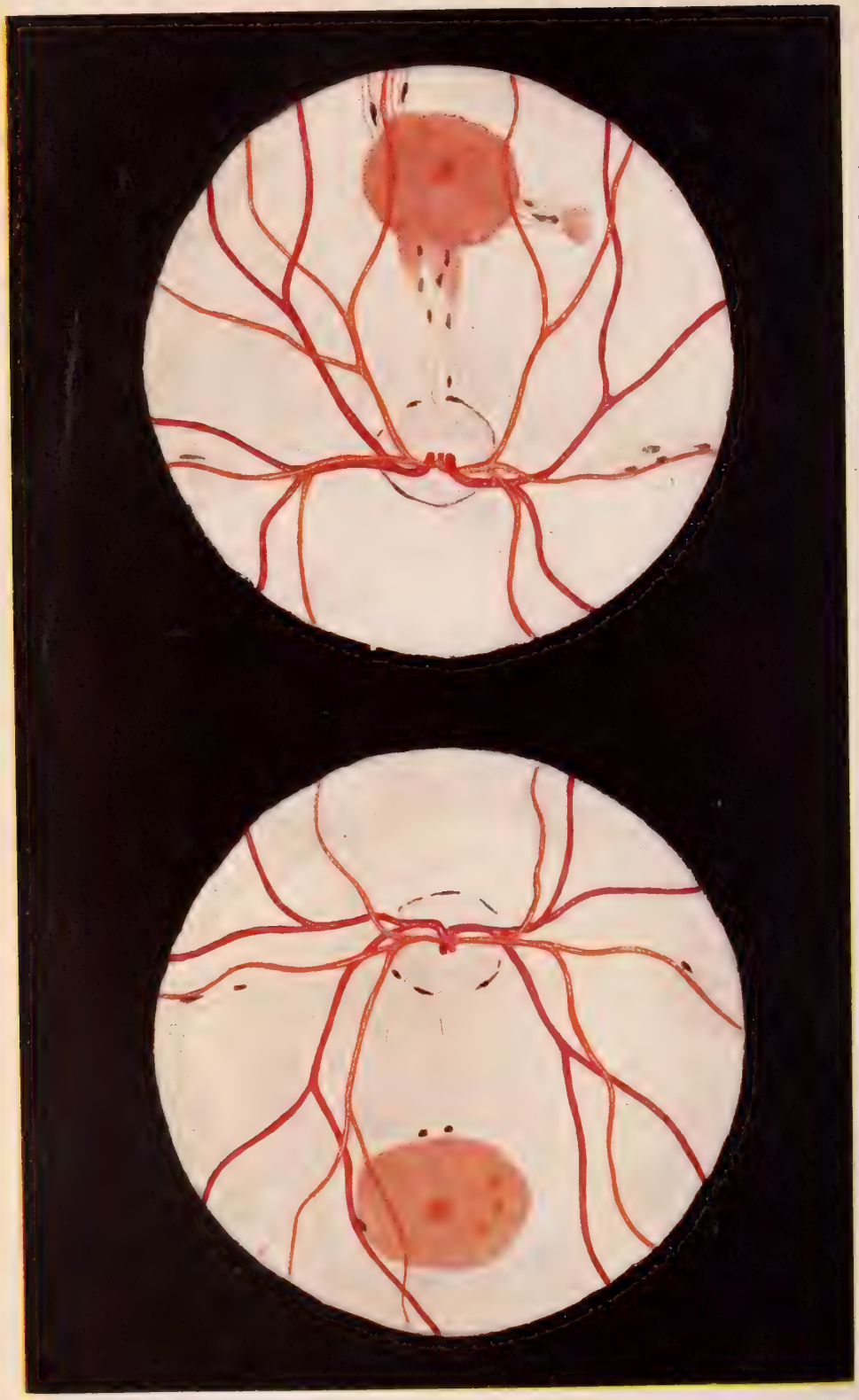
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CHOROIDEREMIA. ABSENCE OF CHOROID OVER ENTIRE FUNDUS EXCEPT MACULAR REGION. (CONNOR'S CASE.)

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CONGENITAL CHOROIDEREMIA

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This case of absence of the entire choroid except in the macular area, observed by Captain Connor during his recent service in the Medical Corps in the United States Army, is of special interest because of the extremely small number of such cases hitherto reported. The circumstances under which this case was discovered indicate that they may be less rare than the reports seem to show.

On February 16th, 1918, Corp. C. B., Bat. B. 78 F. Art., came to the eye department of the Base Hospital at Camp Logan, Texas; complaining that he could not see to get about at night. Recently while on guard duty at night he had failed to recognize and salute an officer. As the bridge where the guards were stationed was over a deep drainage ditch, the soldier feared he would walk off some night and seriously injure himself.

Vision was tested with the regulation test type and found to be 20/20 in each eye. When told that his vision was normal, he replied, "Oh yes, I can see as well as anyone in the day time, but I cannot see as well as other people when it begins to get dark." This condition has existed as long as soldier could remember, eyes had never been sore and did not trouble him when he went to school. He had formed the habit at home of not going out much at night, unless some relative or friend went with him.

Patient twenty-five years old, a strong, well-developed soldier. Before entering the Army he did clerical work without trouble to his eyes. Personal history negative, not sick since childhood, thinks he had measles when six or seven years old, not very sick and does not think eyes were affected, denies venereal infection.

Parents both living and well, not related. One sister and one brother, living and well, none dead. No other case of night blindness in family that he knew of, and none have any form of eye trouble except one uncle on mother's side had repeated attacks of sore eyes. Says uncle had been ordered to wear glasses, but he does not think eyes were benefited by their use.

Examination shows lids and conjunctiva normal—pupils equal and respond to light and accommodation, iris normal and dark brown color.

Ophthalmoscopic examination shows cornea, lens and vitreous clear, but the picture presented by the fundus is most striking. Instead of the red fundus reflex usually seen, the examining eye encounters a glistening white fundus over which the larger retinal vessels appear about normal in size and distribution, (as shown in Plate XII). The sclerotic is exposed to view over the entire fundus, except a circular area about twice the size of the disc in the macular region. In this macular area the appearance of the fundus is normal, having the normal yellowish red color. The macula shows as a slightly darker spot in about the center of this patch of normal fundus. Scattered about the fundus are a few small ciliary vessels, and a few pigment spots. Both eyes are affected in the same way and present practically the same ophthalmoscopic picture, except that the left macular area is less regular in outline than the right, the latter

having choroidal vessels extending out from it, toward the disc and below.

Altho the retinal vessels appear entirely normal the retina itself is not properly developed over the white area, as shown by the markedly contracted, field of vision (Fig. 1) which accounts for the symptom "night blindness," of which patient complains. The color fields are correspondingly contracted, the red and green having their normal relation. Both eyes are one-half diopter hypermetropic.

In looking up the literature on anomalies of the choroid, the writer was able to find only one allusion to this peculiar choroidal defect recorded—

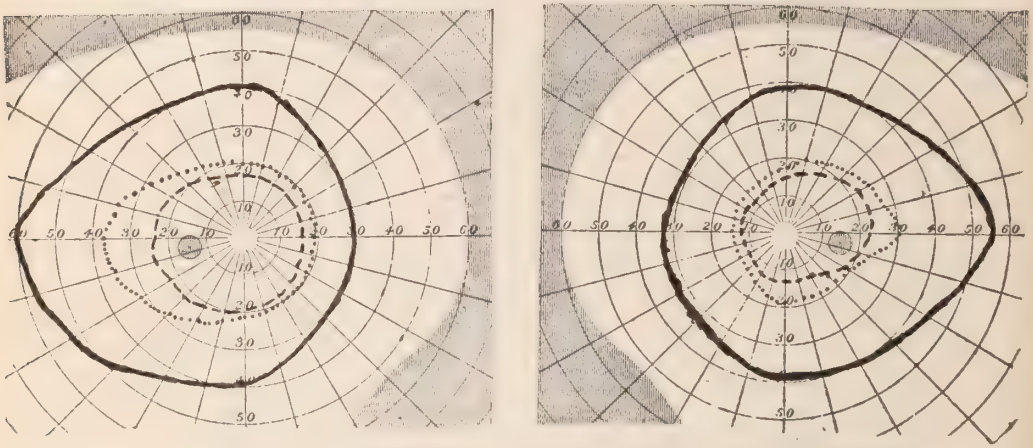


Fig. 1. Boundaries of Contracted Fields of Vision in a Case of Choroideremia (Connor).

that by the English ophthalmologist, the late Nettleship. A copy of Nettleship's original article was not available, but in de Schweinitz' book "Diseases of the Eye," we find: "A striking developmental abnormality is one in which the entire choroid except a small area in the region of the macula is absent. To this condition the name choroideremia, has been given. Both eyes are affected. The patients are night blind." (Nettleship.)

From the brief description from Nettleship's paper it will be seen that the lesion and symptoms presented by other cases were identical with those of our soldier.

The question naturally arises as to whether this condition called choroideremia is in reality a condition separate and distinct from the more common defect of the choroid, coloboma. Is the former dependent upon different etiologic factors, or is it simply an unusual form of coloboma?

Fuchs, in discussing the cause of coloboma, attributes the defects in the choroid to nonunion of the edges of the retinal cleft.

Wm. Lang calls attention to the fact that a failure of the retinal cleft to close, would not account for those colobomata which are covered with retina. According to Lang the explanation of all congenital defects of the choroid, wherever situated, is the same, an adhesion forms between the developing retina and mesoblast, which latter consequently fails to become differentiated into choroid and sclerotic. If the adhesion occurs before the closure of the retinal cleft, the coloboma is devoid of retinal covering; if it occurs after the retinal cleft has closed the coloboma is covered with retina.

The retinal fissure begins to close at its posterior extremity, the closure extending forward along the under surface of the optic stalk and optic vesicle, until the cleft should be completely closed by the second month of fetal life. This development may be arrested at any stage, hence the shape

of the typical coloboma is more or less triangular, situated in the lower segment of the fundus with the apex toward the optic disc, and broadening out as it extends forward toward the ciliary body. It may involve the ciliary body, iris and lens in this region, producing coloboma of these structures as an associated condition.

Whether or not colobomata of the choroid are due to adhesions between the blastodermic membranes as considered by Lang, it is certainly true that they usually occur along the line of the optic cleft and correspond to the general shape of this cleft during the various stages of its closure, so that we must consider their etiology as at least associated with the development and closure of this fissure.

The exception to this rule is found in those rare forms of coloboma which occur in areas of the fundus, remote from the region of the cleft, of which macular colobomata are examples.

In macular coloboma there is an absence of the choroid in the region of the macula, while in choroideremia, just the opposite is found, the macular area being the only part of the fundus which is supplied with choroid.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the lesion in choroideremia differs widely in location and extent from coloboma of the choroid; and it is not unreasonable to suppose that it has a different etiologic foundation.

The analog in embryonic life of what is later the macular area of the fundus is a spot on the outer surface of the secondary optic vesicle, where the first signs of differentiation of the mesoblast into sclera and choroid are seen, the first appearance of the choroid being manifest by a tiny plexus of capillaries at this point. Hence, in seeking an explanation of the cause of choroideremia, we must consider that differentiation of the mesoblast, of the secondary optic vesicles, into sclerotic and choroid, began in a normal way and at the normal point, but for some reason was arrested when only the macular area was supplied with choroid. [For references see p. 620.]

THE EYES OF THE SIGNALMAN

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This paper, by a scientific investigator who has had practical experience as a signal officer, is especially valuable for its coordination of the scientific and practical aspects of the subject. It was read before the American Ophthalmological Society, June 14th, 1919.

These observations are based on a two years' experience in charge of the signal bridge on the U. S. S. Granite State. During this time I had the opportunity of testing practically the ability of some two hundred men in making and reading signals. A hundred of these served on the bridge under my direct supervision, so that I could judge, by actual observation of their work and of the behavior of their eyes under active service conditions.

The relation of ophthalmology to naval signalling may be studied under two aspects.

1. What are the visual qualities required in order to carry on the delicate and important work of signalling at sea?

2. What is the reaction of the eye to work of this sort, i. e. what pathologic effects may result from the visual strain involved?

The first question alone will be considered here, since with rather extensive opportunities for observation, I have had no occassion to note any untoward effects from naval signalling.

To answer either question intelligently, we must consider:

1. The character of the work to be done; i.e., the types and methods of signalling employed.
2. The conditions under which the work is done.
3. The consequent demands made on the separate functions of the visual apparatus and the nervous system.

TYPES AND METHODS OF SIGNALLING USED.

The main methods used in naval signalling to-day are:

1. Flag hoist.
2. The hand semaphore.
3. Flash light, blinker and search light.

Other methods, like the Ardois, the wigwag, the Very system, the machine semaphore, and signalling by shapes, are either disused altogether or are used so rarely as not to require any special consideration.

To the requirements involved in these forms of signalling must be added those demanded by other duties of men on the bridge, including their work as lookouts.

FLAG HOIST. The flags used in the navy are the following:

1. International flags, 27 in number. Used both in international and navy signalling, but by entirely different codes, with both of which the signalman must be familiar. (I may point out that our men were also taught the English code, in which the same flags are used with still a different meaning).
2. Special navy signal flags, 16 in number.
3. Personal flags, from the president's flag, down to the commission pennant (captain's flag) and distinguishing flags of different branches of the service (coast guard, army transport, etc.). There are some 42 of these; or, including foreign ones, at least 60.
4. Ensigns and jacks of the United States and other nations. There are a great many of these, but 30 are commonly seen.
5. Call flags and call pennants, 46 in number.
6. Special English signal flags, numbering 35.

In other words, a man on the bridge has to be able to recognize and know the meaning of more than 200 different kinds of flags, of which 125 are in very frequent use.

The flags differ in shape and in color. In shape they are either square or oblong (called then collectively square flags, or simply flags); swallow-tailed (burgees); or triangular (pennants). The last are either very elongated, as in the commission pennant; moderately acute (twice or three times as long as broad); or equilateral, as in the senior officer's pennant. The colors found in flags are white, black, red, blue, yellow and green. The last is rare, being found in only one signal flag and in the ensigns of Italy, Portugal, Mexico, Bolivia and Brazil. Black occurs in three international and a few English signal flags and in the ensigns of Belgium, China and the central empires. The yellow used is a sort of sulphur color; the red is the hue of the stripes in the American ensign, or somewhat darker; the blue in American flags is the dark navy blue, in French flags a blue, lighter and therefore much more conspicuous.

The shape of a flag can be made out much further than can its color, and may by itself serve to distinguish the signal. Thus a burgee flying on an American man-of-war or merchant vessel must be either the international A or B, and, as the latter is a solid dark color (red) and the former a combination of light and dark (white and blue), it is easy to tell which flag it is, even if the actual hues in each cannot be distinguished. So too, it is always easy to make out the commission pennant, because no other flag has its whiplike shape.

If, however, a flag is fouled or is flapping a good deal, it may be hard to tell its shape, and then flags, otherwise alike, (international E and T, international G and K), may be mistaken for each other.

Another help in distinguishing the flag is its situation. Thus a flag flying at the flagstaff at the stern must be the ensign, and if it has another flag above it in the same hoist, the latter must be the church pennant; a dark flag flying in the bow must be a jack, while

a dark flag at the main truck must be the personal flag of a rear admiral or superior dignitary (vice admiral, admiral, secretary of the navy, president); a dark pennant flying at the forward yardarm must be the meal pennant, while one flying at the after starboard yardarm along with a commission pennant at the truck must be the flag of the senior officer present.

But with all these helps the main thing after all by which we distinguish the flags from each other is their color. In this respect they leave much to be desired. This is partly due to the impossibility of making up different sufficiently distinctive color patterns for all the 200 or more flags used; but it is also due to poor choice of hues. The reds, brilliant at first, become too dark when the flags grow dingy (as they soon do); and in American flags, even when new, the blue is much too dark. Both colors, especially the blue, contrast but little with a mixed background (military mast, smoke-pipes, or land); and the blue at a little distance looks black and is often hard to make out at all. To see how the hue we use interferes with visibility, we have only to contrast American and French admiral's flags flying on neighboring ships. The light blue of the French is distinguished as a color twice as far as the dark blue of the American; and the flag itself is seen further as a flag, because contrasting better with the average background.

On the other hand, the yellows used are sometimes either too light or insufficiently saturated, so that against a sunlit sky they look white and are not very clearly distinguishable.

The poor coloration is particularly noticeable in our call pennants, which are used for calling individual ships to receive a message. These are made up of blue, red and yellow bands, arranged to denote letters by the dot and dash code (red representing a dot, yellow a dash, and blue repeating the color immediately preceding). The blue is too dark, the blue and red when in juxtaposition afford too little contract, and under some conditions the yellow is too light. If the blue were decidedly lighter, the red had more yellow in it, and the yellow were darker, the pennants would be much easier to read.

Flag signals are intended to be hoisted rapidly and read instantaneously. The ability to read them instantaneously is absolutely essential in battle signals and in all maneuvres; hence the men are drilled to vie with one another in making, reading and answering such signals with the greatest possible speed. And even in ordinary work it is highly important to be able to recognize the flags quickly at a distance. For example, when a warship comes into port, it flies its identifying flags or "call" (international, naval, or both) and usually another signal, which requires immediate answer, such as the four flag hoist meaning "May I anchor in berth assigned?" The signalman on the flagship must be quick to read all these flags, so as to identify the incomer and, in the few minutes before it can reach its berth, report it and hoist the "Permission granted" signal.

With rare exceptions, messages sent by flag hoist are code messages: i.e., each hoist denotes a word, phrase, or entire message.

Semaphore. In the hand semaphore (of which the machine semaphore, still used by the English, is a variant), an alphabetic or spelling code is used, the separate letters being indicated by the position of the arms extended at different angles. Thity different positions must be distinguished. Ordinary messages are sent at the rate of 18 to 20 words a minute, but a man has to be able to read at the rate of 25 words a minute, and the practiced hands can read 30 words a minute or more. We derive our semaphore from the English, who are past masters at it. The French also have a semaphore, differing from ours and, indeed, better in some respects, being more legible and easier to make out. In our work during the past two years, we had some occasion to be concerned with this, as we had frequently to do with French as well as with English vessels. [The Dutch have still another variety.] In the wigwag, whose use is also practically

confined to sending spelling messages, each successive motion denotes, not an individual letter as in semaphore, but one of the dot and dash elements composing a letter according to the international Morse system. It consists simply in swinging a staff with a flag on the end either right, left or straight forward from the vertical position, a right swing denoting a dot, a left swing, a dash, and one to the front, an interval. As it takes, on an average, three motions to make a letter, and as the motions themselves cannot be made as fast as the changes of position in the semaphore, wigwag is about five times as slow as the latter. On the other hand, it is much more legible, since it is obviously a good deal easier simply to tell whether a motion is being made to the right or the left than it is to make out one of 30 possible positions made with the extended arms for only the fraction of a second. Hence the wigwag is used in landing parties or under other conditions when the distance is too great for semaphore and the searchlight cannot be employed. (A very effective, readily visible and readily legible form of wigwag is the torch and the hand lantern. These swung with the extended arm make an arc of light standing out clearly against the darkness. The movements, of course, are the same as with the flags.)

SEARCHLIGHT. This in the form either of the powerful searchlight, the flashlights on the yardarm (yardarm blinker), or the hand-held blinker tubes, is the regular method of signalling by night and is getting to be more and more used in the daytime also. The light is interrupted either by a make-and-break key in the circuit or by a shutter, and long and short flashes, corresponding to the dots and dashes of the continental Morse code, are thus made. The code and method are common to all nations, and we have repeatedly signalled by this means to French and Chilean, as well as to English and American ships.

This method has the great advantage over the others that signals sent by it can be read very much further and are not as much affected by weather conditions. It is, however, the most difficult of all methods, and proficiency in it is secured only by long and steady practice. It demands close concentration of sight and mind, and undivided attention. Practice during the first weeks is attended with visual and mental fatigue, so that the sight blurs and the mind wanders. With most persons this difficulty passes in time, altho men vary extremely in the rapidity with which they learn. Some few, mainly it would appear from lack of concentration, never get to be good searchlight readers, although they do well enough at the easier semaphore. In some of these cases it is possible that a refractive or muscular error had something to do with the disability, but my observations incline me to believe that it is due rather to mental inertness or nervous instability.

LOOKOUT DUTIES.

The man on the bridge is supposed to keep constant lookout. Altho the navy now divides quartermasters' duties, so that the ship's quartermaster does lookout work and the signal quartermaster confines himself to signals, yet in many cases the signal quartermaster has to attend to both. In any case he has to be capable of attending to both. He must then under all conditions of weather and visibility, make out, and make out at a distance, so as to report promptly, the rigs and distinguishing marks of all sorts of craft from a battleship to a motor launch, the insignia or flags that they carry, the various kinds of lights and shapes borne by ships to indicate what they are and what they are doing, and a great number of other things requiring mental alertness and quick and keen eyesight.

CONDITIONS WHICH AFFECT THE SEEING OF SIGNALS.

Even in good weather and with a clear atmosphere, signal work often makes high demands on a man's attention, his acuity and tenacity of vision, and his nerve control. A signal man must be able to keep his attention con-

centrated and his eyes glued on the sender, no matter what interruptions or distractions may occur, and particularly he must not lose his head if a word or symbol escapes him here and there. The tyro, no matter how well drilled, is apt to get excited when he is first put at doing real work on the bridge. If he misses a word, he goes to pieces and loses the whole message. Or his attention flags and he gets into a sort of daze, so that the symbols, especially the quickly alternating flashes of the searchlight, fail to make any impression on his mind. All this is due, of course, rather to lack of mental control than to real visual disability. Yet visual defects also play a part, either by making the signal so indistinct that it cannot be read at all or by making it so hard to see that the attention is strained to the utmost and gives out even sooner than it ordinarily would.

Quite the same is true of attendant conditions that make the perception of signals difficult. The conditions, then, that affect the perception of signals may be divided into, first, those that concern the visibility of the signals themselves; second, those that concern the visual ability of the receiver.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING THE VISIBILITY OF SIGNALS.

1. DISTANCE.—The maximum distance at which signals can be seen varies greatly with the method used, with the conditions under which the signal is seen (illumination, state of atmosphere, background), and with the experience and visual ability of the receiver. The maximum distance at which a man with good sight and working under favorable conditions can read signals with the naked eye for semaphore is one-third to one-half mile; wig-wag, one to two miles (depending on size of flag used); wig-wag torch, two to four miles or more; flag hoist (for flags of battle-ship size), half a mile (more for some flags); blinker light, three or four miles; searchlight, practically any distance.*

For flag hoists, wig-wag, and semaphore, these distances may be doubled or even tripled by the use of binoculars or telescopes, provided the weather and other conditions are such as to render these aids available. Binoculars do not in general help in distinguishing blinker or searchlight, except occasionally in the daytime when they are drowned out by excess of light.

Distance affects not only the definite form, but the distinction of color—blues tending to look darker and ultimately black, and yellow lighter and ultimately white.

The attempt to read signals at maximum distance requires, of course, strict attention, and, if maintained for any time, may strain the visual power to the point where it gives out.

ILLUMINATION AND BACKGROUND.—For semaphore, wig-wag, and flag hoist, bright daylight with the sun shining on the object and a clear, all-round sky background make the ideal conditions. Seldom are these attainable. The light is often poor. When it diminishes greatly, both form and color perception are affected. In dusk, for example, the semaphore letters may not be distinguished more than two or three hundred yards at best, and both form and color of flags become illegible. Theoretically, as the light diminishes, the red should appear darker and the blue lighter, so that one might suppose that the color value contrasts would enable us still to distinguish the flags. This is not the case. The blue and red of our signal flags are such that with diminishing light both tend to look black. Another ill effect of reduced illumination is that for long distances binoculars no longer aid the

*Theoretically, flag signals should be seen twice as far as this, and semaphore half as far again. But, owing to the fact that under the best of working conditions the semaphore background is not ideal, and that flags are never blown out perfectly straight nor against a properly contrasting background, the distances are about as stated.

I may add that very erroneous statements are made in this regard, especially by men in the service. Misled by them, I made some gross exaggerations in my article on Sight and Signalling in the Navy, read before the American Philosophical Society.

vision. In fact, one sees better without them.

On the other hand, the light may be too bright. The sun shining behind a man semaphoring or a flag hoist or a searchlight drowns out the signal and, in the case of a flag hoist, makes the shape uncertain and the color indistinguishable. It may also so dazzle the receiver that he cannot keep up the effort of reading the signals. The same is true of the very bright searchlights now used, if the observer is too close to them.

A complete sky background is rarely secured. In semaphore and in wig-wag this factor counts immensely. Semaphore hand flags held below the waist line, as in making the letters A, G, H, I, L, X, and Z, are nearly always backed by some object on the bridge and very often in all positions are obscured by masts or smoke pipes, so that they hardly show at all. The same is true of flag hoists when, as often happens, they are backed by a cage mast, by the shore, or by smoke.

Under the service conditions ordinarily prevailing, the illumination and background, particularly the latter, are more important for the legibility of a signal than is the distance at which the signal is situated. This fact has a special bearing on the visual qualifications that we should demand of the signalman himself. The best signalman, in fact, is not necessarily he who can see the farthest, but he who can discriminate most readily slight differences in contrast between signal and background.

3. Atmospheric Conditions.—Haze, rain, or snow obviously make signals of all kinds indistinct in proportion to the intensity of the obscuration that they cause; and, moreover, as in the case of diminishing illumination, give trouble because even a moderate obscuration due to these factors renders binoculars useless.

4. Wind.—Unless a ship is under way, a certain amount of wind is needed in order to blow out the flags in a hoist and make them distinguishable. Many of the flags, to be sure, and especially the call-flags and most of the international flags are so patterned as to be distinguished if even only a small portion shows, and men get quite adept in recognizing them when hanging limp. The call pennants, on the other hand, must as a rule be seen in their entirety to be recognized, so that they need some wind to blow them out. A wind blowing straight toward or away from the observer is as bad as no wind at all, and a very gusty wind, which makes the flags flap or foul, is also an obstacle to clear reading. It also interferes greatly with the use of a binocular or telescope, both being hard to hold steady in a strong wind, and the object swaying as the glass does, only three or four times as much.

Incidentally, a sharp wind blowing right into a signalman's face may suffuse his eyes with moisture and thus blur the signals at a critical moment.

5. Motion of the Ship.—This interferes very considerably both with sending (especially with the semaphore), and with receiving. It is particularly troublesome when binoculars are used, as the latter, of course, magnify every movement.

6. Faulty Technic.—This is one of the most prolific causes of difficulty in making out signals. The careless sender in semaphore chooses a bad background and makes his angles badly, so that his letters cannot be distinguished; and with the searchlight runs his dots together, uses a faulty rhythm, or omits spaces between words. These are a few of the defects known and reprobated on the bridge. They diminish legibility to a very marked degree and, to that extent, impose additional visual strain on the observer.

7. Use of Binoculars and Telescopes.—A glass is indispensable on the bridge for reading semaphore beyond a third of a mile or flag hoists beyond half a mile. The ordinary glasses double or triple the distance at which signals can be read. On some of the ships powerful telescopes are mounted, with which flag hoists and semaphore can be seen much further. But glasses, and especially telescopes, are hard to use if either the sending

or the receiving ship is rolling, or if there is a high wind, or the weather is wet. A mounted telescope naturally is applicable only when the ship is fairly still. In a mist or at dusk, as before remarked, objects cannot be seen any better with a glass than with the naked eye—usually not as well.

Generally speaking, any condition that interferes with the use of a glass is troublesome in proportion to the power of the latter—a fact which limits the use of glasses under service conditions to comparatively low powers.

CONDITIONS AFFECTING THE SIGNALMAN HIMSELF.

From the above description it is evident that the signalman has to make out instantly and with precision a great variety of objects and a number of variants of the same object, differing either in form or in both form and color, and has also to distinguish light flashes, varying in length and sequence and recurring with great rapidity, and that he must do these things under the most varying conditions of light, shade, background, and weather. Add to this the fact that his work is often carried on under conditions of high tension, hurry, and great responsibility, and we see that the service makes great demands on the visual acuity, the color sense, the light sense and adaptation, muscular coordination, nervous energy, and physical endurance. The relative importance of each of these factors will now be considered.

1. Visual Acuity.—Considering the work that a signalman has to do in the recognition of distant objects, the Navy requirements of 20/20 vision for each eye without glasses, seem none too severe. If in selected cases glasses are allowed—and I should be in favor of allowing them in such cases—the vision with them ought not to be less than 20/20, each, and it might be well to require 20/15 in at least one eye.

Only in very exceptional cases should a man be allowed to serve on the bridge, whose vision without glasses is less than 20/30 in his better eye and less than 20/40 in his poorer eye.

Nevertheless, I am persuaded that visual acuity, per se, at least as we test it with our charts, is not the most important of the visual factors. For it does not by itself measure the ability to recognize far distant objects when seen under the conditions that prevail on shipboard. More important in this regard is the light sense. To this point we will recur presently.

2. Refraction and the Use of Glasses.—No signalman should have any very high degree of ametropia. Myopes of any considerable degree are, naturally, excluded. Hyperopes also may have to be excluded if their error is so high as to make us fear that the accommodation cannot always and readily correct it. In judging this we must remember that on the bridge the accommodation may be weakened by continuous nervous strain or by prolonged deprivation of rest and sleep. Under these conditions even a slight hyperopia may become an excessive burden and then either the vision blurs or the attention flags. Whether this is likely to happen or not depends largely on the signalman's physique and nervous stability, but unless these are exceptional he should not, I believe, have over 1 D. or, at most, 1.5 D. of uncorrected hyperopia. Probably about the same statement can be made with regard to astigmatism.

It is difficult to form a judgment on these matters, because refractive errors are not much in evidence on the bridge. Of the 101 men who from time to time served on the bridge of the Granite State, only 6 (5 besides myself) wore glasses. The remaining 95, having passed the Navy examination, had presumably 20/20 vision in each eye without correction. Of the men wearing glasses, two had two or three diopters of mixed astigmatism, but in the case of one, at least, this seemed to cause no trouble, as he was one of the best receivers on the bridge. The other (myself) had sometimes considerable difficulty in reading signals, but this was apparently due only in a very subordinate degree to the refractive error. Two of the other men had a moderate degree of hyperopic astigmatism. In one the refractive error seemed not to

interfere with his work either before or after he put on glasses. In the other, who had anisometropia besides, the refractive error may have had some effect in reducing his efficiency, especially in reading searchlight, but his difficulty may with more plausibility be ascribed to his very nervous temperament, which made him give way readily under strain. In the remaining three, one of whom was quite myopic, the refractive error had no apparent effect on their signalling ability, which was all that could be desired.

So far as such a small number of cases can prove anything, they would seem to indicate that refractive errors in themselves are no essential impediment to signal work. They would also indicate that the wearing of glasses is not incompatible with efficiency in this regard. Indeed, one would naturally suppose this to be the case, since signalmen on the bridge constantly use binoculars or telescopes, which are apparently liable to just the same objections as the spectacles that a man wears. Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that under such conditions as prevail on the bridge spectacles are a real inconvenience. They produce disturbing reflections. They readily become dimmed with moisture or marked with grease, and even when clean apparently cut off enough light to render the recognition of faint distant objects more difficult. Nor is the improvement produced by glasses in distant vision at all comparable with that obtained with the same glasses when looking at an object at twenty feet. This is a fact that our patients often insist on, and I think we should give it more heed than we are apt to do. In my own case, my vision with glasses is 20/20 and without them is about 20/40. Yet under nearly all conditions of distant vision, I can make out far away flags, semaphore signals, etc., almost, if not quite as well, without my glasses as with them.

My own judgment on this matter is that, always making exception of the specially qualified men, no one should have a place on the bridge who cannot see distant objects (but not, of course, the ordinary test-card), as well without glasses as with them. If he can do this and has by the test-card 20/20 with his glasses and at least 20/40 without, he may be placed on the bridge, and may then either use his glasses or not, as he wishes, altho he should be encouraged to do his signalling with them.

3. Color Sense.—On the great importance of a keen color sense, there can be no difference of opinion. So many of the flags require for their recognition quick and accurate color discriminations (between shades, often, of about the same light values), that a man who is deficient in this regard would be unserviceable for signalling. Equally important is the ability to distinguish colored lights, particularly the green starboard and red port light of a vessel under way, and the combinations of red lights which distinguish pilot vessels, fishing vessels, cable ships, and various other vessels of special character.

4. Light Sense and Adaptation.—Acute light sense and ready adaptation are essential qualifications of a signalman. It is indispensable that he should be able to distinguish readily a dark object against another nearly as dark, should make out colors, movements, and shapes against a background which affords but little contrast, and should see well in rapidly fading twilight and in murky weather. It is also important that he should be able to stand the glare of the sun, shining on the water, or behind the signal, or the powerful searchlight, without getting dazzled or fatigued.

Bridge work and especially the reading of searchlight signals, in which bright light flashes of light alternate with darkness, require quick adaptation and a mobile pupil.

Compared with a good light sense, visual acuity is of subordinate importance, and for that reason our visual tests, as ordinarily conducted, do not give the best idea of the availability of a candidate for bridge work. If we have no photometer with which the light sense can be measured accurately, the latter may be determined by tests

made under actual service conditions, i. e., by making the candidate pick up distant objects and describe their form and color, when viewing them under varying and especially under unfavorable conditions of illumination and background.

5. Motor Anomalies of the Eye.—I should say that these affect a signalman's efficiency to only a very subordinate degree. As vision is concerned altogether with distant objects, errors of convergence and accommodation cause no particular trouble. A man who has a tendency to diplopia at a distance in distant vision (e. g. from weak externi or from hyperphoria), may be confused especially in taking searchlight signals, and, of course, eyes so affected tend to give out sooner than do those that can easily maintain binocular fixation and binocular vision.

6. Reaction Time.—Nowhere, except in the turret or at the wheel is the slowly reacting man more out of place than on the bridge. On the bridge a man must be constantly on the alert for visual impressions of all kinds and coming from all quarters, must take them in instantaneously, realize their significance, and act on them without a second's delay. This means that he must be quick to react properly to any stimulus, whether signal, order, or question.

7. Mental and Nervous Stability.—The ideal bridge man is one who is neither stolid nor erratic, but one in whom quickness of body and mind and a superabundant energy are combined with steadiness under all conditions, an even temper, and a happy disposition. He is one that is quick and eager to learn, enthusiastic, in love with signalling, industrious, always amenable to discipline, yet always also capable of independent thought and action, and, above all, he is reliable.

A man who has these characteristics I would pick out for the bridge, even if he had some apparently prohibitive visual defects and refractive errors. He would, as I know, make good in spite of them. And a man of opposite characteristics I would not have, no matter what his vision. It requires a special disposition and aptitude of mind to be a signalman, and it is not worth while to try to train those who are either indifferent or unmanageable. The work is too important to be put into such hands.

Conclusions.—My observations have led me to the following conclusions:

1. The visibility and legibility of our signal and other flags could be much improved if the blues were made much lighter, the reds were made somewhat lighter, and care was always taken not to make the yellows too light.

It would also be better if the pennants had a rounded or obtuse, instead of a finely tapering tip, as this part of the flag becomes hard to read in proportion as it tapers down.

2. The ocular requirements that we should lay down for a candidate for signal work should always be considered in connection with his other physical and mental qualifications and to a certain extent should vary with these.

A like correlation between the strictly physical qualifications and the general mental and moral make-up of the candidate should, I believe, be made in the case of all candidates for military and civil positions. This is done now to some extent, but the principle might be extended with advantage. As I have elsewhere remarked, this correlation is best affected if the medical officer who makes the physical tests and the professional expert, who gauges the probable availability of the candidate from a technical standpoint, work hand in hand.

3. In making such a correlation, we must distinguish between the visual requirements, which, being indispensable for the purpose in hand are necessarily inflexible, and those in which more latitude may be allowed.

4. For signalling the ideal visual requirements are: Visual acuity of 20/20 in each eye without correction; perfect color sense; first-rate light sense and quick adaptation; orthophoria for distance and near, with good converging and especially with good diverging power; quick reaction time.

5. Of these requirements three are indispensable, viz., perfect color sense, first-rate light sense, and quick reaction time. Coupled with these there must be a good all round physical condition.

6. To test these matters out in a practical way, I would first take each applicant's vision; examine his color sense with the lantern and with other tests, of which, I think, the most available are Nagel's and Stilling's; if a photometer could be had, I should measure his light sense with it, and, if I had no photometer, would test out the light sense by making the applicant pick up faint distant objects under difficult visual condition; I would apply some simple psychologic tests to ascertain his reaction time and quickness in making mental discriminations; and would determine his muscle balance for distance and near and his converging and diverging power.

Those who showed deficiency in color sense or light sense, were markedly slow in their reactions, or were evidently below par in their physical and mental vigor, I would reject at once. The rest I would place in a signal class, conducted at first below decks, later on the upper deck and on the bridge.

7. Of the men so placed, I would put those with subnormal vision or abnormal motility in a probationary class. While they were in this I would ascertain the cause of their deficient sight, and if it was due to a refractive error would correct it.

8. Those of the signal class who displayed marked enthusiasm and readiness in learning, and steadiness and reliability in their work coupled with the ability to discern far distant signals or objects under all sorts of service conditions (especially when the contrasts were poor), I would admit to permanent service on the bridge even if their visual acuity was not up to the full standard. I should even think it proper in the case of specially good men to take them on even if their ametropia was such that uncorrected vision was 20/40 or less, so that they could not see distant objects by any means as well without their glasses as with them. Such men, of course, would have to do their work on the bridge with glasses, which, after all, are only a relative handicap.

On the other hand, no matter how perfect his vision was and no matter how technically well-fitted he seemed, I would not have a man on the bridge who showed in the preliminary work in the signal class that he was erratic or quarrelsome, or who did his duties carelessly, perfunctorily, or reluctantly, or who was unreliable.

In fine, my idea is that the initial physical examination should be more or less elastic and tentative, eliminating simply those who are absolutely unfit, but admitting to further trial under service conditions all the other applicants, whether visually below standard or not; and that when this further trial has disclosed what each man's visual, mental, and moral qualifications are, the signal officer with, if necessary, the aid of the surgeon shall determine which of the men under investigation are fit for duty on the bridge.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES OF THE OPHTHALMIC SERVICE IN THE AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

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This may be regarded as an authoritative history of the ophthalmic service in the American Expeditionary Forces, as complete as can be offered at the present time. It was presented before the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June 11th, 1919.

Early in May, 1918, a senior consultant in ophthalmology was obtained for the A. E. F., and the following is a brief summary of the organization of the ophthalmic service in the A. E. F. and a partial record of its accomplishments. As a result of the work and observations of the senior consultant and his assistants, suggestions for the future are incorporated in this report.

The whole can best be presented under several headings:

1. PERSONNEL AND EQUIPMENT

A review of conditions found in those hospitals of the A. E. F. which were visited by the senior consultant in May and June will give the best idea of conditions pertaining to the late spring and early summer:

1. *Base Hospital* 15, *Chaumont.*—Lieut. (now Capt.) G. H. Grout was in charge of a small eye clinic, which was combined with that of the ear, nose and throat. His equipment was very meager, there being no magnet, no army eye case and no auxiliary case, while the space at the disposal of the eye department was totally inadequate for the purpose. After conference with Lieutenant Grout and the commanding officer, a room was selected for the occupancy of the optical unit; and the east end of the lower half of the Baudens Pavilion was selected for an eye ward, reserving the three end rooms for the clinic and operating rooms. Later, two magnets were secured for this clinic and full instrumental equipment, thus making a very efficient eye center, which was kept constantly busy during the rest of the summer and fall. After the work had increased, an assistant was assigned to Captain Grout. The suggestion was made to Captain Grout and the commanding officer that a nurse who had had some training in eye work should be assigned to Captain Grout's clinic as the permanent nurse in charge. This same suggestion was made in all of the base hospitals where it was thought practicable in order that soldiers with diseased and injured eyes could have *experienced* nursing service at all times. It has been found that a rotation of nurses in the eye service is detrimental.

2. *Base Hospital* 18, *Bazoilles.*—Lieut, (now Capt.) Lloyd B. Whitman was in charge of the eye work. He had a small clinic and his patients were scattered. His equipment was found to be very meager and steps were immediately taken to bring about improvements in view of the projected development of a large center at Bazoilles. A large and small Lancaster magnet were secured and a full instrumental equipment. A section of a ward was assigned for the eye cases and rooms set apart for an eye clinic and one for an optical unit. Later in the season, one of our most efficient eye centers was organized at Bazoilles under the charge of Captain Whitham, but owing to the lack of available space at Base Hospital 18, one of the newly erected buildings at Base Hospital 46 was selected to be rearranged according to plans furnished by the senior consultant. These plans were sent to the office of the chief surgeon for approval and also sent to the other growing hospital centers, similar to Bazoilles.

This center performed most efficient service thruout the trying period of the fall offensive. Several of the ophthalmic surgeons in the surrounding hospitals came to the center to assist Captain Whitham with the work. Capt. H. B. Chandler, of Base Hospital 116, was especially helpful. The optical unit was also transferred to Base Hospital 46 and from this base supplied the Toul area and

Base Hospital 66, as well as the Bazoilles area. It established itself as one of the most active and efficient of our optical units. A number of special operations were performed at this center by the senior consultant in ophthalmology and by the assistant consultant.

3. *Base Hospital 36, Vittel.*—The eye clinic here was in charge of Capt. W. B. Haughey, who had the best and most complete equipment for ophthalmic surgery of any of the then active American hospitals in France. This equipment was brought with Base Hospital 36 and *illustrates the great advantage of having each base hospital transport its own special equipment.* Two Lancaster magnets were found installed and a room devoted to the use of the eye clinic. Base Hospital 23, which was in close proximity to Base Hospital 36, also had an eye clinic, but without adequate equipment for ophthalmic surgery. An optical unit was, however, first assigned to Base Hospital 23, in a room provided for it, as most of the refraction work was being done here. Later Maj. J. M. Patton was assigned to Base Hospital 36 to take charge of the eye work and organize an eye center for the Vittel and Contrexeville area. Several rooms at Base Hospital 36 were assigned to him in which to locate a central eye clinic, as all such work, including refraction, was now to be carried on here, and a room was also set aside for the optical unit transferred from Base Hospital 23. Major Patton was made consultant for the combined Vittel and Contrexeville areas and mos of the serious operative work was routed or transferred to his clinic. This plan of centralizing the eye work for the area under the consultant at Base Hospital 36 worked out most admirably, and a great deal of praise is due Major Patton for the efficient manner in which he built up this center, which, with the special wards placed at his disposal, soon became one of the most active ophthalmic centers in the advanced area.

4. *Base Hospitals 31 and 32, Contrexeville.*—While these hospitals were not thoroly equipped for the more extensive operative work, they were sufficiently equipped and had the officers to carry on the ordinary routine ophthalmic work of base hospitals, but with the formation of the center at Vittel the more complicated ophthalmic work could be transferred there.

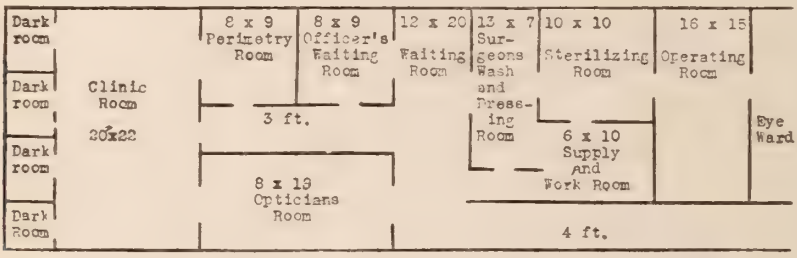


Fig. 1.—Arrangement of eye clinic rooms at Base Hospital 46. Three dark rooms across end of clinic rooms has been found a more practical arrangement than four for this width of building.

5. *American Red Cross Military Hospital 1, Paris.*—A visit was made to this hospital May 20. Lieut. (now Capt.) A. B. Fewell was carrying on the ophthalmic clinic with skill and energy. He had a very good equipment, including a giant magnet. Later, a small hand magnet was provided to complete the equipment of magnets. During the early part of June, after the battle in which the Second Division figured so bravely, a good many operations were performed in this hospital by the senior consultant and the assistant consultant to demonstrate various approved methods of handling ophthalmic battle casualties. Still later, Capt. F. W. Shine was assigned to this hospital and was made consultant for the Paris area. Thru the kindness of Colonel Hutchinson, the commanding officer, a good sized ward was set aside for ophthalmic cases, with

a well equipped operating room adjoining. Here Captain Shine and Captain Fewell performed many sight-saving operations and also a good many lid plastics. The work at this hospital had been fairly heavy from the start of the American offensive and had been carried on most efficiently.

6. *American Red Cross Military Hospital 2, Paris.*—This hospital was also visited May 20; and while it is a small hospital, it has been a very active ophthalmic center, due to the energy and ability of Lieut. W. B. Doherty. This has been one of the very bright spots ophthalmologically in the A. E. F. All of the operative work performed by Lieutenant Doherty was of very high order, and he had a splendidly equipped ophthalmic clinic, with the single exception of having no magnets, but with A. R. C. Hospital 1 so near, the magnet work could all be transferred there. Lieutenant Doherty has done more refraction work than most of the other ophthalmic surgeons in France and has fitted probably a larger number of artificial eyes, as all the difficult cases coming to the base optical unit have been referred to his clinic. He has fitted up his ophthalmic clinic with many admirable mechanical devices of his own making and has procured thru the American Red Cross many of the more intricate instruments not ordinarily furnished to base hospitals. Lieutenant Doherty's work has also been most highly praised by the assistant consultant in ophthalmology and by Lieut-Col. Nelson M. Black, one of our consultants in ophthalmology.

7. *Langres Center.*—The ophthalmic work here was in charge of Lieut. (now Capt.) Frederick Falk, tho all the operative ophthalmic surgery was transferred from here to Base Hospital 15 at Chaumont. Captain Falk was doing considerable refraction work in a small clinic in the center of the town and also some civilian work. This work was well carried on by succeeding ophthalmic surgeons, after Captain Falk was ordered away to join his unit.

8. *Base Hospital 66, Neufchateau.*—A visit to this hospital found Lieut. R. S. Beam in charge of the eye work, with a small clinic and a ward devoted to eye cases. He has carried on the work here up to the present with some help from the consulting ophthalmologists but the bulk of the ophthalmic surgery coming to this region was diverted to the eye center at Bazoilles.

9. *Evacuation Hospital 1, Sebastopool.*—A visit to Evacuation Hospital 1, which has really functioned as a base hospital, found Lieut. A. S. Rochester in charge of the eye work, but with inadequate equipment. Later, however, a large and small magnet were installed here under the direction of the senior consultant. A ward was set aside for ophthalmic cases and a clinic room was provided. Later, Capt. (now Major) Ralph A. Fenton was sent here to take charge of the eye work in this important post and under his unusually skillful guidance one of the finest advanced ophthalmic centers was developed and a great deal of skillful work performed. So excellent was the work of Major Fenton that he was the choice of the ophthalmic consultants to act as our consultant for the Third Army. He was followed at Evacuation Hospital 1 by Major G. I. Hogue.

10. At this time a number of camp hospitals were visited, but it was thought advisable for most of these to send their ophthalmic cases to the nearest base hospitals, rather than to have an ophthalmic surgeon assigned.

11. *Base Hospital 17, Dijon.*—A visit to this hospital found Lieut. (now Major) D. A. Campbell in charge of the eye as well as the ear work, which he carried on continuously in an excellent manner. One of the auxiliary optical units was assigned to this hospital. Patients from surrounding camp hospitals were sent here, and at one time a good many British wounded, as well as American, were treated.

12. *Evacuation Hospital 2, Baccarat.*—Lieut. Cyril Barnert was in charge of the eye work but doing no refraction, simply taking care of the ordinary eye service of a forward hospital. At one period Lieutenant Barnert had a very active experience treating the very severely gassed patients who arrived at this hospital. This hospital was only a few miles

back of the line and received the gas cases early. Lieutenant Barnert had a large bathing establishment for the gas cases, which was excellently equipped, so that as soon as patients arrived they were bathed and had their eyes and nasopharynx carefully treated, thus avoiding many of the more severe complications usually occurring. Later, two magnets were installed here, but realizing that this hospital could send cases needing the use of such instruments to Vittel, these magnets were removed to one of the forward evacuation hospitals just prior to the advance into the Argonne. Later, Captain Rau was placed in charge on the return of Lieutenant Barnert to his unit. A more efficient equipment was procured, including a trial case, and special rooms set aside for the eye clinic.

13. *Camp Hospital 27, Tours.*—This was one of the earliest hospitals, with Capt. Louis L. Henninger doing the eye work. One of the auxiliary optical units was established here. Later Capt. E. H. Cooper was assigned when Captain Henninger was sent to rejoin his unit. The optical unit rendered excellent service and a good deal of refraction work from this area passed through this camp hospital.

14. *Base Hospital 8, Savenay.*—An early visit was made to this hospital, which had always been a most important one in a most active and progressive center. Lieut. E. D. Loughran was in charge of the eye work, assisted by Lieut. R. E. Riemers. (Shortly after Lieut. Riemers was sent from this hospital to Evacuation Hospital 7, in which he served thruout all the trying times at Coloumiers and Souilly. Lieutenant Riemers had been indefatigable, patient and unassuming, performing general ward service as well as taking care of special work. No ophthalmic surgeon in the A. E. F. deserves greater praise than Lieutenant Riemers.) Later, at Base Hospital 8, Capt. Ray Connor was put in charge of the ophthalmic service and made consultant for the Savenay area. An entire ward was turned over to the ophthalmic service and a large room finally secured for the ophthalmic clinic. One end of the ward was partitioned off, making an excellent room for the preliminary instruction given here to the blind. This hospital has been very well furnished with ophthalmologic equipment other than magnets, the current here being such that magnets could not be installed. One of the first auxiliary optical units was assigned to this hospital.

15. Base Hospitals 27-34-101.—Visits to these hospitals found eye clinics established in all, with special wards for the ophthalmic cases. Base Hospital 101 was equipped with a magnet. Especially good work was done at Base Hospital 34 by Lieut. R. J. Sprowl and at No. 27 by Capt. (now Major) S. S. Smith, both of whom have carried on during the entire war in a most efficient manner. Lieut. Sprowl is one of our youngest ophthalmic surgeons and he has had one of the largest and best ophthalmic clinics in France. Later in the season one of the magnets made at the medical department repair shop was sent to Base Hospital 27.

16. *Base Hospital 6, Bordeaux.*—This hospital has, since its arrival in France, had an excellent clinic, with a most efficient officer in the person of Capt. Ralph Hatch. An optical unit was assigned here. Base Hospital 3 had no ophthalmic surgeon at the time of the first visit of the senior consultant and all the eye cases were being sent to Base Hospital 6. An eye clinic was later established at Base Hospital 3 under Lieut. Cyril Barnert.

17. *Base Hospital 24, Limoges.*—This hospital had a good eye clinic, presided over by Capt. Bahn, who was later made consultant for the Limoges area. This had been one of the most active eye clinics, and Captain Bahn had carried on with a very good equipment in a very excellent manner thruout the period of the war. An optical unit here would make the service more efficient and one was to be assigned on the arrival of the new units cabled for. Capt. Bahn's suggestions for standardizing of eye work and equipment were most excellent.

18. *Base Hospital 1, Vichy.*—This hospital had a small eye clinic in charge of Capt. W. W. Weeks, assisted by Lieut. H. L. Pelle, but this became unnecessary after the arrival of Special Base Hospital 115, tho it still continued caring for

some ophthalmic cases. Captain Weeks, during the active period of the war, did excellent work at some of the evacuation hospitals, both attached as ophthalmologist and on surgical teams. An auxiliary optical unit was first assigned to No. 1, but on arrival of No. 115 was transferred.

19. *Base Hospital 20, Chatel Guyon, and Base Hospital 30, Royat.*—Both of these hospitals had small eye clinics in the care of competent men and with fair equipment, especially Base Hospital 20, which brought over its own equipment, including two magnets.

20. Following these visits, base and evacuation hospitals arrived very rapidly and were visited as shortly after their arrival as possible by one of the consultants, either the senior consultant, Lieut.-Col. Allen Greenwood, the assistant consultant, Lieut.-Col. George S. Derby, or Lieut.-Col. Nelson M. Black, who was, late in the summer, attached to our general consulting staff. Advice and assistance were given to the various ophthalmic surgeons in these newer hospitals as to building up their clinics, or combination centers, and plans furnished. In October, a visit was made by the senior consultant to all the hospitals in Base Section 3 (England) and a list of suggestions sent to the Chief Surgeon, A. E. F., and a copy to the chief surgeon of Base Section 3 as to the need of officers, optical units and supplies. While in London the senior consultant improved the opportunity to purchase tools and supplies to outfit several of the auxiliary optical units being organized at the base unit in Paris.

II. CONSULTANTS

The senior consultant in ophthalmology for the A. E. F., Lieut.-Col. Allen Greenwood, was assigned to Consultant Headquarters at Neufchateau in May and the office of the division of ophthalmology was established there. As the service developed an assistant consultant in ophthalmology, Lieut.-Col. George S. Derby, was appointed for the A. E. F. and in September a third medical officer, Lieut.-Col. Nelson M. Black, with an appointment as consultant in ophthalmology was added to the force.

In the beginning, with only two evacuation hospitals (Nos. 1 and 2) in the field, it was possible to cover their work from the office at Neufchateau and also to give consulting service to the second line hospitals at Chaumont, Bazoilles and Vittel-Contrexeville, as well as to make a certain number of consulting tours through the rest of the A. E. F.

Moreover, at this time, but few medical officers were available, who could be put in charge of areas. As more base hospitals, and also the casual ophthalmologists cabled for, came to France, it was found necessary and possible to establish consulting areas which could run independantly or with only occasional assistance from the Neufchateau office.

With the establishment of many evacuation and mobile hospitals at the front, the senior consultant felt very keenly the necessity of supplying to those soldiers with wounds of the ocular structures the best available advice at the earliest possible moment. Therefore, a considerable amount of the time of the consultants was taken up with frequent visits to these front line hospitals and to the advanced base hospitals; and a good deal of routine and consulting operative work was performed by the consultants from this office in the evacuation and mobile hospitals during the offensives.

When the first extensive fighting of the American forces began, for the capture of the Chateau Thierry salient, the first influx of wounded men came into the evacuation hospital at Ecury sur Coole. There being no ophthalmologist in this area, the senior consultant and the assistant immediately proceeded to Evacuation Hospital 4 where they took care of the ophthalmic cases for this hospital, Mobile Hospital 2, nearby, and the field hospital at Chalons. Besides this, considerable time was spent in general *triage* and surgical work. As the scene of activity shifted more to the Chateau Thierry front the senior consultant proceeded to the evacuation hospitals in this area, while Lieut.-Col. Derby remained at No. 4, with orders to proceed to Paris as soon as relieved. The next ten days were spent by the senior consultant going as needed from Evacuation Hospital 7,

at Moulanglaust, to No. 8, at Juilly, thence to Red Cross Hospital 14, at Jouy sur Morin and to Evacuation Hospital 5, at Crepy. At Evacuation Hospital 7 the nights of July 28 and 29 were spent in doing *triage* work, the first night in a reception tent and the second night in an open field by the light of four lanterns. This experience was the basis of a number of suggestions made later to the Chief Surgeon with regard to the reception and *triage* of wounded men during an active offensive.

At the same time a systematic attempt was made to keep in close touch with the base hospitals of the intermediate and base sections. The Bordeaux and Clermont-Ferrand sections were visited twice from the consultant's office. The larger areas of Bordeaux and Limoges had local consultants, while later there was an eye consultant to cover the whole of Base Section 2. All other base hospitals in the A. E. F., with the exception of the more recently established, were more frequently covered and some with great frequency, such as Savenay, Vichy, and especially Paris, during the period of the Chateau Thierry activity. There were at the time of the armistice local consultants at Toul, Bazoilles, Vittel-Contrexeville, Allerey, Paris, Mars, Mesves, Vichy, Limoges, Nantes, Savenay and, as stated before, a consultant for Base Section 2, and also a consultant for Base Section 3.

In addition to the visiting of hospitals by consultants, circulars for the guidance of ophthalmologists were sent out from time to time by the senior consultant. This was more necessary owing to the fact that none of the manuals published in the Surgeon General's office ever reached France until after the armistice was signed. These circulars were also largely written answers to the numerous requests from opthalmologists for help and suggestions. A few officers brought with them Manual 3, which, according to their statements, was of great help in carrying out the various necessary surgical procedures. In any future expeditionary forces, hospitals of every kind on leaving this country should be supplied with an up-to-date medical library.

HEADQUARTERS MEDICAL AND SURGICAL CONSULTANTS,
AMERICAN E. F. APO 731, FRANCE.
DIVISION OF OPHTHALMOLOGY,
6, SEPTEMBER, 1918.
CIRCULAR 1

I. *Gassed Eyes.*—Treatment of eyes injured by those gases which produce a chemical conjunctivitis (mustard base-dichlor ethyl-sulphid):

The earliest possible treatment is necessary to lessen the duration of the disability. The early treatment should be given at the first bathing. It should consist of a thoro flushing of the conjunctival sacs with a 1 per cent solution of the sodium bicarbonat, preferably warmed to body temperature. Care should be exercised to see that both the upper and lower cul-de-sac be thoroly cleansed.

Following this treatment the eyes should be washed out every four hours in severe cases, with either a solution of sodium bicarbonat, 15 per cent normal saline solution or a saturated solution of boric acid, and a drop of liquid petrolatum should be instilled after each washing. Olive oil may be used when liquid petrolatum is not available. Castor oil has been found somewhat irritating.

In the more severe cases corneal involvement of greater or less degree is common. This takes the form of a roughening and opacification of the corneal epithelium, leading to ulceration, and producing permanent damage of the eye and may even cause a complete loss of sight. Such cases always show marked photophobia and usually a contracted pupil, and require for treatment that a solution of atropin sulphat, 1 per cent, should be used sufficiently often to keep the pupil dilated and the eyes should be shaded from the light but never bandaged. As soon as the corneal or uveal disturbance has subsided the atropin should be discontinued; and it is advisable to get the patient up and accustom him to the light, to avoid long hospitalization of such cases. Secondary infection of the conjunctiva is common and may be treated by a solution of argyrol, 20 per cent, instilled three or four times a day. Self-induced relapses

are not uncommon and should be watched for.

In the later stages when photophobia persists without signs of conjunctival irritation to account for it, it is advisable to use cold douching of the eyes two or three times a day and to employ the patient in some suitable light occupation.

Where corneal involvement is marked, the ophthalmic consultant should be asked to see the case.

II. *Injuries.*—Contusions of the eye without rupture. Guarded prognosis, watch tension, especially if traumatic cataract develops. Look for and record any choroidal injury.

Contusions of the eye with rupture. If extensive, with great loss of globe contents, enucleate. If less extensive, with little loss of contents, suture and cover with conjunctival flaps after freeing wound of any prolapsed tissue.

For penetrating wounds, with foreign body inclusion probable, the magnet test should be applied. If this shows foreign body to be magnetic, remove by magnet, preferably by anterior route if small, and if large thru the wound of entrance, if unable to remove small foreign body with the magnet at hand, route cases if possible to the base eye center, location of same to be designated later. Where foreign body is nonmagnetic and not easily removable, follow expectant treatment, as such foreign bodies are often encysted.

It should be especially emphasized that penetration of the eye by a foreign body, without a discoverable wound of entrance, is not an uncommon occurrence. All suspicious eyes should, therefore, be thoroly investigated for a foreign body, by means of the magnet, the ophthalmoscope and by the X-ray when necessary.

Penetrating wounds without foreign body inclusion should be immediately covered with a conjunctival flap after freely removing prolapsed tissue, then treated as any eye wound. Where an eye is too badly injured to save or where sympathetic ophthalmia is to be feared and no vision is likely to result from conservative treatment, the eye should be enucleated. At time of enucleation some material, preferably one of the large glass spheres, should, if possible, be implanted in Tenon's capsule. If this cannot be done, it is at least imperative that the four recti muscles should be sutured together.

In penetrating injuries of the eye, showing proptosis to a greater or less degree, a thru and thru perforation of the globe should be suspected.

Panophthalmitis.—When a penetrating injury results in panophthalmitis it is best to eviscerate and this operation should be the one chosen for a hopelessly injured eye complicated by orbital cellulitis.

After enucleation or evisceration an artificial eye should be fitted as soon as the socket permits.

An only eye, or both eyes should never be removed without the advice of the consulting ophthalmic surgeon. The senior consultant in ophthalmology should be notified of any soldier blinded, or likely to be blinded, as a result of injury or disease.

Orbital Injuries.—A small foreign body in the orbit not easily accessible should be left unless cellulitis develops. Larger bodies should be removed avoiding injury to muscles and nerves.

Orbital cellulitis requires free drainage.

Perforating wounds of the orbits by bullets or other missiles should be treated symptomatically. Lagophthalmos from the extreme exophthalmos often seen in such cases or the lagophthalmos resulting from facial palsies should have the lids sutured together to protect the eye if there are any signs that the cornea is likely to become involved.

Brain Injuries.—All brain injuries or severe cranial wounds likely to show brain involvement should be frequently examined by the ophthalmic surgeons and all opportunities should be improved for studying the fundi and fields of vision of such cases.

III. *Trachoma.*—The possibilities of the introduction and spread of trachoma among the men of the A. E. F. require that every effort be made toward its prevention. Cases of trachoma are bound to be discovered among our troops. Cases showing trachoma in the contagious stages or suspected of being in this stage

should be immediately sent to a special base eye center for treatment and cure. Such cases should be segregated at the special center until cured.

Section 3 does not refer to foreign labor in the employ of the A. E. F. Special arrangements will be made for handling trachoma occurring in these units.

IV. *Refraction.*—Each hospital in which refraction is done should requisition a sample set of army spectacle frames from Base Optical Unit, A. P. O. 702. These frames are number 1-2-3. In ordering frames specify the number of frame which fits best, give the interpupillary distance and, in special cases, designate the amount of offset or inset (this may be read off from the trial frame).

An eye record slip will shortly be issued and is to be filled out for every case refracted. Under sph., cyl., ax. record glasses ordered, or, if no glasses ordered, record error of refraction found. Note whether cycloplegic used and whether glasses were ordered. Other notations explain themselves. This slip should be pasted inside the cover of the pay book to be issued to troops after October 1 or, if that is unavailable, inside the spectacle case.

It is desirable that a cycloplegic be used as a routine except in those cases where it is unnecessary or contraindicated.

On account of the great scarcity of atropin and homatropin, these drugs must be conserved in every possible way. It is suggested that for mydriasis cocain be used as far as possible, and for cycloplegia an oily solution of homatropin 1 per cent and cocain 2 per cent be employed. Instill one drop in each eye and wait 45 to 60 minutes before refracting. By this method a fairly satisfactory cycloplegia can be obtained.

Glasses are to be ordered only when a refractive error exists which materially interferes with the efficiency of the soldier.

Prescriptions for toric lenses for soldiers and noncommissioned officers will not be filled.

V. *Reclassification.*—Troops will be reclassified as to vision, according to the G. O. 10 Hq. S.O.S., April 12, 1919. For your information a copy of this order is appended. In interpreting this order, a certain amount of latitude is allowed the ophthalmic surgeon to the end that men with useful vision, but not strictly within the above standard should not be lost to the service.

Copy of G. O. 10, G. H. Q., S. O. S.

France, April 12, 1918.

Headquarters, S. O. S.
G. O. 10.

ABSTRACT.

The following standards will govern in cases of eye defects:

Class A.—To include men with uncorrected vision 20/40 for the better eye and 20/100 for the poorer one, provided no organic disease exists in either eye.

Class B.—To include cases of toxic amblyopia, active choroiditis, interstitial keratitis, ocular paralysis with diplopia, anterior or posterior synechia, if awaiting operation, and trachoma.

Class C.—To include men with uncorrected vision of less than 20/40 and 20/100 and men with a correct vision of 20/70 in one eye and the other being amblyopic or blind.

Class D.—To include men with corrected vision of 15/200 or less in each eye, men blind in one eye, with corrected vision in the other of 20/70 or less: men with glaucoma, retinitis pigmentosa, optic nerve atrophy, high myopia with extensive fundus changes and disseminated choroiditis.

A recommended change of standards for reclassification is shown on page 37.

VI. *Records.*—For the purpose of later investigation, it is requested that you keep in your department a record of the name, number, organization and home address of those patients in whom the diagnosis of an intraocular foreign body has been made. This is not meant to include cases in which the eye has been removed.

It is also requested that you keep a careful record of all gas cases developing a *definite corneal ulceration,* as well as of other cases of special interest.

VII. *Pathologic Material.*—Enucleated eyes or other pathologic material which requires examination by a specially trained pathologist should be placed in

ten per cent (10%) [formaldehyd] formalin solution and held, pending directions for forwarding. These specimens should be labeled with the name and number of the cases and essential notes of the clinical condition.

VIII. *Pterygia.*—Pterygia should not be operated on in France unless seriously interfering with the efficiency of the individual.

IX. *Strabismus.* — Strabismus cases should be operated only under exceptional circumstances.

ALLEN GREENWOOD,
Major, M. C.,

CIRCULAR 2.

9th October, 1918.

I. *Glasses for the American Expeditionary Forces.*—Ophthalmic Surgeons in the A. E. F. are requested to exercise great care in prescribing weak lenses. Many prescriptions have been sent to the optical units for simple 0.25 cylinders.

Men who are not doing confining clerical work rarely, if ever, need a glass of this strength. It is also very seldom that 0.50 cylinders are needed unless the axes are oblique or against the rule. Because a soldier is sent down for an examination of his eyes and a weak error of refraction is found, it must not be considered necessary on this account that glasses be ordered when some good advice regarding the care of the eyes will probably accomplish the desired result. No hard and fast rules can be laid down and ophthalmic surgeons must use their judgment but keep in view the matter of not overburdening the optical units.

II. *Signing Prescriptions.* — Ophthalmic Surgeons must sign all prescriptions for glasses. All orders for supplies sent to the base hospital unit must be in duplicate and sent thru the commanding officer.

III. *Adjusting Optician.*—It is suggested that the ophthalmic surgeons make inquiry, thru proper authorities in the hospital where they are on service, to see if, among the hospital enlisted personnel, a good adjusting optician may be found who might be available for service in the eye clinic.

IV. *Wounds of the Eyelids and Adjacent Parts.*—Extensive debridement of wounds of the eyelid and adjacent structures is seldom necessary, it being of greatest importance for the proper function of the eye that every effort be made to save tissue in wounds involving the lids and adjacent structures. Primary repair of almost all of these wounds should be attempted and this will obviate the necessity of much secondary plastic work. In very extensive wounds it may be necessary to insert a small drain in one corner. Special attention is called to the necessity of early and accurate repair of wounds of the lower lids with special reference to those involving the inner portion.

V. *Orbital Wounds.*—Orbital tissues should be conserved in doing enucleations and eviscerations. An orbit should never be packed but where an orbital cellulitis exists a small drain is often advisable. An evisceration leaves a very good stump and this operation should be the one selected for a ruptured and collapsed eyeball and for a panophthalmitis. It should be the operation of choice where a good clean enucleation, with implantation of glass ball, is not practicable. Glass balls may be obtained on requisition from the Inter. Med. Supply Depot No. 3.

CIRCULAR 3.

22, November, 1918.

I. *Artificial Eyes.*—Four centers have been established where men requiring artificial eyes can best have them fitted, Base Hospital No. 6, at Bordeaux, Base Optical Unit, Medical Department Repair Shop, Paris, Base Hospital No. 8, at Savenay and Base Hospital No. 65, near Brest.

Cases requiring plastics on the eyelids or orbit, prior to the fitting of an artificial eye, should be routed to Base Hospital No. 115, if practicable. Such cases appearing in Paris may be sent to A. R. C. M. H. No. 1 or No. 2.

II. *Trachoma.*—Cases of trachoma which occur among the troops can be treated in the Base Hospitals, but precautions should be taken to prevent any

danger of spread of the disease. Special care of towels and handkerchiefs is most necessary. Severe cases likely to require long treatment, with resultant impairment of vision, should be classified "D" and routed accordingly.

III. *Technic of Glass Sphere Implantation in Tenon's Capsule.*—(Frost's operation.) These suggestions are intended for surgeons who have not been accustomed frequently to perform this operation:

(*a*) The eye should be enucleated in the ordinary manner except that the four recti muscles should be isolated and secured separately, either with a small artery clamp or with a stitch and should be laid back out of the field of operation. The cavity should then be packed until dry.

(*b*) The edges of Tenon's capsule should now be seized at four points with artery clamps, and a glass ball, 18 to 22 mm. in size, should be inserted.

(*c*) Silk of sufficient strength is used thruout for suture material. Tenon's capsule is closed with three or four sutures placed in the horizontal line. The muscles are next sutured, superior rectus to inferior, external to internal. The conjunctiva is now closed with three or four sutures in the horizontal line.

(*d*) Extrusion of the glass ball will not occur, except under extraordinary conditions, unless a definite infection of the socket exists. A certain amount of reaction is practically always to be expected following the operation. The conjunctival sutures should be removed when the reaction subsides.

IV. *Plastic Work on the Eyelids.*—In many cases requiring plastic work on the eyelids the condition is complicated by defects of the orbital margins and of the fleshy and bony structures of the face. Much progress has been made during this war in facio-maxillary surgery. Our mutilated soldiers are entitled to the best professional advice obtainable and in few cases of this nature is a delay of one or two weeks of any importance to the patient.

Our larger hospital centers, such as Base Hospital No. 115, at Vichy, are especially equipped for this reconstructive work. These cases need special study and often tax the ingenuity and skill of the best trained men. If you are not well equipped to handle this work and if you have not the opportunity to obtain the cooperation of an experienced facio-maxillary surgeon, do not operate, but send the case on to a center where this combination is available.

V. *Refraction.*—Read Circular No. 1 in regard to eye record slips. These slips should now be available in every clinic. They should be filled out in all instances in the clinic where refraction is done. All spaces should be filled in and a note made as to whether a cycloplegic has been used. The slip should then be pasted inside the cover of the pay book, which has been issued to each enlisted man. If the enlisted man does not have his pay book with him he should be required to bring it.

VI. *Perimeters.*—Hand perimeters can be obtained from Inter. Med. Sup. Depot, No 3, American E. F., APO 737, France.

ALLEN GREENWOOD,
Lt.-Col., M. C., U. S. A.,
Senior Consultant in Ophthalmology.

From the personal experience of the senior consultant in ophthalmology and those assisting him, who have visited various ophthalmic clinics, particularly those of isolated base hospitals, the value of such visits has been enormously apparent. The thought that someone is interested in their work is very stimulating to the young ophthalmologists in such clinics. They are eager to receive the advice given in regard to various operations and procedures and become much more interested in their work. They are stimulated to study cases more carefully so that they can present them in a satisfactory manner in case of future visits from the consultant.

During the summer and fall the senior consultant urged the men he visited to do as much research work as possible, to write interesting descriptions of their cases and to make illustrations. Different men were assigned different forms of ophthalmic injuries or diseases for their particular study. They were instructed in better methods of keeping

records and in the more up-to-date methods of treating traumatic conditions. The men in centers were encouraged to organize frequent meetings for mutual help and study; and the spirit of cooperation between the senior consultant and the ophthalmologists thruout France left nothing to be desired and was most gratifying and stimulating.

III. OPTICAL DEPARTMENT.

1. *Optical Units.*—The base optical unit, with eight auxiliary units, was authorized by cable to the War Department A.G.O., Feb. 25, 1918, and was organized in the Surgeon General's office by the author. The units were mobilized at Camp Crane, Allentown, Pa., in March, 1918, and left the United States April 26, 1918, arriving in France May 4, 1918. These units had an authorized strength of one officer and thirty-six men and left the United States with one officer and twenty-nine men. The present strength of the unit is one officer and seventy-nine men, Capt. (now Major) F. H. Edmonds, S. C., in command.

The equipment, stock and machinery was released for the base unit from New York City, March 15, 1918, and thus the heavy machinery, amounting to nearly nineteen tons, was shipped from the United States before the men left, but on the arrival of the unit in France, the machinery had not been located. Part of it, however, reached Paris on July 4, 1918. The result of this delay was that the personnel of the base unit was partially idle for nearly two months; and this heart breaking delay in getting to work prevented the sending of replacement lenses to the eight auxiliary units which were sent out shortly after their arrival in France. This lack of replacement lenses was never fully made up.

While awaiting the machinery, facilities were afforded for a number of the members of the base unit to work in the shop of E. B. Meyrowitz grinding lenses for the A. E. F. This opportunity was due to the kindness of Mr. Lambrecht, who helped in every way he could during the time before the machinery arrived. Dr. Louis Borsch, of Paris, was also of much help in aiding Major Edmonds to obtain many of the much needed minor supplies.

The remainder of the machinery arrived in Paris Sept. 29, 1918. The building for the shop was completed July 24, 1918, and was located first at Neuilly, with the instrument repair shop, but was later moved to Porto St. Cloud to be with the medical department repair shop.

The shop was partially in operation July 27, 1918, but not in full operation until October 1, 1918.

The machinery and equipment supplied was based on an approximate production of 100 pairs of glasses per day.

From July 27, 1918, to December 1, 1918, the production was as follows: 21,828 prescription jobs, 3,091 smoked spectacles, 1,620 repair jobs. The unusual nature of the prescriptions received caused many complications, necessitating the manufacture of special tools and gauges. Prescriptions for spherical lenses as high as 12.00 D and cylindrical lenses as high as 10.00 D were received and filled. *Fifty per cent of the prescriptions received averaged spherical from 2.00 to 5.00 D., in combination with cylinders from 1.50 to 5.00 D.*

The equipment of the shop is given below:

7 Hand surface grinding machines.
4 Automatic cylinder grinding machines.
6 Automatic edge grinding machines.
3 Hand edge grinding machines.
1 Diamond drill.
1 Diamond cutter.
3 pairs spherical grinding tools.
29 pairs toric cylinder grinding tools.
Complete small tool outfit, such as buffs, centering machines, neutralizing instruments, files, pliers, etc.

The surface grinding machinery was not designed for the unexpected amount and unusual character of work received. Rough cylinder blanks or optical machinery were not available in France. To produce these lenses from rough glass stock with the limited number of cylinder machines designed for special work was slow and unsatisfactory even with a full day and night force in operation.

A special attachment was devised to supply the demand for prescription lenses

in gas masks. This attachment fastened over the eye cups of the masks and contained a 47 mm. lens so decentered as to give the proper pupillary distance.

Nearly a thousand prescriptions for glasses came into the shop prior to the setting up of the machinery and there has been a steadily increasing flow of prescriptions ever since, taxing the personnel to the utmost. At the time the author left France the base optical unit had sufficient machinery and men to care for the prescription and repair work of the entire A. E. F., but, owing to the slowness with which the supplies had come to hand, it had never been possible to take full advantage of the facilities, and at that time it was particularly embarrassing, owing to the failure of the newly arrived auxiliary units to bring their supplies with them as directed by cable. Counting on this supply, the stock at the base unit was heavily drawn on to provide the supplies for the newly organized units sent to Mesves Center, Base Hospitals 29 and 33 and the two units sent to the Army of Occupation.

All this has entailed a great deal more surface grinding than was originally intended, and to meet this the shop has been run at times at night, as well as day, on an eight hour shift.

The shop as it was finally in full operation was a model of its kind and was praised by the manager of the English spectacle depot and by the consultants of the British ophthalmological service.

2. *Auxiliary Units.*—As soon as the hospital situation could be sufficiently studied by the senior consultant the auxiliary units were assigned as follows:

1. One unit to Base Hospital 15, where a room near the headquarters building and opposite the eye ward was turned into an optical shop.
2. One unit to Base Hospital 18, where a special room was assigned.
3. One unit to Base Hospital 25, tho later this unit was transferred to Base Hospital 36, where an eye center was established.
4. One unit to Base Hospital 1, later transferred to Special Base Hospital 115, on its arrival.
5. One unit to Base Hospital 6.
6. One unit to Base Hospital 8, where an eye center was established.
7. One unit to Base Hospital 17.
8. One unit to Camp Hospital 27.

These units immediately began to do excellent work and were much appreciated. While organizing these auxiliary units in the United States the senior consultant fortunately arranged that they carry with them, as personal baggage, all of their supplies. Therefore, they had a good supply of cut and edged lenses, and frames, with all necessary adjusting tools, so that all ordinary prescriptions could be filled at once, thus saving the day for these optical units. Later they were handicapped by the lack of replacement lenses mentioned before as being due to the late arrival of machinery and supplies for the base or replacement unit. By circularizing the ophthalmic surgeons of the A. E. F., an attempt was made to lighten the increasing burden on the optical units by discouraging the ordering of weak plus and minus spheres and cylinders unless very positive indications were present pointing to their need. (Circular 2.)

With the increase in numbers of the troops and hospitals in the A. E. F., it became apparent that additional units would be needed. In fact, many hospitals and hospital centers made strong appeals for optical units. There were three ways of supplying this insistent demand, a demand which shows how much the optical units were needed: (1) by cabling for new units to be sent over fully equipped. This was done by the Chief Surgeon and six new auxiliary units asked for; (2) by using opticians found among the personnel of the base hospitals and supplying them with equipment; (3) by using opticians already connected with the optical shop or auxiliary units and supplying them with equipment.

Pending the arrival of the units that were cabled for, units were organized by the second and third methods and placed as follows:

1. One at the attending surgeon's office at Paris, made up at the base optical unit.
2. One at the Mars Center, making

use of the men already there and equipping them.

3. One at Base Hospital 29, made up at the base optical unit.

4. One at Base Hospital 33, made up at the base optical unit.

5. Two for the Army of Occupation, made up at the base optical unit.

6. One for the Mesves Center, made up at the base optical unit.

Units were requested for the following places and they were to be supplied as soon as the equipment for the six new units arrived:

1. Base Hospital 65, Brest (most urgent).
2. Base Hospital 38, Nantes Center.
3. Base Hospital 27, Angers.
4. Base Hospital 45, Toul Center.
5. Base Hospital 24, Limoges.

In spite of all the discouraging delays, it was felt that the base optical unit and the auxiliary units creditably filled a place in the medical department of the A. E. F. They were a new feature for the medical department and more or less experimental, but the organizer considers that the worth of such an organization for expeditionary forces has been proved.

3. *Mobile Optical Units.*—Authority was requested to equip two mobile units, and this office was asked to submit plans, but the cessation of hostilities and the expected arrival of new auxiliary units, with double equipment, made the project seem unnecessary. For serving the shifting mobile and evacuation hospitals in an advanced area, this plan would have been most helpful and merits consideration for the future. It was expected to make these mobile optical units more independent than were the auxiliary units by the addition of an edging stone and a supply of higher number lenses. They would thus have been small mobile shops, requiring a driver for the motor car, a skilled optical mechanic and an adjuster, and taking their power from the motor of the truck. With two such mobile shops for the advancing troops, with the big base shop as outlined in the foregoing, with a sufficient number of auxiliary units, and, above all, with means of rapidly transporting finished orders to all points, an optical division could give the maximum of service to an expeditionary force.

4. *Suggestions for the Future.*—As a result of actual experiences, mistakes and delays, the following suggestions are offered for future organizations:

(*A*) *Base Unit.*

1. The base unit should start out with larger supplies of blanks and surface ground lenses, and adequate arrangements should be made for a monthly automatic supply.

2. More experienced men who have had an extensive shop (surface and edge grinding) experience would be advisable.

3. An independent power plant in case of a breakdown in the electric current ordinarily supplied.

4. Besides the commanding officer, two commissioned officers should be attached to future base optical units. (At the time the author left France, Major Frank H. Edmonds was in charge of seventy-nine men, with no commissioned officers between him and the first class sergeants. An effort to rectify this state of affairs, which was palpably inefficient, was made, but the cable in regard to new commissions prevented this.)

5. An additional set of surface and edge grinding machines would be advantageous in case of any breakdown of the ones usually in use.

6. Adequate means of quickly transporting finished supplies to all the areas fed from the base optical unit. Too much stress cannot be laid on this suggestion. In numerous instances a delay of from three to six weeks occurred between the time of shipment from the base unit and the arrival of the goods at the hospital or auxiliary units, which frequently meant that glasses arrived long after the men to receive them had been discharged and, therefore, hard to follow up, or men were hospitalized much longer than should have been necessary. Many times goods never reached their destination, requiring a duplication of the order. A number of the more distant hospitals sent their own messengers to bring the finished orders back from the base unit. With the increasing evidence of these delays, arrangement was made with Lieut.-Col. Jones of the medical department repair shop to send some of the

larger shipments by a courier from the base optical shop, and it was imperative that this direct courier service be greatly extended until it covered the entire territory. The following letter was sent to the Chief Surgeon as appertaining to this suggestion:

American E. F., APO 731, France,
9th December, 1918.

From:

Senior Consultant in Ophthalmology.

To:

Chief Surgeon (Attention Colonel Shepard), thru Director of Professional Services, A. E. F.

Subject:

Improvement in forwarding optical supplies from the Base Optical Unit.

1. On November 26th, a circular was sent to the Commanding Officers of the Base and Evacuation Hospitals in order to get data for making up the final report of the Ophthalmic Service to the Chief Surgeon. Many answers have been received to this circular and a great many of them call attention to the fact that glasses sent out from the Base Optical Unit are delayed several weeks in the Parcel Post. It was realized that this method of sending glasses from the Base Optical Unit was slow but it was not known that the delay was generally so great. Recently when large shipments have gone out from the Base Optical Unit a courier messenger has carried them from the shop to their destination. It would vastly improve this service if some arrangements could be made with Lt.-Col. Jones, the Commanding Officer of the Medical Department Repair Shop, for the assignment of several messengers from the Base Optical Unit to aid in the delivery of finished goods.

2. The Base Hospital Unit is so well supplied with men at the present time that two or three men could readily be assigned to this duty and it is felt that the financial outlay involved will more than be met by the saving from the present loss by using the package mail service. One courier per week for the four principal directions, namely, Chaumont and Bazoilles—Mesves, Mars and Vichy—Bordeaux and intermediate points—Savenay and intermediate points—would probably make the handling of this problem more efficient.

ALLEN GREENWOOD,
Lt. Col., M. C., U. S. A.

7. Two small completely equipped base shops, one in the advance section and one in the base section, would be advantageous.

(*B*) *Auxiliary Units.*

1. A double equipment of cut and edged lenses with a supply of these lenses running into much higher numbers, such as cylinders up to 4.50, running from 2.50 to 4.50 by half diopters.

2. Each auxiliary unit should be supplied with a hand edging stone.

The two foregoing suggestions would make future auxiliary units much more independent of the base optical unit and remove a little of the excessive burden from the parent unit.

5. *Artificial Eyes.*—Fortunately, at the last minute; before leaving New York, 1,000 artificial eyes were added to the equipment of the base optical unit. During the summer 200 artificial eyes were selected by the senior consultant from the supply in the hands of a manufacturer in Nantes, and still later, 500 artificial eyes were sent over as part of the equipment of Base Hospital 115.

A selection of artificial eyes was also expected as part of the equipment of the new optical units on their arrival.

At first, small supplies of artificial eyes were sent to various base hospitals; but this plan was evidently a mistake, as it was often impossible to find in the small collection sent an artificial eye suitable for the individual case. It was, therefore, decided to establish centers for the fitting of artificial eyes. Accordingly a large supply was left at Base Hospital 115, at Vichy and also at the base optical unit at Paris, and a supply sent to the port of embarkation for D cases at Savenay. After the decision to embark D cases from Bordeaux and Brest, a supply of artificial eyes was sent to Base Hospital 6 at Bordeaux and to Base Hospital 54 at Brest. A small supply was sent to Base Hospital 29, at Tottenham, England, as a number of men requiring artificial eyes were found in the various hos-

pitals in Base Section 3 at the time of the visit of the senior consultant.

It was thus hoped that no soldier who could be fitted with an artificial eye would be sent home without one.

Arrangements were made for those soldiers requiring minor plastics, before the fitting of artificial eyes, to have this work done at Vichy, Paris, Savenay and to a smaller extent in all the base hospitals. Men requiring more extensive plastics to enable them to wear an artificial eye were routed to Vichy, or classified D and sent to the United States.

IV. CARE OF THE BLIND.

Some of our soldiers have made the sacrifice which comes next to the supreme one of loss of life, when they have received injuries depriving them of all useful vision. Fortunately, the number of our battle blind has been much less than might reasonably have been expected.

It was felt that everything possible should be done to give these men courage, without undue and misplaced sympathy; and at first it was thought possible that they might be routed to the port of embarkation and sent *at once* to the hospital at Roland Park, Baltimore, conducted by Lieutenant-Colonel Bordley; the director of the Red Cross Institute for Blinded Soldiers and Sailors. In view, however, of the experience of Great Britain in handling this problem, as far as it concerned blinded Canadians and Australians, it was apparent that the immediate shipping of blinded men was apt to have a disastrous mental effect, and it became necessary to provide means of giving these men some preliminary training in the A. E. F. to tide them over their first discouragement and to make them better able to care for themselves and appreciate the fact that, while deprived of the most useful sense, they still, by the use of others, could accomplish wonders and be made useful and happy citizens. Having gained this confidence in themselves, they could then be transported to the United States with greater certainty of arriving in good condition.

At first, for a short time, in carrying out this preliminary training, the services of Miss Winifred Holt, who had done wonderful work among the French blinded soldiers in her *Phare de France*, were made use of, and she and her assistants visited the first American blind in Paris and Savenay. Later, Miss Dorothy Richardson, one of Miss Holt's workers, carried on the work, under Miss Holt's supervision, with the first blind sent to Base Hospital 115 at Vichy. Here excellent preliminary training was given to a few blind until they were ready to go to the United States. On the giving up of this small center for the preliminary education of the blind, Miss Holt ceased her personal services but released her assistant, Miss Richardson, to enter the employ of the A. E. F. as a civilian employe for the preliminary instruction of the blind. Miss Dorothy Richardson's services were invaluable to the A. E. F. in the emergency and she was at once put in charge of the blind work at Savenay, where a much larger school was established and where at one time she, and her assistants, had thirty-five blind men to teach. (The funds for carrying on this work were furnished by Lieutenant-Colonel Bordley.) With the exception of a very small number, all of our American battle blind came under the care of this capable young woman.

At this time the Red Cross was requested by the Chief Surgeon, at the suggestion of the senior consultant in ophthalmology, to cable for Major Migel to come to the Red Cross headquarters in Paris, to assist in carrying on this work, under the supervision of the senior consultant in ophthalmology. In view of the fact that the blind were to be sent to a Red Cross institute in America, this arrangement seemed peculiarly fitting.

The Chief Surgeon, at the suggestion of the senior consultant in ophthalmology, also cabled for eight reconstruction aids, qualified to give preliminary instruction to the blind, to be placed, on their arrival, at the disposal of the senior consultant. It was intended to send two of these aids to Savenay, two to Vichy, one to Vittel, one to Red Cross Military Hospital 1, in Paris, one to Bordeaux and one to England. Tho the cable was sent in August, these aids did not arrive until late in December, but

there was still work for them and they were very welcome. They were brought by Major Migel as Red Cross aids and at once became of great help in carrying on the work.

When it became apparent, early in the last drive at St. Mihiel and the Argonne, that a number of blind were to come down to Savenay, it was decided to organize there a school for their preliminary instruction. As mentioned before, this was placed in charge of Miss Dorothy Richardson, who was ably assisted by Mr. Baker, a teacher of the blind, himself blind since 6 years of age, who was kindly released for this work by the A. B. F. B. Fund organization. This organization also furnished a sufficient supply of typewriters, Braille primers, games and other appliances for the preliminary instruction of the blind. Later there was added to the teaching force a Red Cross worker, Miss Rose Thorndike, a reconstruction aid, Miss Harvey, and two of the aids brought by Major Migel. Just before the school was established at Savenay the senior consultant visited Hospital 8, on receiving notice that several blinded soldiers had been admitted, and found a very sad group of men in the ophthalmic ward and a general air of depression thruout. Steps were at once taken to have Mr. Baker sent to Base Hospital 8. A few days later, on making a second visit to Savenay, a most striking change was observed. Mr. Baker had arrived and had voluntarily occupied a bed in the ward among the blind soldiers. The influence of his cheerful personality coupled with the knowledge that he had done such successful work as a blind man was very great. The men were singing, laughing and, a little later, were listening to stories that Mr. Baker was relating. The help of having such a man living with these blind soldiers and taking part in their activities, telling them about his personal experiences and encouraging them to help themselves was, thruout the time of his service in Savenay, of untold assistance.

During the summer Mr. W. W. Stamm, formerly secretary to the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind and a Y. M. C. A. worker in France, was commissioned a first lieutenant in the Sanitary Corps and made several trips with the blinded soldiers from the forward areas to Savenay. The largest group to be sent home departed about December 13 and consisted of twenty-seven blinded men, with Lieutenant Stamm in charge, who left with orders to proceed with them to the institution at Baltimore. All of these twenty-seven soldiers had received from three to eight weeks' training and all reached the United States in good shape.

The work at Savenay has had a very striking influence on the morale of the blind men collected there and it is felt that this work has been carried on in a very satisfactory manner.

From statistics at hand it can be stated that the number of American soldiers, totally blinded from battle injuries during the period from the time the troops first came to France up to the present, will be slightly less than one hundred.

V. RECLASSIFICATIONS.

Since it seemed that an improvement could be made in standards of visual classification adopted for the A. E. F., the matter was taken up by the division of ophthalmology and the following classification submitted to the Chief Surgeon and later adopted:

Class A.—To include men with uncorrected vision of not less than 20/40 for the better eye and not less than 20/100 for the poorer eye, providing no organic disease exists in either eye and with good field of vision.

Class B.—To include cases of active organic disease of the eye, or conditions the result of trauma, in which recovery with vision not less than that required for Class C, may be expected within a reasonable length of time.

Class C.—(1) To include men with vision correctable with glasses to not less than 20/100 in *each eye*, with a good field of vision and provided no active organic disease exists; (2) men with one eye amblyopic, blind or lost, provided the remaining eye has vision of not less than 20/100 correctable with glasses to 20/50 and showing no organic disease.

Class D.—All men not included in the foregoing three classes.

VI. MAGNETS.

It is thought wise to make this separate heading owing to the importance of magnets in ophthalmic surgery.

Some emergency ophthalmic surgery is possible with rather indifferent equipment, but nothing can take the place of the giant and small magnets in handling those cases in which a small magnetic foreign body is lodged within the globe. It was immediately apparent during the early visiting of hospitals that this was one of the most urgent and necessary articles of equipment, for, with only a few base hospitals thus equipped, it would be impossible for the ophthalmic service properly to handle this very important branch of the operative work.

A supply of magnets had been shipped, following a request by cable in the very early spring, but at first no trace of them could be found. They were finally located by the commanding officer of Intermediate Medical Supply Depot 3, as listed under roentgen-ray supplies.

This early supply was immediately expended by sending the magnets to the points where they were most likely to be needed in case of an emergency. Giant Lancaster and small Lancaster magnets were placed in the two forward evacuation hospitals (Nos. 1 and 2), large and small magnets were placed at Chaumont and Bazoilles, and these, with the similar equipment at Base Hospital 36, temporarily filled in the gap. A small Lancaster was placed with the giant Volkman already installed at American Red Cross Military Hospital 1.

No further magnets arrived for some time, so that in order to meet the very insistent demand from all base hospital centers not equipped, arrangements were made to build some giant magnets at the medical department repair shop in Paris. Specifications for such a giant magnet were furnished from this office, based on the specifications of the model used by the English service, and five unusually good giant magnets were turned out.



Fig. 2.—Group of blind soldiers at the Savenay school. Mr. Baker is seen standing at the extreme left in the back row and Miss Richardson at the right.

It is interesting to note that up to 1918 the B. E. F. had three eye centers equipped with magnets (Boulogne, Etaples and Rouen). These centers possess large but immobile giant magnets. To cover their other areas they had an ambulance which carried a large Haab magnet and a small hand magnet. Following

the arrival in France of U. S. A. Base Hospital 5, which was equipped with the large and small models of Lancaster magnet, the British took up the question of supplying more of their hospitals; and basing their work on the magnets of Base Hospital 5, they turned out a very satisfactory model. The plans of this British model were supplied to our division of ophthalmology.

About the time the first magnet was finished at the shop, Lieut.-Col. Nelson M. Black arrived in France, bringing with him five medium sized magnets. These, with a few extra Lancaster magnets, which arrived a little later, made it possible to place magnets at all the most needed points among the mobile and evacuation hospitals.

Many of these magnets have been of assistance in other branches of surgery, particularly in brain surgery.

The following suggestion is made for the future: In view of the wide usefulness of magnets and the imperative need of them for the removal of magnetic foreign bodies from the interior of the eye, and for the diagnosis of such cases, it is strongly urged that every base hospital in any expeditionary force be supplied with a giant and a small magnet. Experience has proved that these magnets, built according to the Lancaster design, or a similar one, are by far the best and most easily transported. At times when battle casualties are not to be expected, or when an army is on a peace footing, magnets are occasionally necessary, but could be much more widely scattered.

Magnet Cars.—Both the English and French have found that a motor car, with special body and equipped with a dynamo, run by the engine, so that a giant magnet could be carried about and furnished with a suitable and sufficiently powerful electric current, was very useful. Prior to the cessation of hostilities, various types of such motor cars were investigated by the senior consultant with the intention of recommending one for the medical department; but when the necessity for such a car no longer existed the project was abandoned. The urgency of such a portable outfit for the A. E. F. was lessened owing to the fact that our mobile hospitals had such electric current producing cars or had portable gasoline driven dynamos, delivering a direct current suitable for the magnets. Therefore, magnet equipments were placed with the more advanced and isolated of these hospitals.

VII. REPORTS FROM OPHTHALMIC SURGEONS.

Early in June a circular letter was sent from the office of the senior consultant in ophthalmology to all ophthalmic surgeons of the A. E. F., requesting them to send a monthly report of the work done in the department which they had charge of. The reports were generally sent in and proved very interesting, and a compilation of them was sent each month to the office of the Chief Surgeon.

Later in the summer when it was decided in the office of the Chief Surgeon to have reports sent in from separate departments to the director of professional services, a form for such a report was made up in the office of the senior consultant and submitted to the chief surgeon. A large supply of these blank forms was then printed and a number sent to each of the ophthalmic surgeons with the direction that two copies of the report be sent to the director of professional services, with the understanding that one copy would be sent by the latter to the office of the senior consultant in ophthalmology, so that a general idea of the work being done in the various hospitals could be ascertained and a compiled report could be sent to the chief surgeon each month.

MONTHLY REPORT OF OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SERVICE.

Hospital No... Month of.....191..

Type of Cases	No.	Remarks
Bed cases admitted to eye service	...	...
Eye cases cared for on other service	...	...
Eye cases seen in consultation, once or twice	...	...
New cases seen in out-patient's department, exclusive of a-b-c	...	...
Old cases seen in out-patient's department, exclusive of a-b-c	...	...
Number of enucleations	...	...

Number of eviscerations .....
Number of cases requiring use of magnet (intraocular) .....
Number of cases with magnetic foreign body in eye .....
Number of cases with nonmagnetic foreign body in eye .....
Number of intraocular foreign bodies removed with magnet .....
Number of gas cases with definite corneal ulceration .....
Number of cases blinded or with loss of useful vision (both eyes) .....
Number of refractions .....
Number of prescriptions for glasses .....
Total number of cases .....
Remarks:

.....

Ophthalmic Surgeon.

Instructions.—This report should be completed each month by the Ophthalmic Surgeon of each hospital and forwarded direct to the Director of Professional Services. Two copies must go to Director Prof. Services, GHQ, A. E. F., APO No. 706.

VIII. TRACHOMA SURVEY.

The division of ophthalmology was asked by the medical division of the labor bureau to make a survey of the administrative labor companies in the A. E. F., to determine the amount of trachoma and to suggest methods for its control. These labor companies were scattered over the whole of the A. E. F., from the air fields, close to the front, back to the base ports. This survey was completed in November. The eyelids of 12,641 laborers were turned, 261 cases of trachoma were found and upward of 1,500 cases of suspicious conjunctivitis. Measures were suggested for the handling of this problem.

Practically the whole of this survey was carried out by Lieut.-Col. George S. Derby, with the hearty and active cooperation of the medical division of the labor bureau. (See p. 500.)

A full report of this survey was submitted to the Chief Surgeon.

IX. ARMY OF OCCUPATION.

Major Ralph A. Fenton was nominated as ophthalmic consultant for the Army of Occupation and Lieut.-Col. Nelson M. Black from the office was detailed to advise with him in suggesting a plan for an eye service for this army.

The following suggestions have been submitted to the office and forwarded to the Chief Surgeon:

Lieutenant-Colonel Black suggests: (*a*) that a combined ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist (capable of passing on ordinary ophthalmologic conditions) be attached to each division; (*b*) that one field hospital from each division be selected to take care of minor eye cases; (*c*) that the more serious cases and all refraction work should be sent back to the nearest evacuation hospital; (*d*) that a center be established on the front at Coblenz and one on the line of communications, possibly at Treves, with the best eye equipment available, where the bulk of the eye work will be done and where the two optical units, recently asked for and sent, will be located.

It is possible that when conditions become more settled in the Army of Occupation, certain changes may have to be made in these plans to conform to a changing situation, and to changes in location of evacuation and mobile hospitals.

X. ORGANIZATION OF AN OPHTHALMOLOGIC SERVICE.

Suggestions.—The experience of the division of ophthalmology since it was instituted leads to the following suggestions for the organization of an ophthalmologic service:

On numerous occasions during the past campaign there was a shortage of men capable of doing ophthalmologic work, due to several factors. Ophthalmologists were not attached to all of the early base hospitals which came over, and to none of the evacuation hospitals, but the need of them in the latter was so urgent that the Chief Surgeon, at the suggestion of the senior consultant, cabled the request that a skilled ophthalmic surgeon be attached to all future evacuation hospitals to be sent over. For all the mobile

hospitals that were organized in France and the early evacuation hospitals, there were not enough casual ophthalmologists from home at first available. The need for a very considerable number of ophthalmologists in the expeditionary force is, therefore, evident; and it is not probable that the supply of fully capable men will ever reach the demand. Therefore, the available men must be placed where they will do the most good.

At the time the armistice was signed there were places where at least 150 ophthalmologists could be used to advantage in replacement divisions, mobile, evacuation, base and camp hospitals.

1. *Divisions.*—Certain of the divisions serving at the front have had an ophthalmologist on duty and have received the equipment necessary for refractive work, the treatment of disease conditions and for minor operations. Certain other divisions have asked that an ophthalmologist be assigned. If there were forty divisions in France at the close of hostilities, with more to come during the succeeding year, it is easy to see what a drain on the ophthalmologic forces it would be to put a man in each division. No eye surgery should be done in the field hospital. At the most, only minor cases, or mild gassed eyes, should be held there; and these may be treated by the medical officers on duty, following the instructions from the ophthalmic division. If, in an emergency, the advice of an eye surgeon is required, it is always possible to obtain one from the nearest mobile or evacuation hospital. Eye patients from the divisions who need treatment should be sent to the nearest mobile, evacuation or base hospital. Refraction work for the division should be done in the evacuation hospital or a nearby base hospital.

An exception to this is the replacement divisions. To each of these an ophthalmologist should be attached.

2. *Mobile Hospitals.*—An ophthalmologist should be stationed in every mobile hospital, and it has been the aim of the senior consultant in ophthalmology to accomplish this.

At the time of the Argonne campaign, five of the mobile hospitals functioning had men capable of doing the best type of eye surgery.

Mobile hospitals should be thoroly equipped to do eye surgery. They should be provided with the Army eye case of 1917, the auxiliary eye case, an electric ophthalmoscope, condensing lens, an electric flashlight and a large and small eye magnet, which, in these hospitals, can obtain current from the roentgen-ray circuit. While the actual number of eye cases will be small, the availability of skilled eye treatment may make the difference between sight and blindness.

In open warfare the number of eye wounds runs from 2 to 4 per cent. The ophthalmologist is a necessity in the mobile hospital, for experience has shown that only the exceptional general surgeon is sufficiently conversant with eye work. The ordinary debridement of wounds as practiced in war surgery is absolutely contraindicated in wounds of the ocular structures. The retention of all possible tissue in the neighborhood of the eye is necessary for its integrity. Enucleations and eviscerations of the globe are seldom properly done by the general surgeon and packing of the orbit with gauze, so commonly done by them, is absolutely unnecessary and pernicious. The extraction of magnetic intraocular foreign bodies and the decision as to the course of treatment to be pursued in the case of an injured eyeball are matters for the skill of the specialist. These functions have been carried out by the men attached to evacuation and mobile hospitals.

It is fully recognized that there is not sufficient eye work to occupy the whole time of an ophthalmologist in the mobile hospital or even in the evacuation hospital (except in peace time, when there is refraction to be done). He should be and, in many instances, has been placed as the second member of an operating team. All eye cases are referred to this team, and when it is necessary to perform an eye operation the position of the members of the team is reversed.

During all times the ophthalmologist may be and is often assigned to other duties. It is a basic principle that all eye men attached to mobile and evacua-

tion hospitals shall be prepared to undertake these other duties besides their eye work. During periods of stress, however, commanding officers of hospitals should not overload their specialists with so much work that they cannot attend to their special cases.

Mobile hospitals need not be equipped to do refraction.

3. *Evacuation Hospitals.*—What applies to the mobile hospital applies also to the evacuation hospital. This latter unit, however, being of a more permanent character, should be equipped to handle all varieties of eye work. In addition to the equipment necessary to the mobile hospital, the evacuation hospital should have a trial case and necessary charts and a hand perimeter. Refraction for the divisions should be carried out here.

During periods of stress, the ophthalmologist should be assigned as second man on a surgical team, and during peace times he should be able to devote the whole of his time to his eye cases.

Where two or three evacuation hospitals are situated in close proximity, only one need be fitted up to care for refraction work and the eye men attached may pool their outpatient work. Such a condition existed at Evacuation Hospitals 6 and 7 at Souilly for a period in 1918.

At the close of hostilities nearly every evacuation hospital in the field had an ophthalmologist attached, and, with the exception of eye magnets, had a fair, though hardly sufficient, equipment.

A competent ophthalmologist was, for a time, stationed at the principal gas hospital; and plans were made to cover the other gas hospitals from the evacuation hospitals in the neighborhood.

In periods of stress last summer and autumn the ophthalmic consultants from the headquarters at Neufchateau served at evacuation and mobile hospitals, as the supply of ophthalmologists was inadequate.

Optical service for evacuation hospitals has been discussed in the section of optical service.

4. *Base Hospitals.*—Each isolated base hospital should have an ophthalmologist attached, and this has been the case, except for a brief period in a few instances. Each one should also have the complete ophthalmic equipment listed for base hospitals.

The isolated base hospitals have taken care of all varieties of eye cases, except in some instances the magnet cases.

Base Hospitals 15 and 17 and Camp Hospital 27 have each an optical unit. In other instances prescriptions for glasses have been sent to the nearest unit, or to Paris.

Where the amount of work justified it in isolated base hospitals, the eye service was separated from the ear, nose and throat. Where the work was light, the two services have been united.

5. *Base Hospital Centers.*—Where base hospitals are close together, in groups of two or more, one of the hospitals should be selected as a center to receive all the eye cases sent to the group. All of the ophthalmic surgeons necessary to such a central clinic should be provided from the surrounding hospitals. Two or three ophthalmic surgeons can easily take care of all the ophthalmic work of five or six hospitals so that a number of hospitals in the group need have no ophthalmic surgeon. Whatever consultation eye work is necessary can be handled by calling in one of the men from the central eye clinic. Where this plan has been adopted, and has been established long enough to be put on a firm working basis, it has proved of great value. It saves special equipment and personnel. It must be obvious to anyone that a single good sized eye clinic, similar in design to the one mentioned and appended in the body of this report, would be far better, for instance, in a group of ten hospitals than to have ten separate sets of clinical rooms. Each such center should have one of the most competent ophthalmologists obtainable in charge of the work, and he can act as consultant for the surrounding area.

Such centers were established in Base Hospital 46 for the Bazoilles area and in Base Hospital 36 for the Vittel and Contrexeville areas, and progress was being made toward establishing centers at Allerey, Mesves and Mars. Additional

centers would have been established at Paris and Beaune, and in other areas, when the need arose.

Dec. 1, 1918, the division of ophthalmology had eighty-six ophthalmologists listed as serving in base hospitals.

6. *Camp Hospitals.*—The amount of eye service required in camp hospitals varies enormously according to the function of the hospitals. Camp Hospital 26, which served the First depot division for several months, ran in the neighborhood of 1,000 new eye cases a month, occasionally more. At this camp hospital the eye, ear, nose and throat work constituted a single service and there was enough work for three and sometimes four men. There was no base hospital close to Camp Hospital 26.

At some camp hospitals there was practically no eye work done and what little developed was transferred to the nearest base hospital.

The policy of the division was to join with the ear, nose and throat service and place a combined eye, ear, nose and throat specialist at isolated camp hospitals. Camp hospitals in the neighborhood of base hospitals transfer their eye work to the base hospitals.

Dec. 1, 1918, this division had listed twenty-eight men doing eye work in the camp hospitals. Doubtless there were a number more as all the camp hospitals had not been visited.

XI. ROUTING OF EYE CASES.

The centralization of eye cases near the front seems to be feasible to a certain extent and is highly desirable. Such an experiment was carried out in the early part of the Argonne campaign, with a certain degree of success in spite of the fact that the hospital chosen to receive these cases (Mobile Hospital 6) was in an inaccessible location and a long distance back of the front. As the line moved forward, it became practically impossible to route cases there on account of the great distance and its inaccessibility.

While this hospital was in operation, however, a very considerable number of eye injuries were treated there. An attempt was made to send to this hospital all cases with a head bandage.

From the ophthalmologic standpoint the establishment of such a hospital simplifies the work of the division of ophthalmology and increases the efficiency of the service.

A thoroly experienced ophthalmologist may be spared for such a position. Special equipment may be placed at his disposal. Moreover, such a hospital is very useful for training less experienced men in the handling of eye conditions seen in war. Eye cases, therefore, when possible, should be routed to special front line hospitals.

When eye cases are routed thru to the base hospitals they should bear some distinguishing mark in order that they may reach the eye center in the area to which they are to go. To accomplish this purpose ordinary baggage tags, with a large EYE printed on them, were supplied to the front line hospitals and ophthalmologists were instructed to tag their cases before evacuating them. This system gave promise of being of considerable help in properly distributing cases.

XII. CENTRAL EYE HOSPITAL.

After the organization of the ophthalmologic service a pressing need was felt for a base hospital that would have a large number of beds available for eye cases, where special equipment would be installed and which would be manned by a staff of experienced ophthalmologists.

Base Hospital 115, equipped especially for head cases, ear, nose and throat, facio-maxillary and eye cases, was designated as this special hospital.

A beginning had been made in routing to this hospital eye cases needing special observation and study and cases requiring extensive plastic reconstruction work. At this hospital were artists capable of making colored plates of especially interesting cases and a specially trained pathologist was also to be available. It was planned to send all eye pathologic specimens to this hospital for study and record.

XIII. TEACHING AND OBSERVATION.

It has been fully realized that war ophthalmology presents certain special features, a knowledge of which is of great importance for the eye specialist if

our wounded men are to receive the treatment which they deserve. Both the senior consultant and the assistant consultant had had a considerable period of service with the B. E. F. before serving with the A. E. F., and since then have had opportunities to see some of the work done by the French. The exigencies of the situation in France made it impossible to give many ophthalmologists opportunities for observation during the active period. Three men were sent for a period of time to observe in the principal British eye clinic, in France, and several more had an opportunity to see French work in various Paris hospitals. The others were instructed, as far as possible, by personal visits by the consultants and by means of circulars.

Two other men had an opportunity to see some of the British and French work before the senior consultant was appointed.

All of these men occupied important positions and their opportunities for observation in allied clinics were of considerable advantage to them.

Base Hospital 115 was also to have served as the eye teaching center for the A. E. F., where men could be sent for instruction, especially during the less active winter months. It was also intended that the men sent there for instruction should be classified as to their qualifications as ophthalmic surgeons. This was done to a certain extent with casuals assigned to this hospital. Had the war continued, Special Base Hospital 115, under the able management of Lieut.-Col. E. C. Ellett, who is so well known to all ophthalmologists in America, would have developed a very large and important eye center for instruction and qualification of Army ophthalmologists.

XIV. SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING EYE SERVICE.

1. *Refraction.*—A great deal of unnecessary refraction work overseas could be avoided if a more careful ocular examination were made at home, a more careful record made of vision and refraction, and if a permanent record were to accompany the soldier.

The question of a permanent vision and refraction record was taken up by this office very early and a gummed record slip, similar to that used by the B. E. F., was printed and furnished with each pair of glasses.

The best way to preserve this record is to paste it inside the cover of the pay book in the case of enlisted personnel, while with the officers and others, it may be pasted inside the glasses case, or better, carried with the personal papers.

If this slip be fully made out a permanent record is preserved, and replacement glasses may be ordered without further examination.

2. *Equipment.*—(1) Army eye instrument case. Certain changes can be made in the army eye instrument case, which would add to its usefulness:

a. When the present supply is exhausted it would be wise to combine all necessary instruments in one case. Until that can be done changes in the contents of the 1917 case should be made, to make it more independent of the auxiliary case.

b. The eye speculum now in the 1917 case might be replaced by a nonmagnetic one of a different type.

c. Nonmagnetic forceps should be provided.

d. A pair of more suitable enucleation scissors should be provided.

(2) Auxiliary eye case. Certain changes should also be made in the auxiliary eye case, which would add to its usefulness:

a. The present cautery set should be done away with; and a Todd cautery, or other cautery of that type, should be substituted.

b. A Meller's speculum for excision of the lacrimal sac should be added.

c. In an Army eye case a small supply of necessary special drugs in tabloid form should be placed. These should include atropin, homatropin, eserin, cocain and fluorescein. These would take up very little space.

(3) Chest of eye equipment for base hospitals. It might be desirable to have standard chests capable of holding complete eye equipment for a base hospital. Such a chest should contain the following list:

Army eye case, 1917—with changes as noted.

Auxiliary eye case—with changes as noted.

1 flash light.

2 De Zeng electric ophthalmoscopes.

1 hand perimeter, with 6 dozen charts.

1 standard perimeter (for base hospitals only).

1 Zeiss, or Bausch and Lomb, binocular corneal loupe.

2 irrigators (New York Eye and Ear Infirmary type).

12 soft rubber ear syringes.

36 glass spheres (18, 20 and 22 mm.), 12 each.

1 set Jennings color vision test.

1 instrument rack.

1 complete set of test charts for distant and near vision.

4 different arrangements of letters.

1 illiterate chart.

1 reversed type chart.

1 chart beginning with a 20/100 letter.

3 frosted bulbs for retinoscopy and ophthalmoscopy.

1 extensible wall bracket for ophthalmoscope light.

12 prescription pads with carbon copy.

1 complete set of directions for vision testing and record keeping should be in every instrument case and trial lens set.

1 copy of Manual 3 and one copy of Manual of Ophthalmology (Surgeon General's Office).

2 eye magnets, one large and one small (Lancaster type), with electric foot switch and necessary connections should be furnished, but packed in separate box, on account of their weight.

3. *Personnel.* — All ophthalmologists should be tried out and carefully graded in the United States before being sent on foreign duty; and their records should be sent over with them, or in advance of them.

The following is the station list of the ophthalmologists with the A. E. F., Dec. 1, 1918:

Headquarters Medical and Surgical Consultants, A. E. F.—Neufchateau.

Lieut.-Col Allen Greenwood (Senior Consultant).

Lieut.-Col. George S. Derby (Assistant Consultant).

Lieut.-Col. Nelson M. Black (Consultant attached to Headquarters, Medical and Surgical Consultants).

Army of Occupation.

Major Ralph A. Fenton (Consultant).

Tactical Divisions.

5th. Capt. A. R. Kidd.
77th. Lieut. Reddy.
83rd. Lieut. A. S. Rochester

Mobile Hospitals.

4. Capt Lawrence Post (Ophthalmologic on surgical service).
5. Major J. B. Corser.
39. Capt. A. H. Little.

Evacuation Hospitals.

1. Major G. I. Hogue (Consultant, Toul Area).
2. Capt. Ernest Rau.
3. Lieut. G. A. Peacock.
4. Lieut. C. M. Buckner.
5. Capt. Harry V. Judge.
6. Capt. H. E. Keely.
7. Lieut. R. E. Riemers.
8. Capt. E. G. Foote.
10. Lieut. Moncrieff.
    Capt. S. I. Ebers.
11. Capt. Andrew Hunter.
12. Lieut. A. I. Arenson.
13. Lieut. J. J. Zimmerman.
14. Lieut. H. H. Ainsworth.
15. Lieut. J. M. Severson.
16. Lieut. C. C. Cowan.

Base Hospitals.

1. Capt. W. W. Weeks.
   Lieut. H. L. Pelle.
2. Capt. L. W. Jessamen.
3. Lieut. Cyril Barnert.
6. Major Alex. Quackenboss (Consultant, Base Section 2).
   Capt. Ralph Hatch.
7. Capt. A. B. Connor.
8. Capt. Roy Connor (Consultant, Savenay area).
   Lieut. Fuller.
9. Lieut. Roy Parkinson.
10. Lieut. J. H. Roth.
12. Major Adam Sherman.
13. Lieut. Andrew Carr.
14. Capt. M. H. Powers.
    Lieut. E. B. Fowler.

15. Capt. G. H. Grout.
    Lieut. R. E. Sullivan.
17. Major D. A. Campbell.
18. Capt. Lloyd B. Whitham (Consultant, Bazoilles area).
20. Capt. Claude McKee.
21. Lieut. C. R. Farham.
22. Major Herbert Walker.
    Capt. H. B. Orton.
24. Capt. Charles A. Bahn (Consultant, Limoges area).
25. Major Clarence King (Consultant, Aleray area).
26. Lieut. S. T. Forsythe.
27. Major S. Smith.
28. Capt. J. W. Kimberlin.
29. Capt. W. C. Finnoff.
30. Capt. N. P. Wood.
31. Capt. J. D. Washburn.
32. Capt. W. H. Post.
34. Lieut R. J. Sprowl.
35. Lieut. S. H. Jesburg.
36. Major J. M. Patton (Consultant, Vittel-Contrexeville areas).
37. Major E. P. Odeneal.
    Lieut. H. R. Miller.
38. Capt. J. R. Forst (Consultant. Nantes area).
40. Capt. R. Rockhart.
41. Capt. J. W. Burke.
    Capt. Frederick Falk.
43. Capt. C. L. Kaucher.
    Lieut. M. S. Equen.
44. Lieut. W. D. Rowland.
45. Capt. R. Wright.
46. Lieut. Chas. E. West.
47. Lieut. H. A. Fletcher.
48. Captain L. E. Hetrick.
50. Capt. A. E. Mattice.
53. Capt. O. P. Bennett.
55. Capt. John F. Edwards.
56. Capt. Walter F. Macklin.
57. Capt. J. Stanford.
58. Major George W. Jean (Consultant, Rimaucourt Center).
60. Capt. J. W. Earel.
61. Capt. Robert H. Fowler.
    Lieut. George H. Lang.
62. Lieut. J. F. Herbert.
65. Capt. William A. Cook.
66. Lieut. R S. Beam.
67. Lieut. M. W. Blair.
69. Capt. Thomas H. Curtin.
    Capt. H. B. Lemere (Mesves Hospital Center).
    Capt. B. F. Baer, Jr. (Consultant, Mars Hospital Center).
70. Lieut. Ralph L. Daniels.
76. Capt. Alfred W. Haskell.
77. Capt. Henry Stanbery.
80. Lieut. Frank C. Leavitt.
81. Capt. C. E. Rayburn.
82. Capt. George Mytinger
84. Capt. B. H. Jenne.
88. Capt. C. E. Connor.
101. Capt. Robert Beattie.
105. Capt. A. E. Ibersoff.
114. Capt. C. N. Sneed.
115. Lieut.-Col. E. C. Ellett (Consultant, Vichy Hospital Com. area).
    Capt. L. M. Francis (In charge of Ophth.).
    Capt. C. A. Burkholder.
    Capt. Carl Fisher.
    Capt. H. B. Searcy.
    Lieut. Grady E. Clay.
    Lieut. G. A. Poux.
    Capt. Alan C. Woods.
116. Lieut. H. B. Chandler.
202. Capt. A. D. McCornachie.
204. Lieut. F. A. Millet.

American Red Cross Military Hospitals

1. Capt. F. W. Shine (Consultant, Paris area).
    Capt. A. G. Fewell.
2. Lieut. W. B. Doherty.
3. Lieut. E. D. Loughran.
4. Capt. Earl B. Brooks.
5. Lieut. Lyman A. Copps.

Camp Hospitals

3. Lieut. Nicholas Edrington.
4. Capt. F. G. Sprowl.
    Capt. E. R. Sibley.
7. Capt. George W. Boot.
8. Capt. Snyder Maiden.
9. Capt. F. B. Harding.
12. Lieut. J. F. Herbert.
13. Capt. E. H. Vine.
14. Capt. F. P. Herrod.
15. Capt. Martin Crook.
19. Capt. A. G. Mathewson.
26. Major C. F. Jump.
    Lieut. Cecil Stockard.
27. Capt. E. H. Cooper.
99. Capt. E. E. Straw.
31. Capt. J. H. Shaw.
33. Lieut. M. J. Weiss.
34. Lieut. E. R. Cotham.
36. Lieut. W. Bishop.
37. Lieut. Cady.

38. Lieut. E. F. Stroud.
40. Capt. R. J. Bullard.
42. Capt. E. L. Titus.
48. Capt. Ira J. Magee.
50. Capt. Frank I. Powers.
68. Lieut. Porter Hopkins.

Chief Surgeon's Office, Base Section 5.
Capt. E. A. Looper .....

Attending Surgeon's Office, Paris.
Capt. W. D. McKenna .....

Attending Surgeon's Office, Army Schools.
Capt. John B. Smyser .....

Chief Surgeon's Office, Base Section 3.
Major William T. Shoemaker.. (Consultant.)

PENETRATING AND PERFORATING WOUNDS OF THE EYEBALL WITH DIAGNOSIS AND TREATMENT OF RETAINED FOREIGN BODIES.

William T. Shoemaker, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA.

This paper gives a general survey of the character of the wounds of the eyeball, encountered by the ophthalmologists of the American Expeditionary Forces, and discusses the treatment judged most appropriate for each class of cases. It was read before the American Ophthalmological Society, June 14th, 1919.

Wounds penetrating or perforating the eyeball as seen during the war, present a number of interesting lines for discussion. If the eyeball is sufficiently destroyed from rupture, removal—incomplete or complete—is necessary; and if vision is totally lost from hemorrhage or intraocular damage, removal may be advisable. In these cases, the only question is the advantage or disadvantage of one of the several methods, and the selection of the best method for that particular case. If the eyeball is not destroyed, but contains a foreign body, discussion might be endless upon the various procedures to be practiced. First, a determination of the character of the F. B. whether magnetic or nonmagnetic. Second, its size and location as shown by the X-Ray. Third, if magnetic, the best way to attack it, whether by the anterior or the posterior route; the best sort of magnet, and the best technic. And fourth, if nonmagnetic and otherwise inaccessible, shall it be allowed to remain, or shall the eyeball be removed; in other words, judgment on the dangers of sympathetic opthalmia. The totally destroyed eyeball—and the majority of them with us were in this class—has been well described by Col. Lister and others. It presents little interest, and offers but little opportunity for anything but ordinary skill and judgment. Such eyeballs were often primarily eviscerated, and the accompanying conditions were mostly compounded comminuted fracture of the orbital and other bones of the face and skull, laceration and destruction of the the lids, conjunctiva, etc. Brain substance was frequently lost thru a fracture of the orbital roof; and frequently the ethmoidal sinuses, the antrum, and the orbit, were thrown into a common cavity. Swelling and infiltration were intense, and the only practical operation was a cleanup operation. The foreign body, generally near at hand, was sometimes far removed from the domain of ophthalmic surgery. For example, in one case, a large piece of shrapnel had passed from before, backward, completely through the eyeball and orbit into the brain, and rested there beneath the cortex in the temporal lobe, just in advance of the ear. By a partial exenteration of the orbit and the aid of an ordinary large nail as a tip introduced through the wound of entrance, I was able to recover the F. B. with the hand magnet. The

patient made a good primary recovery and went to Blighty, apparently little the worse for the wear. What has happened since, I do not know. When possible, I enucleated completely what was left of the badly ruptured eyeball, with the feeling that recovery was more quickly reached in this way than by allowing the eviscerated sclera, or any part of it, to remain. Col. Lister favored the retention of a button of sclera next the nerve, to avoid opening the nerve sheath. While fatal meningitis and sinus thrombosis following enucleation for panophthalmitis is possible, and theoretically a danger, it must be an exceedingly rare occurrence.

Noyes[1] concludes that "while a small risk of life is incurred by enucleation, about 1 in 4,000, the supposed increase of risk by the existence of suppurative panophthalmitis is not so far justified by the facts, as to bar its performance under these conditions. Neither when proper indications arise, need we on this account hesitate to do the operation.

Kontrowitsch reviews the literature to 1912, and concludes that on the whole, enucleation is a fairly safe procedure. Darrieux holds that in traumatic panophthalmitis, enucleation is the operation of choice, while in other forms of panophthalmitis, that operation offers no greater danger than any other operative procedure.

I have seen one case of suppurative meningitis following enucleation for panophthalmitis. That was 19 years ago. And more recently I had a case of beginning sympathetic ophthalmia, following enucleation in which a button of sclera had been allowed to remain. The condition promptly disappeared when the sclera was removed. To this case, however, belongs an explanation. The eyeball had been imperfectly enucleated, and the operator had cut thru the sclera of a collapsed eyeball instead of thru the nerve. Naturally, the stump contained portions of retina and choroid, which may well account for the subsequent trouble. It emphasizes, however, the importance of thoroly disposing of all but sclera when we eviscerate. In my opinion, complete enucleation in these cases is the preferable operation, irrespective of the septic or nonseptic condition of the eyeball. It is important to conserve as much of the lids and conjunctiva as possible, as the end results of such extensive palpebral, orbital, and bulbar injuries as occurred in the War, are often most disappointing. Regarding the shattered fragments of bone, it does not require much of an attachment for them to be usefully retained. Therefore, only the very loose and apparently totally detached pieces should be removed. In the treatment of these crude traumatisms, I found dichloramine T in eucalyptol of the greatest value. It was used very freely, gauze soaked in it being loosely packed into all cavities and recesses, and all parts of the wound and its surroundings sprayed with it. Return of the tissue toward the normal was surprisingly rapid and in no cases were bad effects noted. Great benefit, I believe, resulted from its free use.

The intraocular foreign bodies demand removal, when such is practical, as soon after the injury as possible, and with as little additional damage to the eyeball as necessary. Removal by forceps from the vitreous can scarcely be considered as practical, because, when successful, it is more a question of luck than skill. If large enough to get, we might as well take the eyeball. The metalic substances encountered in these injuries were iron, steel, copper, lead, tin, brass, nickel, aluminum, mixed metals, and I presume others. Then, of course, eyes were injured by stone, gravel, glass, china, wood, or anything in the neighborhood. While but two of these substances are magnetic, I would say that fully 50% or more of my cases of intraocular foreign bodies were in this class. As to this point, there is a wide difference of opinion, based on the personal experience of different workers, and the true percentage value of the magnet can only be reached later, by a careful study of innumerable records. In this connection, mention is made of a re-

markable statement from L. Vernon Cargill (1915) that he found the electromagnet of no use in either the South African or the present war. He had but one case of magnetic foreign body.[2]

As is well known, the eyeball was more tolerant to metals which became more or less sterile in transit, than to foreign bodies secondarily projected from the ground or surroundings. Injuries from stone and gravel, sand, etc., were as usual particularly disastrous.

The X-Ray with a certain amount of localization was essential. I say certain amount, because, if the F. B. could be definitely located within the eyeball, its mathematically exact position within the eyeball, to my mind, made little difference in many cases. This is particularly true of foreign bodies in the vitreous, and according to Whitehead, 75% of all intraocular foreign bodies are in the vitreous. Such a diagnosis was in most cases sufficient, but in some cases, a more exact localization was very desirable. The British hospitals were wonderfully equipped in the eye service, thanks to Col. Lister, and excellent localizations by the Makensie-Davidson method could always be obtained without too much trouble. Furthermore, a giant magnet, mounted in a motor ambulance, was always anxious to travel anywhere in the area if needed. No. 16 General Hospital, B. E. F., staffed by Pennsylvania Base Hospital 10, was weak on X-Ray localization, but it had a very satisfactory hand magnet that could recognize iron or steel if given a chance. The practical way of determining whether or not the F. B. was magnetic, was cautiously to try the hand magnet near or against the eyeball. This can be safely done if the eyeball is strongly rotated and the magnet first approached near the equator, and this zone tried out in all portions. If magnetic, the patient will unerringly feel a slight pull or at least a sensation. This is true of even very small foreign bodies, and for obvious reasons is a much safer procedure with a small than with a giant magnet. If the eyeball contained a visible open wound of entrance, immediate application of the magnet tip in the wound, irrespective of its position, was all that was necessary.

In my experience intraocular foreign bodies from war injuries are usually larger than those ordinarily found in civil practice due to industrial accidents. Hemorrhage and destruction are frequently overwhelming, and removal of the foreign body with retention of a blind eyeball, is often all that can be expected.

Regarding the size of war foreign bodies, the statistics of Morax and Moreau[3] are interesting. Sizes were arbitrarily divided into three classes: small, weighing less than .25-.30 gram; medium, .30-5 gram; and large, weighing more than 5 gram. Of a total of 486 injuries, 54% were by small fragments, that is, fragments weighing less than .30 gram.

The more important cases are those of small F. B. with a minute or closed wound of entrance, and with comparatively little hemorrhage or destruction. The foreign body has been localized and is known to be magnetic. It is in the vitreous, has passed through the sclera, and the anterior segment of the eyeball is uninjured. Will you remove it by the anterior route or by the posterior route? Will you use a giant magnet by the Haab method, or a good hand magnet; or a giant magnet used as a hand magnet? It is only fair to say that my experience has been almost entirely with the small magnets, notably, the Parker and the Sweet, but I feel that either of these magnets, if properly used, can be relied upon to get almost any free magnetic foreign body within the eyeball. Of course, in war work, the foreign bodies were practically all free from surrounding exudate. Nor is the actual strength or pull of a magnet alone the index of its efficiency. As shown by Lancaster[4], the tip is an important factor. He found that a short conical tip gave the best results. Sweet found, in testing the relative strength of the Haab, the Hirschberg, and his own magnet, that at 2 mm. distance, his own was su-

perior, at 5 mm., the Haab was stronger, but not markedly so; while at 10 mm. or more, the large magnets were decidedly superior. There are other mysterious qualities of magnets which if considered should induce the surgeon in a given case to think more of the foreign body, its size, shape, and location, and the damage already done to the eyeball, rather than of the magnet alone. In other words, it is a mistake to feel that either the large or the small magnet is always the best in every case. The facility with which the small magnet can be handled, and the greater extent of the eyeball over which its tip can be applied, are distinct advantages, and might in certain cases outweigh the advantage of greater power. It is perfectly true that those who habitually use the small magnet often wish for more power. Then is the time to call on the giant, but I would still stick to the posterior route for all bodies in the vitreous entering through the sclera. If the anterior segment of the eyeball is intact and uninjured, I certainly would not injure it by dragging a foreign body from the vitreous into it, and then further injure it by taking the foreign body from it. We all know how the F. B. is supposed to come into the anterior chamber, but we also know that sometimes it is clumsy and spoils a perfectly good lens or iris in its transit.

There would seem to be little danger in a sclerotomy, and while increased or serious hemorrhage might result, it is certainly not to be greatly feared. A posterior sclerotomy, when indicated, can be done with reasonable safety.

Finally, what is to be done with eyes containing nonmagnetic bodies in inaccessible positions, or foreign bodies we have failed to remove? The universal teaching a few years ago made the removal of such eyes obligatory. Not to do it was then malpractice. To do it now, per se, is practice equally bad. It all hinges on the question of sympathetic ophthalmia, and I know of no disease that has so failed to make good during the war, with such unlimited opportunity, as has sympathetic opthalmia due to the retention of a foreign body within the eyeball.

Parson's summary of the situation is very illuminating, and helps a great deal in deciding the proper disposal of these cases. The best theory for the disease, he thinks, is the transmission of an unidentified, specific organism by the blood steam, the socalled metastatic theory. The site and nature of the wound are potent factors, and not the mere retention of the foreign body. A sterile foreign body does not itself cause sympathetic opthalmia, but secondary infection may do so. Any wound involving incarceration of the ciliary body or capsule is dangerous. He does not think that the mere retention of a sterile foreign body, whatever its nature, is of any importance at all so far as sympathetic opthalmia is concerned.

Collins has also learned from experience that an aseptic foreign body implanted in the eye and chemically inert, causes no disturbance apart from the wound of entry. When sympathetic ophthalmia arises, it results from the nature or infection of the wound.

These statements from such authorities allay much of the former anxiety over cases in which we have failed to recover foreign bodies from the eye, and we must, as they indicate, pay more attention to the nature and condition of the wound of entrance.

In the discussion before the R. O. S. of G. B. where these statements were made, the question was asked, by what means one could know when sympathetic ophthalmia was likely to occur. Mr. Arnold Lawson gave in reply four very important factors always to be kept in mind.

1. Prolonged and intractable cyclitis or general uveitis, which goes on for week after week in spite of treatment.
2. The gradual supervention of an increasing lowering of the intraocular tension, which is always accompanied by progressive failure of sight.
3. Continual photophobia and sympathetic neurosis affecting the other eye.
4. The condition of the blood count.

Hypotony he regards as perhaps the most important danger sign, and lays great stress on the importance of a considerable increase in the mononuclear cells in the blood (S. H. Browning).

T. R. Gifford believes mononucleosis to be a reaction of the body to a chronic inflammatory process in the eye of any kind, and concludes that its presence does not specifically indicate the presence or the imminence of Sympathetic Ophthalmia.

The danger of the three other conditions, I think is well established, and in the presence of any one of them the indication for enucleation is clear. Nor should we forget that enucleation is only an absolute preventive if done before the sympathetic process, whatever it might be, is created. While there is a great tendency to refrain from destructive surgery, we might profit by the experience of the general surgeon in his treatment of malignant disease, and if an eye is blind or practically so, materially reduce its supposed valuation.

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OCULAR COMPLICATIONS OF PERIPHERAL EPILEPSY

J. M. Penichet, M. D.

HAVANA, CUBA.

This paper gives the relative frequency of ocular symptoms with epilepsy, and reports cases in which seizures were attended with intraocular hemorrhage and loss of lid movements.

Up to the present, not even among the number of epileptics which I have under my care at the Government Hospital for the Insane, have I been able to find two cases as curious as the ones that I am about to describe, chosen from my private practice.

But before doing so, let us look over the symptoms of ocular complications in epilepsy. For the sake of clearness I have made the following table.

Symptoms Before the Seizure.
I. Purely Subjective.

a. Visual sensations of light.
b. Visual sensations of color.
c. Visual sensations of flames or flashes.

Symptoms During the Seizure.
II. Purely Objective.

a. Forced deviations of the eyes.
b. Pupillary changes. Contractions or Dilatations.
c. Pallor or hyperemia of the disc.
d. Vessels—contracted or dilated.

Symptoms After the Seizure.
III. Subjective and Objective.

a. Strabismus, nystagmus, diplopia.
b. Lowered visual acuity.
c. Lag in perception.
d. Transient concentric contractions of visual fields.
e. Subconjunctival ecchymosis.

These symptoms are not all present in every given attack of epilepsy. As a rule only a few can be detected. Ball[1] claims that the subjective, the auras; are the more frequent. Rodiet, Pansier and Cans[2] find the permanent disturbances to be: pallor of the optic disc and retina, probably anemic, passive venous congestion of the fundus with pale disc; often intense blackish pigmentation of the retina and choroid; irregular contraction of the visual fields, in cases of long attack; optic neuritis or advanced gray atrophy. At the close of an attack there is likely to be corneal anesthesia and dilated pupils. Rodiet and Bricka[3] report their observations on 2 cases of Jacksonian epilepsy, one showing optic atrophy due to meningitis and the other[4], choked disc due to gumma.

The following table shows the results of my observations on 41 cases of inmates suffering from epilepsy and the relative ocular complications found.

Years	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	Total
Number of Cases	5	7	6	11	12	41
Subjective symptoms	4	5	4	8	7	28
Deviations of eyes	2	3	3	4	6	18
Pupillary changes	3	5	4	7	7	26
Fundus changes	1	1	2	3	2	9
Muscular changes	1	1	2	1	1	6
Visual changes	2	3	3	4	5	17
Field of vision	1	1	2	3	2	9
Ecchymosis of conjunctiva	0	1	0	1	1	3

As will be seen more than one-half of the cases complained of visual sensations commonly of light. Next in order, the pupil, reacted by contraction or dilatation in more than one-half of the cases, also. Deviations of eyes were not uncommon, 18 out of 41. Vision was disturbed in 17 cases. Nearly all of these cases were unable to read better than 20/200 for a period lasting from one to seven days after the seizure. Normal vision was gradually recovered in every case. Errors of refraction were present in 13 cases.

7 Simple hypermetropic astigmatism.
3 Simple myopia.
3 Mixed astigmatism.

Out of the remaining 28, two cases were presbyopic; seven were slightly hypermetropic in one eye; one had a complete leukoma of traumatic origin, and the rest were normal.

Generally the fundus changes were, hyperemia of the disc during the first two or three days following the attacks, and pallor, remaining until recovery. The vessels behaved unsteadily. In only one case was I able to examine the fundus during the fit. I had, however, great difficulty in doing so, and the results could not be taken into consideration.

Visual contractions of the field took place in 9 cases. As a rule the contractions were concentric, but irregular in outline and of a transitory character.

Traumatic sequels were rare. Only 3 cases of ecchymosis were recorded. There may be a reason for this. These patients are always under surveillance; and as soon as they express the probability of the coming of a seizure, they are taken to safety and strictly watched. This is not the case with epileptics out of hospital or colony control. Their fits may overtake them at any place, and they usually fall to the ground, injuring themselves, until they are carried to the nearest emergency clinic.

Much has been said and a great deal of time has been devoted to the study of ocular influence upon epilepsy.

Hubbell[5] made a study of the relation of socalled ophthalmic migraine to epilepsy. After all his experiments he was not able to prove a real pathologic kinship.

Hodskins and Moore[6] report the results of keeping 88 epileptics completely under the influence of atropin for one month, and comparing the average of seizures during that month with those of the four months preceding and the month following, when not under a cycloplegic. The average for the maximum month was 19.6, for the minimum month 6.1, for an average month 13.2, and for the month under atropin 12.6 per patient. They "firmly believe that the role played by ocular defects in the causation of epilepsy is a very modest one.[7]

Kinderman[8] reports a case of epilepsy caused by the retention of a piece of the optic nerve and choroid in an orbital cavity from which the eye had been removed. After these structures were excised the patient recovered. The irritation of a retained piece of retina, could, according to Kinderman, originate the epileptic attacks, thus resembling peripheral epilepsy.

Neeper, Gould, Bennet, Ranney and Stevens have all made experiments on patients suffering from epilepsy and having refractive errors. They could not prove that ocular defects could

initiate or by their presence aggravate epileptic seizures. Even the correction of the refractive errors did not play an important role in the results of the combined treatment. Such has been my personal experience.

Case 1. R. H., 55 years of age, White, single, a lawyer and notary public. Two years ago he was referred to me by his family physician after an attack of epilepsy. Since then I have seen him five times.

The family and early history of this case are very obscure.

He has been examined by different specialists and the reports of their examinations prove that the brain and nervous system are the only centers really affected.

All laboratory findings are negative. The urine shows a tendency to low specific gravity.

A number of radiographs were taken with negative results.

Peculiarities of This Case.—Apart from a few subjective sensations of light, before the attacks, and a concentric irregular contraction of the visual fields, after the attacks, this case is interesting because there has always been present, after every fit, a profuse hemorrhage into the anterior chamber of both eyes, accompanied by a total subconjunctival ecchymosis.

This condition usually lasts from twenty to thirty days; when it completely disappears, leaving no trace of the profuse flow of blood. The concentric contraction of the field can be detected for a few days after. This also completely disappears. The eyes recover, and become normal in every respect between the attacks.

Treatment.—Atropin and dionin, local applications of heat, leeches to the temples, and purgatives. Protection from light, a special diet, and rest were advised.

Case 2. Mrs. X. X. 59 years of age, white, married.

Family history. Father and mother died of old age.

Personal history. Measles and intestinal disturbances of childhood.

Present condition. The patient suffers from gastro-intestinal irritation, liver and kidney troubles (hepatitis and a slight albuminuria). She is alcoholic and a heavy smoker. She suffers from periodic attacks of peripheral epilepsy.

Laboratory findings as to syphilis, tuberculosis, lepra, etc., are negative.

Radiographs only show an area of induration of the skull over the right temporal region.

I have seen her three times after the attacks of epilepsy and there has always been present a paresis of the orbicularis, with ptosis of the lower lid and complete anesthesia of the skin over the inferior palpebral region and zygoma. This condition lasts for a period of twenty to thirty days and gradually disappears, leaving no trace of the disturbance.

Treatment included massage, electrical stimulation and general care of the nervous manifestation.

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AN INFECTIOUS GRANULOMA OF THE LACRIMAL GLAND.

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BOSTON

This is the report of a case, suspected of malignancy; but in which the excised tumor proved to be a granuloma.

The patient was referred to the writer April 10, 1916, by Dr. F. L. McIntosh. Professional woman, aet. 53, of full habit. Left upper lid slightly edematous, palpebral fissure narrow, and upward excursion of lid somewhat limited but motion of the globe good in all directions. Palpation revealed hard mass in outer roof of orbit, region of lacrimal gland (not adherent to orbit.) Patient discovered it a few weeks previous with finger, no pain, but tender to touch.

Refraction Right — 2.50 ⌒ — .50 C. 105° V = .8.

Refraction Left — 2.50 ⌒ — 1.50 C. 25° V = .8. Was wearing o. u. —2.25.

No fundus lesion. Skiagraph showed well marked shadow extending into orbit about 1 cm. Urinalysis negative. Blood pressure maximum 160, minimum 100. No other glandular involvement detected. Wasserman reaction negative. Von Pirquet mildly positive.

Family and personal history: Typhoid aged 40. Diptheria at 45 with myocarditis. Menopause at 50. Father died at 48 of "stomach trouble"; was a professor. Mother died at 72 of successive shocks. No tuberculosis in immediate family. Paternal uncle died of miliary tuberculosis following exposure in Southern prison during the Civil War. Paternal aunt died of miliary tuberculosis aged 26. Patient is the oldest of eight children, four of whom died in infancy. Mother was ninteen when married and had eight children in 10 years. At school, patient was bright but not brilliant, powerful will and abnormally studious and persevering. When 18 years old father died, assumed responsibility of family, whom she supported by becoming bookkeeper and confidential cashier in large business house. At same time earned college degree in absentia, and managed two other business affairs, making great financial success for 25 years. Then came financial loss, with tremendous nervous strain in settlement of affairs. Studied abroad and took degrees in two Eastern colleges.. Professor in a Woman's College. Patient in good health until present illness. Nervous breakdown following period of depression after mother's death March 1916, one month before first seen by writer. Is very apprehensive and melancholic.

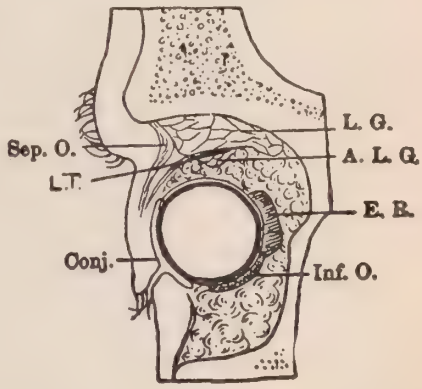


Fig. 1. L. G., lacrimal gland; A. L. G., accessory gland. The expansion of the levator is seen between these. E. R., external rectus; Inf. O., inferior oblique; Conj., conjunctiva; Sep. O., septum orbitale, L. T., levator tendon.

Diagnosis, probably sarcoma. Immediate operation advised.

Operation: April 18, 1916, assisted by Dr. J. E. Briggs. A very satisfactory rectal anaesthesia was administered by Dr. Mary A. Leavitt. The absence of the ether cone is a great advantage in all operations about the eye. Eyebrow was shaved, incision about 2.5 cm. long just under roof of orbit, beginning 5 mm. inward from center of cornea and extending to outer margin of orbit. Tumor was not adherent to periosteum and seemed to be well encapsulated, so that it was

easily dissected out. Conjunctiva, and accessory gland were exposed but as latter appeared normal it was allowed to remain. Stump was ligated before excision. The fascia of lower edge of wound was sutured to periosteum, and skin brought together with interrupted sutures. Silk worm gut drain was removed the next day. Healing uneventful, skin sutures removed on the third day. At this time there was complete ptosis, lid edematous. As levator tendon passes between the two portions of gland a lateral portion of it must have been excised with the uniform thruout in both color and consistence.

Microscopic Examination.—The major part of the specimen consists of a fibrous stroma varying in density in different places. This forms the supporting frame work for rounded and oval collections of irregular branched tubular glands. Some of these collections are small, others are very prominent. The glands vary somewhat in size and shape, for the most part corresponding to the tubular type. They are lined by a single layer of rather high cuboidal cells and present relatively small lumina. In almost all places the differen-



Fig. 2. Result of Excision of Granuloma of Lacrimal Gland (Wells' Case).

tumor mass, altho it was not recognized.

On the eleventh day lid could be lifted 3 or 4 mm. towards the inner canthus, and in a month the ptosis was not noticeable. After three years there is no recurrence and there is almost no deformity. The photograph (Fig. 2) really exaggerates the depression. Patient has noticed no lack of tears.

Diagnosis of Excised Tumor.—Dr. W. H., Watters, Mass. Homeopathic Hospital reported: "The tissue received consists of an oval rather soft lobulated mass 1.5 cm. in greatest diameter by about 1 cm. in thickness. On section the mass is found to consist of a grayish white tissue somewhat irregular in arrangement and without any definite limiting membrane. The cut surfaces are practically tiation between the epithelium and surrounding tissue is sharply defined. In one small part of the mass, however, when examined by frozen section, a condition very similar to a typical cell proliferation outside the gland is noted. This is not further corroborated in other parts of the tissue.

The interglandular tissue consists of some fibrous elements, numerous blood vessels and large numbers of small round cells similar in size and shape to lymphocytes. These vary in number from place to place in the sections, sometimes being so numerous as to form distinct collections, partly obliterating the gland structure. In one part of the mass received there is practically a complete absence of glands, the tissue here consisting of the more firm fibrous elements arranged in irregular bands. Some glands are here dem-

onstrable however. In this part scattered without order or definite regularity are found collections of larger flattened and oval cells corresponding to the socalled "epithelioid" cells. These are collected in oval and rounded masses and present in the interstices distinct degenerative change. In some places in these masses multinuclear giant cells are found. On account of the presence of these structures a diagnosis of tuberculosis seems fully justified. Moreover, her Wasserman reaction was negative both in this laboratory and when it was examined as an entirely unknown specimen in another laboratory. The skin test for tuberculosis was mildly positive.

Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Mass. Eye and Ear Infirmary, examined the slides, and is of the opinion that the condition is certainly either tuberculosis or syphilis of the lacrimal gland. Judging by the extensive necrosis, the diffuse formation of granulation tissue, and the marked endarteritis present, however, he believes it in all probality is a gumma.

Dr. F. B. Mallory, Boston City Hospital says: "I have gone over the sections of the lacrimal gland once more, and also restained one of the slides for tubercle bacilli. I could find none. The lesions are more vascular than I should expect in a tuberculous lesion and mitotic figures are fairly frequent. Histologically the lesion certainly suggests syphilis but I cannot be positive. I should advise the therapeutic test, that is, potassium iodid and perhaps mercury. If any lesion still persists a guinea pig should be inoculated in order to make a further test for tuberculosis."



Small round cells. Gland tubules.

Fig. 3. Section from center of gland showing diffuse inflammatory infiltration.

As after three years there has been no clinical manifestation of syphilis, tuberculosis or malignant disease, the only diagnosis tenable is Infectious Granuloma.

Lacrimation.—As previously stated this patient noticed no lack of tears, but

the palpebral portion of the gland was left intact. Wurdemann says:

"Removal of orbital gland but partially diminishes the lacrimal secretion, tho it is lower than the physiologic normal. Even true weeping occurs from grief or irritant stimulation. Removal of both orbital and palpebral portions, or the palpebral gland alone, gives a dry eye for ten days or so; but soon compensation occurs, enough watery fluids being secreted to fully lubricate the conjunctiva."

The writer removed the papebral portion of the gland alone in three cases, where epiphora persisted after extirpation of the sac, Meller technic, and altho epiphora ceased no dryness was noted.

The following references to tuberculosis and syphilis of the lacrimal gland have been found, tho it is not claimed to be a complete bibliography, Thos. R. Pooley, and Bennett S. Beach[2] report one case which they diagnosed preoperative as sarcoma. The pathologist reported "numerous small miliary tubercles with a few scattered giant cells. The tissue was in small pieces."

W. D. Hall[3] reviews at some length Fortunati's report,[4] of one case of tuberculosis of the lacrimal gland, no T. B. He quotes Fortunati as stating that he was able to collect 13 reports of cases similar to his own, but we have not been able to find the article to see if he gave references to these 13 other cases.

Lapersonne[5] reported one case which was diagnosed macroscopically adenosarcoma. Microscopically Prof. Herman found probably tuberculosis.

Würdemann[1] reports a case of bilateral tuberculosis of lacrimal gland. However, this patient had had syphilis four years previously with no treatment for a year. Dr. Arnold Knapp (personal communication) very distinctively remembers a case of tumor of the lacrimal gland which his father removed, which was regarded to be a sarcoma, but proved on examination to be syphilitic. He has furnished additional references, the last three, to syphilitic involvement of the lacrimal gland.

Warthen[6] found in literature 132 tumors of the lacrimal gland excluding abcess and tuberculosis.

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LOCATION OF TREPHINE OPENING IN GLAUCOMA SUBSEQUENT TO CATARACT OPERATION

RALPH I. LLOYD, M. D., F. A. C. S.

BROOKLYN, NEW YORK

This is the report of a case of preliminary iridectomy, Smith-Fisher intracapsular extraction, glaucoma, posterior sclerotomy, corneo-scleral trephine (above), trephine (below), and iridotomy, with some discussion of questions arising in connection with it.

A. K., aged 70, came to the office because of poor vision in the right eye. He had a well advanced cataract on this side which permitted the recognition of light and dark. The vision of the left eye was 10/200 but was improved to 15/30 with a couple of letters in the line next lower, if +2.50 s. ⊃ +1. cyl. axis 30° was used. With appropriate presbyopic correction, he was able to read No. 2 with some difficulty. As the left eye was not badly affected, a correcting glass was prescribed with instructions to report from time to time, that he might be kept under observation.

Two and a half years later, the left eye had lost vision and changes in the lens were clearly perceptible. He now could read two letters of 15/50 with correction. Six weeks later a preliminary iridectomy was performed on the right eye with perfect result as far as the eye was concerned. There was no inflammation or trouble with the eye, but the patient was hurried home on the third day to avert an impending mental collapse which was not understood at the time but which later became plain. Three months later, the lens was successfully extracted in the capsule according to the Smith-Fisher technic. The eye was dressed for the first time on the fifth day when it was seen that the anterior chamber had not formed but two days later this was reestablished. There was moderate pain and a little redness of the eye from the twelfth to the sixteenth day, at which time the drop patch was used for two days only; because a small pouting of the wound appeared above.

A pressure bandage was applied and not removed for three days. This was removed for inspection of the eye on the twenty-first day, and elevated tension recognized in spite of the bulging wound. Miotics were used, local moist heat and a pressure bandage, and on the thirtieth day, the patient was allowed to go home for a holiday because the wound had flattened nicely; but the tension was still plus to examining fingers.

There were no illusions that the patient was well, and when he returned at the end of forty-eight hours, the bulging was more pronounced than ever, in spite of continual application of the pressure bandage while away. At one time there were three small bulging spots along the incision, the center one having a bead of vitreous protruding at the top. The tension was taken and found to be 45 mm. by the Schiötz tonometer. The cornea was pushed forward along axis 90°, and apparently retracted laterally, thus giving a corneal surface quite different from that for which any tonometer was planned. We think the eye was harder than 45 mm. in spite of the bulging wound with the small bead of vitreous like a jewel in a setting. Theoretically it is difficult to conceive of much elevation of tension with a bulging wound and a presenting bead; but in these cases the vitreous is pushed or tipped forward at the top along the line of least resistance and probably blocks the anterior chamber above; and it may even block the wound as far as the aqueous is concerned, the bulging being possible thru the iridectomy wound in the iris. This seemed to be the state of affairs in this case. Miotics were used in this case at different times but seemed to have no effect, as would be expected.

At the end of the fifth week of ups and downs, after a sudden severe pain; the wound was found once more to have flattened down and everything looked well except some distension of the veins leading from the ciliary region and the tension to the fingers and tonometer still

up. A posterior sclerotomy was done without any effect upon the tension. This is difficult to explain as a temporary effect was expected with some confidence. One week later, the wound was again bulging with the bead of vitreous tipping the single protrusion located in the middle of the incision above.

A corneo-scleral trephining was done without disturbing the vitreous bead. The site selected was above, over the opening of the original iridectomy. Some difficulty was experienced because of effects of two operations done previously upon the conjunctiva and periphery of cornea. It was not easy to get the corneal layers to separate so as to locate the trephine opening as far forward as was desired but we proved our entrance into the anterior chamber by entering a spatula. The escape of aqueous was not free. There was no reaction of any kind; but five days later, the tension was 45 mm. again according to the Schiötz instrument. There was no immediate return of the bulging but the vitreous was still tipped forward above, and the pupil was gradually climbing upward. The miotics had originally acted in a peculiar manner; the lower half of the iris would contract to the limit but the upper part did not respond, resulting in a pupil located altogether above the center.

On the fifty-sixth day, another corneo-scleral trephining was done below and success was immediate. The iris was drawn taut and the pupil above the level of the edge of the lid in ordinary use. It was not easy to do an iridotomy and an iridectomy was impossible. The aqueous escaped freely, the tension fell and never came above normal limits again. There was no reaction and the wound flattened down promptly. By raising the upper lid high enough to expose the displaced pupil, the patient could see objects.

Time was allowed for the eye to adjust itself, and soon the displaced vitreous had gone back into place. Thru a keratome incision two parallel incisions were made in the iris, resulting in a very good pupil located where nature arranged for it to be. The tongue of tissue between the incisions retracts and is out of the way. With a $+10. \frown +1$ cy. axis 180°, he can read 15/30; and with the usual allowance for near can read No. 1, with difficulty. His tension is now 23.5 mm. for the right and 22 to 23.5 for the left eye, taken on the Schiötz instrument.

Some time after the glaucoma was recognized, it was found that a moderate allowance of whiskey transformed our patient from a nervous and complaining creature into a happy man. We also learned that it was his habit to cry himself to sleep, it being not unusual for him to cry for an hour or two at a time. He also says that he struck his eye against an object about the fifth or sixth day. Two most important factors in the development of glaucoma are evident.

Glaucoma after cataract does not offer much hope as a rule and iridectomy is recommended. As a preliminary iridectomy had been performed, it did not seem likely to offer much, in this case; so the trephine was given the preference. The location of the opening above was certainly not wise, and blocking of it and the anterior chamber angle by vitreous was evident. The happy result is offered because we were not able to find much help in the literature when we were considering the situation. The point of choice of location has not come to our attention before, altho someone has likely found out that it certainly is wise to take the bulging vitreous into consideration, when the decision is to be made as to the place where one shall trephine.

The vitreous even if it presents in small quantity, as it did in this case, evidently does not relieve pressure to any extent and it is probable that in the future, cases which have been classed as delayed union and cystoid wound may find their way into the glaucoma group. We are naturally rather conservative about taking tension with either fingers or an instrument very soon after a cataract operation, but it seems that glaucoma either sets in or recurs more often than we think. There are many cases in which glaucoma simplex seems to have existed without signs; certainly with the disc obscured, we are at a disadvantage; and it is not possible to make a correct diagnosis if the patient comes for operation late after the lens is generally blurred. These are the cases in

which it is easy to upset the equilibrium of secretion and excretion by an operation, even an iridectomy.

In spite of the fact, that the vitreous may block up the excretory angle to the aqueous, the bulging of the wound must have been a safety valve to a certain extent in this case. The ophthalmoscope, now shows no cupping of the disc, a moderate displacement inward of the retinal vessels and a slight general haze.

Most of the effects of alcohol or of its withdrawal, come to be well known to anyone who has spent hours caring for alcoholics in general hospitals located in large cities. In fact, most of us are in the habit of sizing up the patient who is to be operated for evidences of alcoholic habit, in order to avoid the unpleasant results which occur after sudden cessation of its use. The peculiar "melancholy" which affected this patient is the first of its kind to come to my attention.

It would seem that the case reported suggests the efficacy of the Elliot operation in glaucoma after cataract; that the trephining should be made, if there has been an iridectomy, at some place where the iris can hold back the vitreous which is thrust forward; that the pressure may go quite high, even if the vitreous is protruding somewhat and the wound pouting in one or more places. Finally, it would seem from this and other recent experiences that an elevated tension is not infrequently the real cause of delayed union.

STRABISMUS.

FRANCIS VALK, M. D.; Sc. D.

NEW YORK CITY

This paper urges that operation may properly be considered in connection with every case of strabismus, and that apparent cure by other means may only be conversion of heterotropia into heterophoria.

In the issue of the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY, September, 1918, at page 667, Dr. Clarence Loeb of Chicago has honored me by quoting several portions of my paper on Strabismus, read at the meeting of the Academy of Ophthalmology in Boston, 1914. He states that "the author's style is somewhat involved and difficult to follow," and this must be true for he seems to have omitted or failed to notice that my principal thesis was to advance the muscular theory of strabismus *per se* and that the advisability of "operating in all cases" was brought forward only as a *suggestion*. Whereas I still hold that an operation may be indicated; my paper, while admitting that many cases of strabismus are corrected, as far as the cosmetic results require, without any operation, nevertheless the question arises as to whether or not these cases are cured.

One boy with a hyperopia of 3 D. and certain symptoms of asthenopia will be given glasses that correct the refractive condition, and the case is cured as far as our present knowledge permits. But in the case of another boy who has the same refractive condition and also a convergent squint, tho we put on the glasses and the squint seems to be corrected, can it be stated with certainty that the case is cured? Do we not realize that the primal cause of the squint remains? Is not the deficient outward rotation still the same? Should anything more be done when we have simply changed a case of esotropia to one of esophoria?

Considering the same argument, are not many cases of esophoria now corrected and cured by a "suitable operation," notably that of shortening the weak muscle; an operation that today has met with such decided success and approval that we have fully twelve different methods of producing the same result? If we are justified in an operation for esophoria, it may be indicated in all cases of squint, not only to correct a deformity but to cure it.

I do not hesitate to employ the methods

of atropin, glasses, etc., advocated so strongly by Dr. Loeb; and if the squint is corrected, I must be satisfied and continue to change the glasses every few years. But if I am asked my opinion from a purely scientific point I would still advise an operation.

To return to the argument of Dr. Loeb's paper, it seems to me that he must have based his conclusions on the old method of tenotomy of the interni in convergent squint. On that proposition I am fully in accord with him, that no operation should be advised until all other possible means have been tried; but ophthalmology has not been standing still during the past two or three decades; so it seems to me that a tenotomy for the correction of the squint would, at present, be a very archaic suggestion, and perhaps it would be best to incur the "possibility of losing the patient." On the other hand, if we tell the parents that the operation proposed will make the child's eyes much stronger and better able to stand the strain of future studies, though he will need the glasses just the same, then that advice is fully justifiable, and I find very few who will seriously object to that procedure. Furthermore, Dr. Loeb tells us that my paper was the motive for an investigation of those of his past cases in which glasses were used. He found twenty-seven with a little more than one-third correct, that is to say, good fixation and the correction of the squint; but only twenty-seven responded, and is it not fair to conclude that those who did not answer his questions were all failures?

The use of atropin and glasses with the benefits they produce in cases of strabismus has been advanced repeatedly since the publication of Donders' antithesis. I do not think, however, we should limit our work to that thesis of fifty years ago, but we should endeavor to find some method that will produce results better and more permanent than those that were given to us by the eminent teachers of ophthalmology of that age.

Dr. Loeb's presentation of his conception of the advice for the correction of squint is certainly very academic and possibly practical, but is it scientific? In other words, if our investigation and experience lead us to certain conclusions, shall we present and advise them to our patients or to their parents, fully stating our reasons for so doing; or shall we temporize with the case, when in our opinion an operation should be performed for the future benefit of the patients, and when, moreover, we can state that to our knowledge an operation rarely, if ever, results in divergence.

We do have the two procedures to select from, namely, glasses or operation, but I do not consider that by employing one or the other indiscriminately we can "accomplish the same end equally well." The simpler one is not always to be preferred, and I do believe that all operations for simple squint should be invariably successful.

I have no doubt that Dr. Loeb has many cases of convergent strabismus that were corrected by glasses, but he must have operated on many others. Then why did he operate? Was it simply because all other methods failed? At the present time, I am trying to follow out this procedure in all my cases of convergent squint. Until a child is five years old, I tell the parents to let his eyes alone. They will not get any worse, nor will the amblyopia increase. When the child reaches that age, I carefully examine the refraction by all the objective methods and follow with an examination of the motility or rotation of the eyes with the tropometer. If this shows a decided deficiency of outward rotation in both eyes of less than 40, I do not think glasses will be of any service, though to counteract the "possibility of losing the patient," I may try atropin and glasses. This failing in a reasonable time, a month or two, we must and should advise an operation. On the other hand, if we find a fairly good outward rotation in the non-squinting eye, then I think glasses will produce a very grateful result in the correction of the squint. But, in adopting this method, as I said before, I have simply changed a case of esotropia into one of esophoria, in which many of our writers recommend an operation.

To illustrate my work, I will record a few cases.

No. 4501. J. S., age 9—C. C. S.—Periodic L. E. turns in, good fixation at

times. R. E—20/15. L. E.—20/100. Hy +5, with Ah. Rotation R. 45° in 45° out. L. E. 55 in 30 out. Advice: operation and shortening L. ext. Result: lost the patient.

No. 4956. Miss A. K., age 5—C. C. S. 2nd class. V—20/20 each eye. Hm. +2 D.—Rotation R. 50° in 30° out. L. E. 60° in 25° out. Atropin and glasses do not correct. Advice: operation shortening both externi at once. Result: lost the patient.

No. 4636. Miss C. S., age 6—C. C. S. onset at second year. V 20/20 each eye, wearing glasses, partially correcting squint but with constant headache when reading. In this case I at once advised an operation on both eyes, shortening the externi and declined to try any further use of glasses, as rotation shows 60° in, 40° out. Each eye. Result: lost the patient.

No. 7120. J. B., age 7—C.C.S. 2d class. V. = 20/15 in each eye. Hm.+2.50. Rotation, R. E. 60° in. 40° out. L. E. 60° in. 35° out. Operation shortening both externi. Result: perfectly good fixation and binocular vision.

Can we have any better illustration than this of the need of an operation?

No. 7499. Mrs. D. J. W., glasses +1. D. by others. No comfort. History of C. C. S. for some years when a child. (This illustrates the old saying that squint may correct itself; but does it?) Has constant strain when using the eyes and worse when looking at motion pictures. V=20/15— each. Refraction Hy with Ah. 180° Rotation R. 45° in and out. L. E. 55° in, 40° out. This is almost a case of dextrophoria, as the R. E. tends outward. She now has no squint but I think an operation shortening on the left eye will help her and should have been done when a child.

No. 5026. J. S., age 23, C. C. S. 2nd class. Wearing glasses fails to correct. V. = 20/20 each. Refraction H. and Ah. rotation R. 60° in 40° out. L. E. —50° 30° out. Advice: operation. Result: lost the patient.

These are cases in which I felt it essential that they should have an operation, and declined to consider any other procedure, as my results in many other cases have given me much satisfaction.

No. 7426. Miss L. B. Operations on the ocular muscles by three oculists. Probably tenotomy and advancement L. E. Result: cosmetically fairly good the R. E. turning in with pain in both eyes and cannot focus. V=20/15 each eye. Refraction H. and Ah. Rotation R. E. 50°—40° out, L. E. 40° in, 50° out. From this examination one may fairly conclude that this was originally a case of C. C. S. 2nd class. If this is correct, a free shortening of both externi would have produced a much better result and not a bad case of sinistrophoria.

Now I have no objection to Dr. Loeb's assertion that he "absolutely disagrees with Dr. Valk that an operation should be done in every case," that is the doctor's personal opinion. But I do not think Dr. Loeb will find any words in my paper that present that proposition as my unqualified view. I advanced the theory simply as a suggestion, trusting it might produce a full discussion without a flat denial, and the present article is written with the same purpose in mind.

May I conclude by thanking Dr. Loeb for his reference to Hereditary Squint? This is very interesting to me, tho I regret that he did not explain in his paper just what conditions were inherited in the cases of the children he cites as illustration. That is to say, did they inherit strabismus per se or the hyperopia or the unbalance of the ocular muscles? If the last was the case, then an operation, though not absolutely necessary, may be indicated.

Finally, consider well the rotation of the eye in all cases of squint, as advised by Dr. Howe of Buffalo, and if you have a decided want of outward rotation in convergent strabismus, a shortening operation is indicated on one or both externi, with full confidence of a successful result.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

A NEW METHOD OF SUTURING IN THE ADVANCEMENT OPERATION FOR STRABISMUS.

J. G. Huizinga, M.D.

GRAND RAPIDS MICHIGAN.

The suturing of any one of the delicate little muscles of the eye to the eyeball in the advancement operation has been much discussed, and many methods have been proposed. But none of them seem to have received sufficient support from the profession to warrant its general acceptance and thus standardize the technic. Under these conditions it may seem somewhat presumptuous to offer any new method, yet because of its simplicity and the ease with which it can be accomplished together with its positive holding power preventing the thread from tearing its way out through the muscle, we are constrained to submit the following:

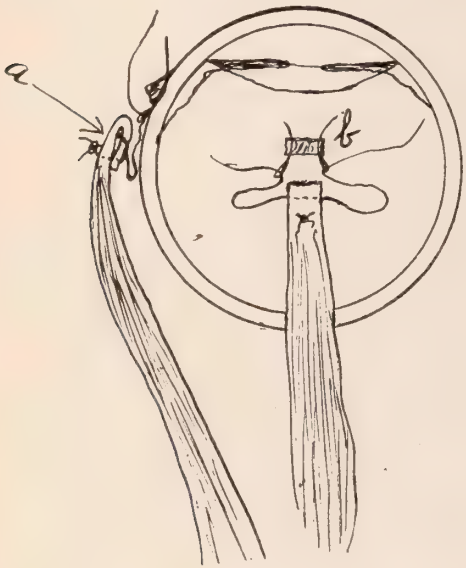


Fig. 1. *a*. Shows loop made by tendon and sutured in shape. *b*. Advancement suture passing through tendon loop and needles in stump of tendon. (Huizinga).

The tendon of the muscle which it is desired to advance is cut at right angles as close to its insertion into the eyeball as possible. The muscle is grasped with any advancement forceps, to prevent it from slipping back and to assist in drawing it forward, etc. The end of the severed tendon is folded back upon itself *beneath* the muscle and held in position by passing a suture thru the tendon and muscle, thus forming the end into a loop. A doubled needled thread is passed thru this loop. These needles and thread are then passed thru the stump of the tendon, still inserted into the eyeball, and partly thru the sclera in the usual way. The tying of this last suture and the advancing of the muscle is accomplished as in other operations and they are left in place for the usual length of time. (See Fig. 1.)

We claim for this operation that the sutures positively cannot pull out or cut their way through the muscle; and if they are properly placed and tied to the stump and sclera, the result obtained must be perfect.

THE REFRACTION IN KERATOCONUS.

Dr. José de Jesus Gonzales.

LEON, MEXICO

At the meeting of June, 1902, of the Mexican Ophthalmological Society, Dr. Uribe-Troncoso presented a case of keratoconus with hypermetropic refraction in the periphery of the cornea and pointed out that the authors did not call attention to the possibility of finding this condition in cases of keratoconus. At the same meeting Dr. Ramos spoke of another case that he had seen with Dr. Fernando Lopez, in which vision improved much with a plus cylinder of 3 D., axis 180°.

Wishing to contribute something towards the study of the refraction in this disease, I shall describe an interesting case:

F. Ll. S., a young man 23 years old, born at Zacatecas, strong, well-built, intelligent and educated, came to me because he wanted to go back to his interrupted literary career, and he needed his refraction determined.

Since he was a boy, he noticed that he needed to approximate the book to his

eyes in order to be able to read, but he was able to finish his primary and high school studies and was prepared to start his law studies. Recently his old visual difficulty had increased, and far as well as near vision was greatly decreased, there being no satisfactory glasses to improve his sight. He then consulted Dr. Fernando Lopez, who did some cauterization of the cornea, and afterwards an iridectomy, and then the tattooing of the cornea. There was a family history of hyperopia and astigmatism as well as of keratoconus.

The vision was 1/10 and the vision for colors was normal. With the ophthalmoscope the media were clear, and the fundus normal. The optic disc was deformed because it was seen thru the distorted cornea.

With the skiascope the first thing to be noticed was the presence of a circular shadow surrounding the pupil with a lightened center, which is characteristic of these cases. This ring in its deformation gave proof that there was intense astigmatism present. All the examinations were made in the eye that had not been subjected to the tattooing, but in both it could be made well.

The refraction was as follows: taking the meridians of extreme refraction O. D. in the middle of the dilated pupil—10 D., in the inclined meridian 180°,—8 D. in the 80° axis. O. S. in the conical zone —8 D. in the 180° axis, and —3 D. in the 100° axis.

According to these findings I thought that the vision would be improved with concave spherical glasses associated with concave cylindrical ones; but it was not the case, and vision remained as bad as before, and could improve only with convex cylindrical glasses. After making a new examination, with the patient looking upwards, downwards, inwards, and outwards, I found a very high hyperopia, as follows:

O. D. and O. S. Looking up 9 Diopters.
O. D. and O. S. Looking down 9 Diopters.
O. D. and O. S. Looking in 9 Diopters.
O. D. and O. S. Looking out 9 Diopters.

These findings were surprising to me; more so when in a paper we are writing on the Skiascopic Refraction of the Peripheric Areas of the Cornea in Emmetropic Eyes, I had constantly found a myopic astigmatism, because the shadow moves in the same direction in which the eye has moved, this in a vertical line, while in a horizontal line it moves in the opposite direction, the astigmatism reaching up to 3 D.

We then had a patient with strong myopic astigmatism of the irregular type in the more ectatic zone of the cornea, and with strong hyperopia in the peripheral zones of the cornea.

The best correcting glasses found for this patient have been:

O. D. Sph. —4 D.⌒ —8Cyl. Axis 80°.
O. S. Sph. —4 D.⌒ —8 Cyl. Axis 180°.

With this prescription vision rises for distance from 1/10 to 4/10; and for near sight it allows the patient to read at 25 centimeter degree 9 of the Didot scale, which is the one considered by Professor True as the smallest type for books for the school.

The keratoconus in our patient *does not seem* to be congenital, because he was able to read for a long time during day and night, and could make many strains without much effort. The diminution in vision was made more patent in his eighteenth year, and he was operated on between 19 and 20.

I believe that this patient was born a strong hyperope, because even after the natural diminution of it with the advancing age, we found 9 D. in the peripheral zone of the cornea. The efforts made during reading gave rise to corneal malnutrition, and the cornea became less resistant, and allowed itself to become distended in the middle, became conical and in that area an irregular astigmatism developed of a myopic character.

SOME EYE COMPLICATIONS IN INFLUENZA.

A. S. Green, M.D., and L. D. Green, M.D.

San Francisco, Cal.

While it is very difficult to prove that the eye conditions herewith presented are other than mere coincidences the

evidence would tend to show that directly, or indirectly, influenza had a bearing upon them.

During the two epidemics of influenza in 1918-1919, we saw numerous cases of conjunctival irritation of lesser or severer degree. There were other cases, however, of a more serious nature and we think the following of sufficient importance to justify putting them on record.

Case I. Pseudoglioma, Metastatic Ophthalmia. Annie B., age 3. Always well. Was taken ill with influenza November 9, 1918, and three or four days later contracted pneumonia. When she was ill with pneumonia for about a week her left eye suddenly became blind, very painful and inflamed. Was treated by the family physician. Excepting for the left eye, the child made an uneventful recovery from the pneumonia and was brought to us on February 11, 1919, with the following condition:

Right eye, normal. Left eye, vision, light perception lost. There was a slight general scleral injection with a slight flattening of the globe in the horizontal axis. Under the corneal microscope three or four areas of interstitial opacification of the cornea were found about the size of a pin-head. The anterior chamber very shallow, practically obliterated; the iris somewhat atrophied and lighter in color than the right. The pupil was rigid and dilated to six mm. and adherent to anterior surface of lens. Lens: Anterior capsule slightly clouded and projects forward to the anterior plane of the iris. The rest of the lens clear. An opaque greyish mass of exudate is seen on the anterior surface of the vitreous which fills the postlental region, with three or four blood vessels coursing over it. Eyeball is very soft.

Case II. Irido-Cyclitis. Sam C., aged 5. Needled for congenital cataract on October 17, 1918. Operation uneventful. Was seen at the office about a week afterwards, and the eye was in a satisfactory condition. The child was not again seen until November 8, 1918, as meantime he and the entire family of five or six members were ill with influenza. When he was finally brought to the office the eye was markedly inflamed and painful. Treatment with atropin and salicylates had little or no effect. The eye finally became very soft and shrunken. Light perception lost.

Case III. Acute Glaucoma. Miss C., age 33. On October 26, 1918. Patient went to bed with influenza. The sight of both eyes began to fail. Saw colored rings around lights and a few days later the eyes became very painful. Was seen by an ophthalmologist on November 1, 1918. The case was pronounced glaucoma. The ophthalmologist then contracted influenza and the patient was referred to us January 21, 1919. Examination showed marked injection of both eyes, with tension of right eye of 55 and left eye 69. Vision of right eye 20/25 and left eye 20/50. She was treated by us for a few weeks until her doctor resumed his practice, but responded poorly to miotics and an operation was advised. Her doctor reports that he operated successfully on one eye which regained normal vision and tension. The other eye also eventually regained normal tension.

Case IV. Acute Glaucoma. Mrs. A. P., age 28. Was referred to us November 30, 1918. Had an attack of influenza three weeks prior. The left eye became inflamed and painful about November 26, 1918. When examined by us on November 30, we found the patient in a hysteric condition from pain. Examination: Marked photophobia. The eye red and cornea steamy. Vision, hand movements 20 inches. Tension, 55. She was placed in a hospital immediately and responded readily to miotics and elimination, and was dismissed from the hospital December 15, 1918, with vision of 20/20. There has been no recurrence.

Case V. Retinal Lesions. Mr. F. K., age 51. Was taken ill with influenza January 14, 1919. Two days afterwards the vision in the right eye failed so that he was unable to distinguish a fire in the grate. Since then his sight has been gradually improving and on February 19, 1919, his vision was 20/40. Upon examination the following condition was found: The disc slightly congested, with margins somewhat blurred. The blood vessels near the disc under a slight haze. Arterial twigs tortuous. A few punctate

hemorrhages scattered between the macular region and the disc. About a dozen yellowish pin-point spots in the macular region.

The patient is positive that prior to his attack of influenza the vision of the right eye was as good as the left, which is normal.

Case VI. Hemorrhage into the Vitreous. Mr. G. S., age 38. Very robust, denies lues, in good health till December 14, 1918, when he was taken ill with a mild attack of influenza. Three weeks following his attack he awoke one morning to find that he could not see with his right eye. When he consulted us on February 22, 1919, we found the following condition: Vision, right eye: Hand movements two feet. With the ophthalmoscope: A large dark red mass was found floating in the posterior part of the vitreous, shifting its position with the movement of the eyes. The blood vessels could be seen very indistinctly. The disc not discernible.

Case VII. Paresis of Accommodation. Miss L. B., age 21. Had influenza during January and February, 1919. Referred to us March 1, on account of inability to read, dizziness and headaches. Examination: Skiascopy, both eyes + 1.00 ⌒ + 0.25 ax. 90°. Vision, both eyes + 0.50 ⌒ + 0.25 ax. 90 =6/6. Esophoria 8° for distance, 10° for near. Amplitude of accommodation, right eye 6½ D. Left eye, 6 D. Fundi, normal. No other pathologic conditions found in eyes.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA. SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY.

March 20, 1919.

Dr. William T. Shoemaker, Chairman.

Vernal Catarrh.

Dr. Charles H. Reed exhibited a a male, aged nineteen years, suffering from chronic eye affection for thirteen years. No member of his family or friends have a similar affection.

The palpebral fissure was narrowed and a slight ptosis was present. The palpebral conjunctiva had a milky white tint, with a decided follicular hypertrophy, especially of the upper lids. No cicatricial tissue or bands. The bulbar conjunctiva at the limbus was thickened and spread over four-fifths of the corneal surface of each eye. The color was pale and the tissue had the appearance of a hyperplasia or thickened conjunctiva, with a number of new bloodvessels.

Discussion: Dr. Edward A. Shumway said that he had shown a case of vernal conjunctivitis of the palpebral type before the Section in January, 1918, which had been cured by the application of radium, and had subsequently reported two successes before the Section on Pediatrics of the Pensylvania State Medical Society in September, 1918. The applications had been made by Dr. Pancoast at the University Hospital, large doses, from 35 to 40 mg., being used, at intervals of three or four weeks, according to the ensuing reaction. In one case in which the radium had been left too long in one position, there had been a burn of the conjunctiva, which gradually disappeared. In none of the cases treated had there been an involvement of the bulbar conjunctiva or of the cornea, as in the present instance, but he thought radium might be employed in Dr. Heed's patient, probably in smaller doses, and he advised its trial. He asked Dr. Heed whether a search had been made for eosinophiles in the conjunctival discharge, as their presence would be in favor of vernal catarrh, as against trachoma, to which the condition bore some resemblance in the case shown.

Dr. Zentmayer said the mechanical ptosis and the thickened appearance of the lids, with a somewhat gelatinous infiltration of the conjunctiva of the upper

lid, together with the unusual hyperplasia of the limbus and cornea, suggest that the case may belong to the class of cases reported by May, of New York, of mixed trachoma and vernal conjunctivitis. The case is very similar to one shown before the Section some six to eight years ago by Dr. Posey.

Multiple Dermoids of Eye, With Other Anomalies.

Dr. Wm. Zentmayer showed photographs of a woman, aged thirty-eight years, with symmetric dermoids of the sclerocorneal margin with a dermoid of the cornea of the right eye. The sclerocorneal growths were about the size of a white bean, of chamois color, pultaceous in feeling and presented several cilia projecting from the surface. The corneal tumor was somewhat conical, yellowish-white and projected between the lids. There were well-marked supernumerary auricles on each side of the head and there was a very marked megalastomia. The right eye was converged about 80 degrees. Marked scoliosis placed the heart on the right side of the spinal column.

At the first operation the sclerocorneal dermoids were removed and about ten days later the corneal growth was dissected off. Two weeks later the right external rectus was advanced and the internal rectus tenotomized. Later the supernumerary auricles were removed and the oral fissure was closed to a point to make the mouth symmetric. The obliquity of the mouth could not be corrected.

Retina Supplied Entirely from the Ciliary Circulation.

Dr. Zentmayer showed a colored woman. In the right eye there was a large cilioretinal artery which emerged at the upper border of the papilla and at 1½ d. d. from the disk bifurcated, one branch going to the temporal fundus, the other to the nasal. A second large one emerged at the lower outer border of the disk and almost immediately divided, both branches supplying the inferior temporal region. A third came out at the lower inner border and bifurcated at 1½ d. d. from the disk. Both branches supplied the inferior nasal fundus. A small cilioretinal vessel came off at the middle of the nasal margin of the disk. All the vessels had the characteristic crook bending back on the surface of the disk before being distributed to the retina.

Cyst of Iris.

J. M., male, aged twenty years. Seen at Wills Hospital February 28, 1919. He comes on account of attacks of blindness in the right eye. The first attack was in June, 1917, while caulking. Vision was reduced to Lt. Per., which lasted a couple of days. Vision recovered completely, but halos have persisted. No pain. Between this time and February, 1919, the interval of attacks was about six months. Since the latter date they are almost constant, there being but slight intermissions. Family history negative. A "spot" had been noticed in the R. E. since early childhood. Vision: R. E., 6/9 pt.; L. E., 6/6 pt. Tension R. E., 30 mm.; L. E.,, 20 mm. Field, R. E., slight irregular contraction, with a re-entering angle below.

R. E. Iris light hazel. Cyst chocolate brown. Mass is 4.5 mm. by 3.5 mm. and fills the angle of the chamber from the outer border of the sphincter to the ciliary border. It is dome-shaped with the convex above. The borders are rounded and cast a shadow on the iris. The surface is smooth except for a slight thickening of its anterior surface near its base.

The larger circle of the iris is greenish gray in temporal segment but is hazel in its nasal half. The anterior chamber is deep; the iris reacts well to light. The fundus is normal.

Under the use of pilocarpin, vision has increased to 6/6 pt. and T. = 22 mm.

The case belongs to the idiopathic type of iris cysts. The pathogenesis is obscure, but they have been explained as arising from a blocking of an iris crypt. Some sort of surgical interference is indicated. Either the surface of the cyst wall may be excised or an iridectomy including the growth should be done. The latter would seem to be the surer operation.

Ocular Motor Palsies as a Sequel to Influenza.

DR. ZENTMAYER related the histories of three cases for the purpose of bringing the subject before the Section.

A. K., aged twenty-eight years, physician. Seventeen days ago taken with slight headache, general muscular weakness and hyperesthesia of the left side of the chest and the right side of the face. Three days later developed diplopia. Two days ago weakness of the right side of the face and nystagmus.

There was paresis of the right external rectus and nystagmoid movement of the eyes, especially marked in looking to the left. Weakness of the entire seventh nerve, the fundus and fields were normal.

W. H., aged thirty-one years, male, stock broker. He was seen in consultation with Dr. Maxwell Langdon. Four days ago he began to feel heavy and drowsy. For this he took fractional doses of calomel. Two days later he found difficulty in focussing. No diplopia. Vision normal. Homonymous diplopia behaved as in paralysis of divergence. L. H. 3 degrees.

The third case was that of a young woman, seen at Wills Hospital, who had a paralysis of the right external rectus.

In all the cases the symptoms were recovered from in short time. In all there had been an attack of influenza which had been apparently recovered from. Lethargy was not present in any of the cases.

Dr. Zentmayer did not think that any of the above cases could be considered as belonging to the type occuring in various parts of the world and to which the term lethargic encephalitis has been given.

DISCUSSION: Dr. Edward A. Shumway said that many of the members present must have been struck by the number of ocular palsies which had been appearing of late, and he reported in some detail six cases, in one of which there had been a history of influenza, but in the other five no such history was obtainable. With the exception of the postinfluenzal case, they had shown marked drowsiness, in some instances stupor. The oculomotor and abducens nerves were the most frequently affected, and in two the facial nerve was involved. In one of the latter the sympathetic fibers were apparently disturbed, as there was narrowing of the palpebral fissures, widening of the pupil and a slight enophthalmos on the paretic side.

One patient had died at the end of two weeks, respiratory failure and high temperature appearing just before death, altho the ocular paralysis had been clearing up. Unfortunately no postmortem examination could be obtained. In three cases there was decided disturbance of speech, the patients talking in a slow, drawling manner. In one instance the Wassermann test was positive, but the suddenness of the onset with fever seemed to warrant the placing of the case in the same class as the others. They must be considered as a polioencephalitis, and apparently closely resembles a case of "lethargic encephalitis," which have been described in epidemic form in England, France, Germany and Austria during the past year. Similar cases have been seen in various parts of this country, notably in New York, Chicago and Baltimore, so that the epidemic is evidently spreading here and more cases are to be expected. Whether they have any relation to the influenza outbreak is as yet unsettled, but we have evidently to deal with an acute, probably infectious process involving the centers in the neighborhood of the corpora quadrigemina and extending downward in some instances into the pons and even into the medulla.

Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler said that the discussion so far had not noted the fact that paralysis of the external muscles of the eye may have a local peripheral origin, such as exposure to cold or a draft striking the eye. This is on a par with cases of Bell's palsy arising from exposure to cold weather when the patient sleeps in the open after a debauch. Three cases of para-

lysis of the external rectus consulted Dr. Ziegler within a few days of each other, each giving the history of sleeping in a draft during a spring night when the weather suddenly changed from a high temperature to a low one. All of these cases yielded to the combined galvanofaradic current, two recovering after one month's treatment and one after three months.

Silver Wire Arteries

Dr. Charles R. Heed exhibited a male, aged fifty years, presenting marked changes of the retinal arteries of the right eye. Physical examination disclosed a chronic pleurisy, emphysema, enlarged heart and a general arteriosclerosis. Blood, Wassermann negative.

Fundus. R.: Disk pale; margins irregular and exudate covering surface; veins were moderately dilated and tortuous; arteries showed sclerotic changes of an advanced state; temporal vessel appeared as a solid white line. The other arteries appeared as chalky white lines with a central blood column. L. Disk margins clear; color pale; retinal vessels show no gross changes.

Discussion.—Dr. Zentmayer said the retinal arteries in Dr. Heed's case were not "silver wire" in the sense in which this term is usually applied, that is, they do not show hyalin thickening but rather a perivasculitis. This in connection with the enlarged veins, the atrophy of the nerve and the connective-tissue formation on the surface of the papilla suggested that the case was one of postneuritic atrophy.

J. Milton Griscom, M. D.,
Clerk.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF MEDICINE.

Section of Ophthalmology.

June 4. Mr. W. T. Holmes Spicer, President.

Relation of Pituitary Body to Carotid.

Mr. J. Herbert Fisher exhibited, by means of the epidiascope, a life-size drawing through the center of the optic chiasma, to show the pedicle of the pituitary body and the intimate relationship between the lateral boundary of the pituitary body and the inner wall and internal carotid artery. This artery, having come forward in the floor of the cavernous sinus, made a bend with its convexity forwards as it ascended to pass on the mesial aspect of the clinoid process on its anterior aspect. It also showed the ophthalmic artery coming off.

Mr. Fisher considered that if there were a swelling of the pituitary body of either a transient or permanent nature, it was very likely to cause an immediate effect on the carotid artery by indenting its inner wall and so interfering with the blood flow, and producing thereby an effect on the cerebral, and possibly also the retinal, circulation.

This section seemed to support the view he recently brought before the members, that possibly an abnormal state of the pituitary body might be responsible for some varieties of migraine, and explain such attendant symptoms as aphasia. Some further support was derived from the fact that during an attack of migraine it was common for the superficial temporal artery to be tense and cord-like. If the enlarged pituitary caused compression as he suggested, then more of the blood brought up the neck by the common carotid must be diverted and fill up the branches of the external carotid, of which the temporal artery is the most easily investigable.

Connective Tissue in Front of Disc.

Mr. L. V. Cargill showed a case of pigmented connective tissue in front of the optic disc of the left eye. When the patient, a soldier, was in France, in 1918, he was struck in the face by shrapnel. As the man was complaining of blindness, his condition was described there as evulsion of the optic nerve. It did not have that appearance, however. The history showed that the man had no vision in that eye before he

was recruited. The disc of the left eye was practically hidden by this mass, which projected beyond the level of the fundus some 3 to 5 diopters. From some of the radiating white streaks, blood vessels could be seen to emerge. He thought it must be due either to some defect of a congenital nature, to trauma, or to inflammatory change. His view was that it was due to a hemorrhage, which might have occurred at birth. Obviously it had no relationship to the facial injury by shrapnel.

Obstruction of Retinal Vessels.

Mr. F. A. Juler showed a patient with obstruction of retinal vessels, with patent vessels, following an electric flash. This case of embolism of the central artery of the retina showed some unusual features. The part of the retina on the outer side of the disc looked healthy and was not opaque, and there was a small cilio-retinal vessel supplying this part of the retina. With regard to the nature of the obstruction, the man had an extensive heart lesion, which Dr. Langmead regarded as probably congenital. At this date, a fortnight after the onset, the retinal arteries of this eye had as large a caliber as that of the other eye vessels. The existence of the heart lesion made it difficult to escape the view that the obstruction was due to embolus in the central artery of the retina. The man was engaged in his electrical work, when a flash took place about six feet from him, and two hours later the eye was gradually becoming blind. An hour after that the sight came back almost completely. When, however, he went to sleep shortly afterwards he awoke with the eye again blind. The diminished force of the heart's action during sleep probably enabled the blockage of the artery to again become complete. The question of compensation having arisen, he gave the view that there was a causal connection between the flash and the blindness.

Melanoma of Choroid.

Mr. Foster Moore exhibited a case of melanoma of the choroid, which had remained stationary for 5½ years. It showed the characteristic "blue ointment" color, which was uniformly distributed over the growth. It was only discovered on routine ocular examination. The pigment appeared to be intracellular.

Visual Perception of Solid Forms.

Mr. E. M. Eaton contributed an exhaustive paper, illustrated by many slides, on "Visual Perception of Solid Forms." He showed that the binocular element was the essential factor in stereoscopic vision. The stereoscopic quality was not an exclusive attribute of binocular vision. It must be recognized that as experience increased, sensation came more and more to assume an objective character, and ultimately it became undifferentiable from perception. This was not equally true of any other sense, if indeed it were so at all. In the ordinary view of objects there was no conscious relic of the abstract sense of light; there was merely an impression of the perception of the object seen.

It was possible to so suppress the image of each retina. If two retinal images did not fit each other satisfactorily, it was possible to automatically cut off the projecting portions. In fact, in only a few circumstances did one utilize the whole of both retinal images. When it was said that by means of binocular vision a view could be obtained around objects, it really meant that spaces behind them could be appreciated, as in looking across a sandy desert in sunshine and perceiving the air agitation due to altering states of atmospheric density and therefore refracting power.

Discussion: J. H. Parsons spoke of the great value of the paper, especially in connection with the visual problems of aviation. He said the contribution invited very careful study.

H. Dickinson.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION.

Section on Ophthalmology.

JUNE 11-13, 1919.

CHAIRMAN, CASSIUS D. WESCOTT OF CHICAGO.

The chairman made a brief address introductory to the business of the meeting.

Ophthalmology and the Physician.

CHARLES P. EMERSON of Indianapolis, read a paper, (published in full, JOURNAL OF THE A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1817), in which he discussed the relief of eyestrain, especially headache, sensitiveness to light and colors, forms of vertigo and dizziness, and other nervous and mental symptoms; and the relief possible thru correction of anomalies of refraction and movements of the eyes. Viewing the subject from the standpoint of the internist, his paper was of a particular value to ophthalmologists.

Refinements in Examination of Refraction.

WALTER L. PYLE, of Philadelphia, presented this paper, (published in full, JOURNAL A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1821), dealing especially with refinements, he regarded as necessary but often neglected, in the examination room and its lighting, test lenses and frames, the necessity for return examinations, test charts—objective methods, which he thought almost indispensable but not to be relied on against careful subjective examination.

Present Status of Refraction Work.

E. J. GARDINER, of Chicago, presented a partly historical sketch from which he drew lessons for younger colleagues (see JOURNAL A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1824).

Muscular Anomalies.

SAMUEL THEOBALD, of Baltimore, regarded the correction of muscular anomalies as secondary in importance only to the correction of the faults of refraction, and he believed they were often overlooked, supporting his contention with statistics and giving methods of diagnosis. (See JOURNAL A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1827.)

Ophthalmic Service in American Expeditionary Forces.

ALLEN GREENWOOD, of Boston, presented briefly the paper, published in full on page 565 of this JOURNAL.

Control of Trachoma.

GEORGE S. DERBY, of Boston, presented his paper on Control of Trachoma among the Alien Labor Companies working in connection with the British and American Expeditionary Forces in France, (published in full, p. 500).

Group Studies in Ophthalmic Research.

The paper on this subject by F. PARK LEWIS, of Buffalo, has appeared in full (JOURNAL OF THE A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1893). It urges that for an understanding of ocular diseases an investigation is necessary of conditions that lie outside of the eye itself; and for this reason, cooperation is necessary with workers specializing in other branches of medicine and general science.

Daylight Illumination of Interiors.

EDWARD JACKSON, of Denver, presented a paper on this subject, to be published in full in this Journal.

Family Degeneration of Macula.

ROBERT BLUE, of Chicago, presented this paper, which will be published in the JOURNAL OF THE A. M. A. It reports the history of a case in which vision began to fail at the age of 12 or 13, and at 18, had fallen to 6/60. A younger sister, aged 10, had normal eyes and vision. The facts regarding nine other families reported in the literature, are given in tabular form.

Action of Radium on Cataract.

MARTIN COHEN and ISSAC LEVIN, of New York City, presented a paper, (to be published, JOURNAL A. M. A.), reporting the results of exposure to radium of 24 cases of incipient senile cataract, from which they conclude: that such application of radium is harmless, and that there is a diminution of opacity under its influence. It causes no difficulties for

subsequent extraction. It is therefore advisable to test its influence on partial cataract.

Immediate Capsulotomy in Cataract Extraction.

A. G. BENNETT, of Buffalo, presented a paper on this subject which will be published in full in this journal.

Hyaloid Membrane Following Cataract Operations.

S. LEWIS ZIEGLER, of Philadelphia, called attention to this condition and reported a case. His paper will be published later.

Autotoxic Factor in Sympathetic Ophthalmia.

ARNOLD KNAPP, of New York, presented a paper, (JOURNAL A. M. A., v. 72, p. 1897), reporting four cases of sympathetic ophthalmia of the type of serous cyclitis, with attendant symptoms suggesting toxic manifestations. Choroidal and macular changes were present in all cases. In three cases an eye was enucleated, and two of these were subjected to examination. The typical sympathetic ophthalmic infiltration was pronounced, especially in the posterior half of the choroid about an inflamed optic nerve. In these cases there was generally a history of improper diet and over eating associated with constipation. The recognized treatment by use of mercury and salicylates, of course, favors elimination of such toxic factors as may be present. Sources of focal infection should also receive careful attention.

Treatment of Symblepharon and Restoration of Orbital Socket.

WILLIAM H. WILDER, of Chicago, presented a paper which will be published in full in this Journal.

Relation of Teeth, Tonsils and Toxemias to Eye Diseases.

G. H. BELL, of New York, presented a paper, (to be published in full in the JOURNAL OF THE A. M. A.), urging the great importance of these causes of ocular disease and the necessity for routine examination for them, and their correction.

Operation for Conical Cornea.

L. WEBSTER FOX, of Philadelphia, presented a paper on this subject which will be published in full in this Journal.

Uveitis.

A. EDWARD DAVIS, of New York, presented a paper with special reference to the etiology and treatment in the malignant types of uveal inflammation, (to be published in full in the JOURNAL A. M. A.). The causes are numerous, but the symptoms are seldom alike in any two cases, and the treatment, aside from local measures, must be directed toward the cause, the discovery of which will bring into play all the ingenuity and skill at the surgeon's command.

Cysticercus of the Vitreous; Cysts of Retina; Anterior Lenticonus.

This paper presented by G. E. DE SCHWEINITZ and MEYER WIENER, of Philadelphia and St. Louis respectively, will be published in the JOURNAL A. M. A. It reported clinical observations on three cases made at the U. S. A. General Hospital, No. 14, Ft. Oglethorpe, Ga. The first of these seems to be the fifth case of intraocular cysticercus published in this country, and one more thoroly studied and discussed than most such cases in the literature.

The second case presented an ophthalmoscopic picture discovered in seeking the cause of defective vision. The cysts were multilocular, one situated in the region of the macula, and a large group of others farther towards the temporal side. The case of lenticonus was also encountered because of the defective vision.

Foreign Bodies Within the Eyeball.

JOHN O. MCREYNOLDS, of Dallas, Texas, presented this paper (to be published JOURNAL A. M. A.) He reported eleven illustrative cases. The three primary questions confronting the surgeon are: What are the location and character of the foreign body? What are the proposed measures of relief; and what will be the probable immediate and remote results? The reported cases are intended to present the different problems to be dealt with.

Treatment of Dacryocystitis by Curettage.

JOHN GREEN, JR. of St. Louis, read a paper on this subject which will be published in full in this Journal.

Treatment of Glaucoma.

JOHN E. WEEKS, of New York City, presented a paper (to be published in full in the JOURNAL A. M. A.), dealing with his personal observations on this subject. He reviewed the principal determining causes of hypertension, the treatment with miotics, and the operations to be considered. His practice when time permitted had been to make a trial with miotics in all cases before advising operation; but experience had convinced him that early operation is desirable. He found neither iridectomy nor the Lagrange operation satisfactory in infantile glaucoma, a trephine opening is inclined to enlarge by stretching, therefore a large trephine should not be employed. For subacute and simple chronic cases, he relies on the Lagrange operation or Elliot trephining. But with idiopathic glaucoma, except in acute cases, we must not expect a high percentage of eyes to retain their vision after a successful operation.

ABSTRACTS

P. Bailliart, The Retinal Venous Circulation. Ann. d'Ocul. 1918, v. 155, p. 453.

The author considers that there are three possibilities in regard to the retinal venous pulsation: (1) The veins do not pulsate spontaneously. This condition was present in 42 per cent of the cases examined. (2) The veins show slight spontaneous movements, synchronous with the pulse rate, etc. This was present in 21 per cent of the cases. (3) A distinct pulsation of the veins is present. This was found in 37 per cent of the cases. This was found either in the portion crossing the disc, or, more frequently, as the vein appears at the bottom of the physiologic excavation. It commences with the ventricular systole and is prolonged after it. Sometimes it appears as a movement of the walls and sometimes as a movement of the whole blood column.

Pressure on the eyeball produces a gradual obliteration of the veins, the end stage being preceded by a breaking up of the blood column into a granular appearance. This was found only in the disc, as the veins on the retina never are decreased in size, however great the pressure. The pulsation of the vein is short and quick. If the vein shows the latter characteristic, it is probably due to impulse transmitted from an underlying artery. Pressure on the eyeball produces either a complete disappearance of the venous pulse before the arterial pulse appears, or it persists and is even increased. There are then two distinct pulsations in the eye, the venous coming first, but the arterial appearing before its completion. This is never found in normal eyes.

The flow of blood in the retinal veins is governed by the *vis a tergo* of the blood as it leaves the capillaries, which decreases as the disc is approached, and the *vis a fronti* due to auricular diastole, which increases towards the disc. During diastole there is a negative pressure in the jugular and contributing vessels, which travels backwards, and during systole there is a positive pressure. The minimum negative is just at the end of the diastole, and the maximum is at the moment of presystole.

The intraocular maximum pressure occurs just when the venous pressure begins to decrease in the larger vessels. If this maximum is greater than the venous pressure where the vein leaves the eyeball, the vein contracts, and if the minimum intraocular pressure is less than the venous pressure at the same place, it dilates. If the intraocular pressure is always greater than the venous, there will be no pulsation of the vein, any increase simply resulting

in decreasing the caliber of the veins. If it is always less, the walls of the vein will retain their maximum caliber, but if the difference is great enough, there will be a pulsation of the blood column, resembling a piston stroke. Pressure on the eyeball in the first of the last two conditions will produce a venous pulse, unless the pressure becomes too great, and in the second, will augment the "piston" pulse, until it becomes greater than the maximal venous pressure, when the pulse will disappear.

From the above facts it would seem that in the majority of cases the intraocular tension is about equal to the venous pressure at the point of exit from the eyeball. That is to say, the latter will vary between 18 and 22 mm. of mercury.

C. L.

Valude, E., Radioscopy and Radiography of Ocular Foreign Bodies. (Annales d' Oculistique, June, 1918, v. 155, p. 261.)

In this article the author describes a case illustrating how even a good radiographer, for general surgery, may overlook a foreign body in the eye; and how the absence of pain or movement upon use of the magnet is no proof that a magnetic foreign body is not present. The great point for this oculist is the location of the foreign body, intra- or extra-ocular, which is of far greater importance than its size. Next, is the question of whether it is magnetic or not.

Radioscopic examination should precede radiographic. If a foreign body is seen, it may be extraorbital, in the lids, in the orbit or extraocular but moving with the eye. The latter requires an exact diagnosis, as most bodies moving with the eye are intraocular. If its movements are the same as that of the cornea, it is in the anterior hemisphere of the eye; if in the opposite direction, it is in the posterior. In those very rare cases when the foreign body is at the exact center of rotation of the eye, it will not move, altho it is intraocular. In this case, unless it is absolutely round and very small, its dimensions change with the movements of the eye.

A negative radioscopic examination does not prove the absence of the foreign body, as it may be very small and obscured by the dark shadows from a bone. Then two radiographs must be taken, one frontal with the face towards the plate, the other lateral, with the suspected side towards the plate. If a careful examination of these show nothing, it may be concluded that no body visible by X-rays is present. If the shadow of a foreign body is seen, in such a position that it is clearly intraorbital, two supplementary plates must be made; some times four; two in a lateral position, one or two in a frontal.

In the lateral position, the head is inclined so that the injured orbit is projected on a plane interior to that of the other side, the normal rays falling at the level of the root of the nose. While the head is immovable, two exposures are made, one with the wounded eye looking up, and the other looking down. These with the others are usually sufficient for diagnosis. But if it is suspected that the body is in an ocular muscle, two frontal exposures must be taken, with the patient looking ahead and inward.

C. L.

J. G. Forbes. Conjunctival Filaria in Man. Lancet, Apr. 19, p. 654.

Forbes reports two cases in which filaria conjunctivae (Addario) were found. In one case the lesion was in the upper part of the left forearm and resembled a lymphatic gland. A thread-like worm was found in the abscess, and upon examination proved to be a male filaria conjunctivae. This is the first case reported in which the male organism was present. In all other cases hitherto reported, the female worm produced the disease.

The author reported a second case with tumor on the right side of the nose, which when opened was found to be a cyst that contained a female filaria conjunctivae of Addario measuring 94 mm. in length.

W. C. F.

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CHOROIDEREMIA.

Absence of the choroid is such a striking condition, and of such important interest in ocular physiology and pathology, that it deserves to be better known. As indicated in Dr. Connor's paper, (p. 553) the literature relating to it is very scanty. Beside the sentence he quotes from de Schweinitz' last edition, no allusion to it has been found in any American textbook.

Among English books, Parsons[1] mentions it in two lines; and the only fairly adequate account is by Collins and Mayou,[2] based on the article by Nettleship. In the Graefe-Saemisch Handbuch, Leber[3] seems to have disposed of the subject by classifying the reported cases as pigmentary degeneration of the retina with extreme atrophy of the choroid. Fuchs, Axenfeld, Roemer and Adam in their books make no allusion to it. It is mentioned in none of the atlases on ophthalmoscopy. Apparently the first colored plate representing the appearances noted is the one published in this number of this journal.

The first case was reported in 1872 by Mauthner.[4] Two years later Koenig[5] reported two cases, one seen in Schirmer's clinic at Greifswald, and the patient's younger brother. In 1892 Cowgill[6] of Paducah, Kentucky, published a case he had seen six years before. Tatham Thompson[7] of Cardiff, Wales, published his case in 1899, and Otto Landman[8] of Toledo, Ohio, reported his case with a discussion of the probable origin of such a condition in 1905. In 1908 Nettleship[9] in his paper on "Retinitis Pigmentosa and Allied Diseases," brought together the reported cases, with two others that seem to be of somewhat different character, scarcely justifying their inclusion in this group.

The patients have all been males. Generally they were young men when they came under observation; but the completely bilateral character of the condition, the clear history of the defective sight from early childhood,

without change, and absence of any especial sickness to which it could be ascribed point unmistakably to its congenital origin. Nettleship describes it under the heading "Congenital Absence of the Choroid." No consanguinity of parents has been reported. One brother of Mauthner's patient was said to have similar defects of vision. A great uncle of Thompson's patient suffered from night blindness. This latter patient and also Koenig's patients had brothers and sisters with apparently normal sight.

Night blindness or lack of retinal adaptation is mentioned by all these authors except Cowgill. All the patients knew their vision was defective, and all showed concentric contraction of the visual fields. With the ophthalmoscope the media were found clear, the choroid absent over most of the fundus, but present in the region of the macula; and the retinal vessels approaching normal. Scattered pigment spots were noticed in different parts of the fundus, tho Thompson's sketch shows but one.

The patch of choroid present, varying in size from 1 to 3 disc diameters, was not peculiarly pigmented, and had always an indefinite border, in contrast to the sharp boundary seen in cases of choroidal coloboma. In some cases the macular patch of choroid was nourished by vessels arising at or near the disc, in others these were not present. Isolated choroidal vessels were sometimes seen in other parts of the fundus, and Landman sketched what he regarded as rudimentary vortex veins.

The physiologic importance of the choroid makes it almost inconceivable that a large part of it should be lacking in an eye possessed of standard vision in good daylight. But this anomaly has now been so well described by so many observers, and their descriptions agree so completely in all important features, that we must regard choroideremia as a well-established, altho very rare, anomaly of the eye. No case has yet been examined postmortem and none have been encountered in the examinations of enucleated eyes that have added so much to our knowledge of the more common anomalies of the anterior portions of the retina and uveal tract.

Every case of this condition should be carefully studied, not only as to visual acuity and fields of vision, but also with reference to retinal adaptation, tension of the eyeball, and departures of the anterior portions of the uveal tract from normal standards; and anomalies of pupil, and accomodation. The life history of every eye so departing from normal structure would be interesting. Its reaction to injury or infection, its liability to vitreous opacity, cataract and other nutritive disorders would be of interest. It is also pertinent to inquire how often any similar anomaly is encountered in the lower animals.

E. J.

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OPHTHALMIC EXAMINATIONS.

In the last five years three important movements have arisen in the profession for the determination and recognition of special competence by examinations open to graduates in medicine. The state examinations for the license to practice were always designed to enforce a certain minimum standard of requirement, falling below which a candidate should not be permitted to practice. These new examinations are intended to ascertain if the candidate has attained a somewhat higher standard of competence.

The examinations referred to are those of the National Board of Medical Examiners, the American College of Surgeons, and the American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations. The first was designed to furnish evidence of fitness for practice that could be accepted by all the government medical services, and state boards of medical examiners, without requiring a separate examination for each service or state. Such evidence is sought mainly by written and practical examinations extending over several days, modeled a good deal on the plan of the "Conjoint Board" examinations of Great Britain, and familiar in American Colleges and Universities.

The American College of Surgeons was largely designed to raise the ethical as well as the educational standard of the surgeons of America; and to effect that purpose, various committees and individuals have been called upon to certify to the professional character of applicants, while their technical training and skill is passed upon largely by means of case reports, the genuineness of which can be verified by reference to hospital records. Before putting this plan into operation the college was formed by invitation of surgeons upon their general reputation and professional standing, and in this way mistakes were made that have been a serious embarrassment to the organization.

The American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations was neither self constituted nor brought into existence by a general invitation to men of supposed good professional standing. Its members were chosen by the three national organizations, the American Ophthalmological Society, the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, and the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, by the same methods as these organizations choose their presiding officers. Its purpose is primarily to ascertain who are properly prepared for ophthalmic practice, altho it also recognizes responsibility not to certify the fitness of those guilty of gross professional misconduct. It gives no academic degree and grants no legal right to practice, but its certificate is already coming to be recognized as an evidence of training for ophthalmic practice, on which the medical profession and the public can rely. After next year it will be required for admission to membership in the American Ophthalmological Society and the Academy.

In determining who should be given its certificate the Board decided it should be restricted to those who made formal application, after careful examination of their claims of qualification submitted, and that this examination should be made on broad lines. There is no more searching written examination than the writing of a book, or a series of scientific papers, to be judged by reviewers, rival authors, teachers, students and practitioners. There is no more conclusive form of oral examination than that of lecturing, quizzing students and taking part in the discussions of medical societies. No better practical examination can be devised than conducting a public clinic in the presence of students and colleagues. Where these tests have been passed successfully, and the general verdict of the profession is known, the Board for Ophthalmic Examinations has accepted the verdict, and on the examination of such evidence has granted its certificate.

But there are many well educated ophthalmologists who have never submitted themselves to the public examinations above referred to, whose

fitness for ophthalmic practice is just as important to the public and the medical profession as that of the writers and chiefs of clinics. It is especially to ascertain and certify their fitness that the Board was instituted. To accomplish this the plan of case reports has been adopted. The man who can thoroly examine a case and reach a correct diagnosis, can make a record of what he finds and the conclusions he draws therefrom; and such a record will enable any skilled ophthalmologist to draw fairly safe conclusions with regard to the professional abilities of its author, especially when supplemented by the examinations which bring the candidate in personal touch with the examiners.

These additional examinations by the Board are oral, practical and written. The oral and practical are largely simultaneous. In the laboratory the candidate examines the prepared slides and tells what he sees in them, the significance of the appearances found, and what conclusions he draws from his observations. In the clinical portion he examines the patient, tells what symptoms he discovers, and is crossquestioned as to his methods of examination, and the diagnosis and treatment that can be based upon the facts brought out. The written part of the examination is planned to develop the basis of fundamental knowledge that the applicant brings to his practical study of cases, that will enable him to get a broad comprehensive view of the conditions presented.

The questions for the last written examination of the American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations were as follows:

1. Describe the development of the crytalline lens.
2. Draw a diagram of a vertical crosssection of the middle of the upper lid, indicating the structures and their relations.
3. What change takes place in the iris in the act of accommodation; what effect does it have on vision?
4. Describe the repair of corneal tissue after its destruction by corneal ulcer.
5. A patient with uveitis develops increased tension of the eyeball, with severe pain and loss of vision. How would you manage the case?

It is natural on reading of such examinations to inquire how one would answer such questions himself. Generally there is a feeling that the fundamental branches studied long ago have been forgotten, and would prove the chief stumbling block. But the danger of this has been duly considered by the Board and failures to pass these examinations have not usually been on account of lack of training in physiologic optics, or anatomy, or inability to recognize a section of sarcoma of the choroid, or inflamed cornea. They have been more commonly due to inability to take a field of vision by any one standard method, or to recognize disease with the ophthalmoscope; or to the knowing of but a single routine method of measuring the refraction of an eye, or to incomplete mastery of even that. They have been due to weak points in the *practical* training for ophthalmic practice.

Sometimes the applicant would be well trained in most directions, but utterly incompetent to use a certain necessary method for diagnosis, or to manage a certain class of cases. When he was made aware of this, and set himself to make good the defects of his earlier training, he became a better ophthalmologist, a safer adviser for his patients, a more worthy and more successful member of his profession.

The drawing of the distinction between the ophthalmologists of America who are fairly prepared for their work, and those who are not, is a proper function of the Board of Ophthalmic Examinations. But a far more important work will be accomplished by arousing all ophthalmologists to compare their own training with a standard or an ideal course; and by stimulating them to discover in what they are deficient, and to seek the remedy for their deficiencies.

There are reasons and need for enormous improvement in the graduate teaching of Ophthalmology in this country. Paris and London are taking important steps to increase the effi-

ciency of such teaching; and to draw to themselves students who cross the seas. But in certain important respects American methods of opthalmic practice are better than those current in Europe. The opportunities and quality of teaching should be equally good here. here.

The mass of those who treat the eyes of Americans will be trained in America. They must be as well trained as the mass of ophthalmologists in the old world. As our profession comes to understand what a good school of ophthalmology is, and the need for it, and proceeds to make its influence felt on the laity, the schools we need will be forthcoming. The American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations is one means for making our needs felt.

As was pointed out in the reports made by its members of the Board to the Section on Ophthalmology of the A. M. A., after next year the American Ophthalmological Society and the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology will require the certificate of the Board for admission to membership. It is also proposed next year to cease awarding the certificate on any examination that does not at least include the submission of case reports.

In the beginning there were older members of the profession whose published records were a sufficient basis for deciding their fitness for the certificate. Now, and in the next year, these will have had their opportunity to apply for such recognition. It is fair to suppose that if they have not done so, in the first five years of this effort on the part of ophthalmologists to raise their standard of training, that they do not care to lend their names to assist in the movement, or to ally themselves with the body that will be more and more the regular ophthalmic profession of the future. It seems proper, therefore, at this time to establish the single gateway of admission to such recognition.

Prompt application for examination will give material assistance to the new movement, and still give applicants the benefit, if benefit it be, of having their past work recognized in the examination. But all who are awake to the changes going on about them must recognize that this is a period of transition; and in the future, men will be more thoroly and systematically trained for ophthalmic practice; and the general profession and the public will be more exacting with regard to evidences of good training.

E. J.

THE OSLER ANNIVERSARY.

On July 12th of this year occurred the seventieth anniversary of the birth of Sir William Osler. With cordial enthusiasm members of the English speaking medical profession united to do him honor in a memorial volume that developed so that it had to be divided. The original papers announced to appear therein number 139, representing every department of medicine.

Sir William has not been especially connected with the field of ophthalmology. But his service in the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital placed him in the class with Albutt, Hughlings Jackson, Jonathan Hutchinson and Sir Wm. Gowers, of those whose acquaintance with the exactness of methods of ophthalmic diagnosis has contributed to their eminence in other fields of medicine and surgery.

In view of Osler's catholic interest in all that pertains to medical science, it is appropriate that the memorial volume should contain papers relating to ophthalmology. There are five of these all by American writers, as follows:

Oxycephaly and Exophthalmos, by George Dock, of St. Louis, an internist.

The Schematic Drawing of the Eye in Its Historic Development, by the late Mortimer Frank, of Chicago.

Visual Disturbances of Polycythemia Vera, by Harry Friedenwald of Baltimore.

Description of Minute Sarcoma, with Histologic Findings, by John E. Weeks, of New York.

Eyes of the Burrowing Owl, Special

Reference to the Fundus Oculi, by Casey A. Wood, of Chicago.

Chronic Tuberculosis of the Choroid, by Edward Jackson, of Denver.

From his colleagues and admirers among American ophthalmologists, we offer sincere congratulations and good wishes; with the hope that he will live up to his centenarian family history; and long continue the active, progressive, wise leader that he is to the medical profession.

E. J.

BOOK NOTICES.

Squibbs Materia Medica. 1919 Edition. Published by E. R. Squibb & Sons, New York (gratuitous).

This is an exhaustive series of formulas and descriptions of the products gotten out by this well-known pharmaceutical house. The occasion of its publication is the one-hundredth birthday anniversary of the late Dr. E. R. Squibb, the founder of the house; and the sixtieth anniversary of its foundation. This little book is useful for reference; more so perhaps to the ophthalmologist than to some of his professional colleagues, who are habitually prescribing a wide range of drugs for internal use.

H. V. W.

The Refraction of the Eye. A Manual for Students. By **Gustavus Hartridge,** F. R. C. S. Sixteenth Edition. (See also p. 546.)

The fact that this little book has run sixteen editions from the time of its first publication in 1884, bespeaks its popularity and something of its value. The size of the book has remained about the same, the present edition being 281 pages, including the index. The author has, from time to time, condensed portions and included newer methods.

In this last edition will be found the broken ring test chart of Landolt; newer references to the shadow test, which the English call Retinoscopy and brief notes on heterophoria, which, with its subdivisions, now seems to be accepted by our English cousins as a proper nomenclature. We note that "cyclophoria is only occasionally met with in this country, tho cases seem frequently to occur in America." Also that asthenopia is sometimes due to diseased teeth. In other respects this edition is like the previous ones, discussing the subject of refraction in a personal way that makes easy reading for the student.

For the sixteenth time we recommend this book for teaching purposes and as a vade mecum for the refractionist.

H. V. W.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Dr. F. K. Brown died in Philadelphia on May 31st.

Dr. C. B. Bush died in Philadelphia on May 27th.

Walter T. Clegg, of Liverpool, died suddenly of pneumonia, at the age of sixty years.

L. E. Desjardins, a professor in Laval Medical College, Montreal, died recently.

Dr. William M. Floyd, of Henderson, Kentucky, died on May 17th.

Dr. Hiram L. Lutz, of Philadelphia, died on June 8th.

Erik Nordenson, of Stockholm, died last February of influenza in his 72nd year.

Arthur Brigham Norton, New York City, for ten years the editor of the Homeopathic Eye, Ear and Throat Journal; died at his home, June 18th, from pneumonia.

Henry Simon Oppenheimer, New York City, aged 75; a member of the American Ophthalmological Society; Ophthalmologist to the Montefiore Home; died at his home, July 5th.

H. E. Pagenstecher, of Strassburg, died recently.

Dr. L. M. Palmer died in Boston on June 4th.

H. Schöler, of Berlin, died recently.

Dr. H. F. Stowell, of Rochester, New York, aged 71, died at his home on June 8th, from senile debility.

Henry G. S. Warren died recently in Sydney, Australia.

The friends of Dr. A. E. Bulson in the medical profession extend to him their deep sympathy and regret at the death of his wife, Eva Maud Bulson. Mrs. Bulson died of heart disease in their home at Fort Wayne, Indiana, on June 25, 1919.

PERSONALS.

Dr. Chas. A. Bahn has been elected assistant professor of Diseases of the Eye in the Graduate School of Medicine, Tulane University; and first assistant surgeon in the Eye Department of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Hospital of New Orleans.

Charles H. Baker, of Bay City, was elected president of the Michigan State Medical Society at its 54th annual meeting.

At the annual meeting of the Southwest Kentucky Medical Association held at Paducah, Kentucky, May 22nd, Dr. H. G. Reynolds was elected president for the ensuing year.

Acting Assistant Surgeon F. B. Eaton, U. S. Public Health Service, has been ordered to proceed from San Francisco, California, to Lexington, Kentucky, and to continue his investigations as to the etiology of trachoma in Kentucky and the Appalachian region.

Dr. A. C. Bartholomew announces his return to civil practice, with offices in the Home Guards Temple, Van Wert, Ohio.

Dr. E. A. Codman announces that he has returned to civil practice at 227 Beacon Street, Boston.

Dr. Arthur M. Yudkin, announces that he will be located at 238 York Street, New Haven, Connecticut, for the exclusive practice of the diseases of the eye, ear, nose and throat.

Dr. Harry Vanderbilt Würdemann, recently released from Army Service, and Dr. Harry Francis Macbeth will be associated in practice after June 1, 1919, at 708-710 Cobb Building, Seattle.

Dr. Samuel D. Risley of Philadelphia expects to spend the month of August at Bear Lake, Luzerne County, Pennsylvania.

Dr. T. B. Holloway, secretary of the American Ophthalmological Society, has been elected Surgeon to Wills Eye Hospital, Philadelphia, to succeed Dr. Wm. M. Sweet, who recently resigned. Dr. Sweet will continue his present work as Assistant Surgeon to Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia. Dr. Holloway expects to leave the city about August 1st for a trip to Canada.

Colonel Casey A. Wood has been engaged during the summer on his Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology and the Anniversary Volume in honor of Sir William Osler and expects shortly to take up the preparation of the Base Hospital Section of our Medical and Surgical History of the War. He will remain in California until October 1st after which he will return to Washington for the purpose just mentioned.

Dr. A. C. Seely of Roseburg, Oregon, has returned from the Service and resumed his practice.

Dr. Calvin C. Rush of Christian College, Canton, China, is now located at Mountain View, California.

Dr. Robert I. Bullard of Springfield, Illinois, has recently returned from overseas service.

Captain E. C. Spitze has been discharged from the Army service and has resumed his practice in the Murphy Building, East St. Louis, Illinois.

Dr. Ralph T. Merrill has received his discharge from the Army and has opened his office in Idaho Falls, Idaho.

Dr. James A. Morgan is relieved from active duty in the Naval Medical Corps at the U. S. Naval Hospital, Mare Island, California, and is resuming his practice at Honolulu.

Dr. Harry V. Würdemann of Seattle has been commissioned Major M. R. C. He recently served as chief of the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section, Base Hospital, Camp Lewis, Washington.

Dr. Vard H. Hulen of San Francisco, California, has received his discharge from the Army and has returned from France. We had the pleasure of seeing Dr. Hulen in Denver on his way home. He was looking very fit after his military experience.

Dr. G. I. Hogue has returned after a two years service with the A. E. F., and will resume his practice at 410 Jefferson St., Milwaukee.

SOCIETIES.

In the meeting 3rd of May, 1919, of the Norwegian Society of Science in Christiania the Fridtjof Nansen Prize—Kr. 2000—was awarded to Hj. Schiötz and S. Holth for important work on glaucoma.

The Tenth Annual Meeting of the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress took place July 11, 1919, with the following officers: Sidney Stephenson, master; Philip H. Adams, deputy master; Sir Anderson Chritchett, honorary treasurer; A. Bernard Cridland, honorary secretary.

At the annual meeting of the Kansas City Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Club the following officers were elected: President, Dr. Hal

Foster, Kansas City; vice-presidents, Drs. John D. Pifer, Joplin, and Theodore S. Blakesley, Kansas City.

At the recent meeting of the American Medical Association, Section on Ophthalmology, the following special committee was appointed to cooperate with committees from other societies for the purpose of considering the advisability of arranging for the International Congress of Ophthalmology to be held in the United States. It was recommended that these committees be appointed: A committee of three to report to the section on the standardizing of undergraduate instruction of ophthalmology; a committee of three to report a scale of compensation for ocular injuries, and a committee of five to report on the use of various local anesthetics and on their effects on the eye.

During the meeting of the American Medical Association, the Air Service Medical Association of the United States was formed with the following officers: President, Col. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; first vice-president, Col. Theodore C. Lyster, Rockefeller Institute, New York City; second vice-president, Col. Eugene R. Lewis, Dubuque, Iowa; third vice-president, Col. Isaac H. Jones, Philadelphia, Pa.; fourth vice-president, Col. William H. Wilmer, Washington, D. C.; fifth vice-president, Col. Albert E. Truby, Washington, D. C.; secretary, Major John P. Gallager, Philadelphia, Pa.; council, Major James H. McKee, Philadelphia, Pa.; Major Frank Cary, Chicago, Ill.; Captain David H. Webster, New York City; Col. Casey A. Wood, Chicago, Ill.; Lt. Col. W. L. Sheep, Washington, D. C.; historian, Major E. C. Schneider, Mineola, Long Island, N. Y.; treasurer, Major Robert S. McCombs, Philadelphia, Pa.

The Philadelphia Medical Club, at its June reception, which was held in the ball room of the Bellevue Stratford Hotel, had as its guests of honor Senator Robert L. Owen of Oklahoma and the following foreign delegates to the American Medical Association: England — Lieut. Col. Sir Shirley Murphy, Sir Arbuthnot Lane, Rear Admiral E. R. Dimsey, Major W. Hey Groves, Sir St. Clair Thomson, Lieut. Col. Arthur F. Hurst, Dr. A. Graham Little. France—Professor P. Begouin and Professor R. Picqué, of Bordeaux, Major F. LeMaitre of Paris. Belgium—Professor Antoine DePage, Captain Van de Velde. China—Major S. T. Lee. Japan—Dr. S. Uchino.

Addresses of welcome were made by Dr. G. Oram Ring, president of the Club, and by Col. Edward Martin, Commissioner of Health of Pennsylvania, representing Governor Wm. C. Sproul. Responses were made by Sir St. Clair Thomson for England, Professor Le Maitre for France, and Senator Owen for America. A dinner to the guests of honor at the Union League by Dr. Ring preceded the reception.

MISCELLANEOUS.

We hope shortly to publish a complete list of the ophthalmologists in the Reserve Corps, with their active M. C. and inactive ranks.

Dr. Edward Van Cleve of New York states that forty-four state, private, and public school classes for the blind in ten cities of the United States enroll about 6,000 pupils.

Through the efforts of Dr. Jacob Bolotin, a blind heart and lung specialist of Chicago, a massage class has been organized consisting of six men and two women, selected from a large group of blind people.

The I. C. Railroad Hospital at Paducah, Kentucky, with an especially equipped operating room for eye, ear, nose and throat, and built at an expense of three hundred thousand dollars, will be completed about August first.

Dr. Frank Allport and Dr. James R. Smith of Chicago have had Hardy and Company make a very simple pair of spectacles for the detection of malingering. It consists in a plano lens on one side and a strong convex lens on the other. The frame has straight temples and a reversible nose piece.

The Court of Appeals of Kentucky reverses a judgment that affirmed an award of the Compensation Board for the loss of an eyeball the same as for the loss of sight of one eye. The Court considers that the loss of the eyeball is greater than the loss of sight of an eye and is entitled to more compensation.

Volume 1, Number 1, of Better Eyesight, edited by Dr. W. H. Bates of New York, is on our desk. Words fail us when an attempt is made to comment upon it. It is probable that it will have a following and that its teachings will find a receptive soil among people who dislike to wear glasses; but we are at a loss to understand upon what scientific basis an excuse for its existence can be offered.

An editorial in a recent number of the New York Medical Journal emphasizes to the medical profession at large the importance of recognizing the intimate relationship of ophthalmology to internal medicine. The article was inspired by listening to some papers which were read in the Ophthalmic Section of the Atlantic City meeting of the A. M. A.

The report of the Illinois Society for the Prevention of Blindness for February, March, April and May, shows that three doctors and one midwife were brought to trial for failure to report infection of the eyes of infants. Thirty-eight cases of ophthalmia neonatorum were reported to the Society. Twelve of these cases were referred to the Visiting Nurses' Association, twelve were taken to hospitals and two to a dispensary. Sixty-three cases of school-children with defective vision were referred to the Society. In fifty-one cases payment for glasses was made from the Lois Maxine Adler Fund. Twenty-eight other cases were referred to the Society with various eye defects.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Brailey, A. R. Examinations of Aviators. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 433-434.

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Ophthalmic Examining Instruments. (18 ill.) Zeitschr. f. Ophth. Optik, v. 3, pp. 83-90, 120-122; v. 4, 122-124, 154-160, 187-189.

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Wolffberg. Diagnostic Visual Tests. (1 ill.) Woch. f. Therap. u. Hyg. des Auges, v. 18, pp. 159-160.

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Onate, A. F. Cocain in Eye, Ear, Nose, and Throat Work. Rev. d. med. y. cir. Habaña, v. 23, p. 585.

Piesbergen, F., and Weiss, K. E. Strychnin in Ophthalmology. Woch. f. Therap. u. Hyg. des Auges, v. 20, p. 174.

Wolffberg. Dionin in Ophthalmology. Woch. f. Therap. u. Hyg. des Auges, v. 21, pp. 81-85.

Ocular Dressings. Woch. f. Therap. u. Hyg. des Auges, v. 21, pp. 209-210.

Therapeutic Significance of Glycerin-Tragacanth-Jelly. Woch. f. Therap. u. Hyg. des Auges, v. 19, pp. 61-63.

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OPERATIONS.

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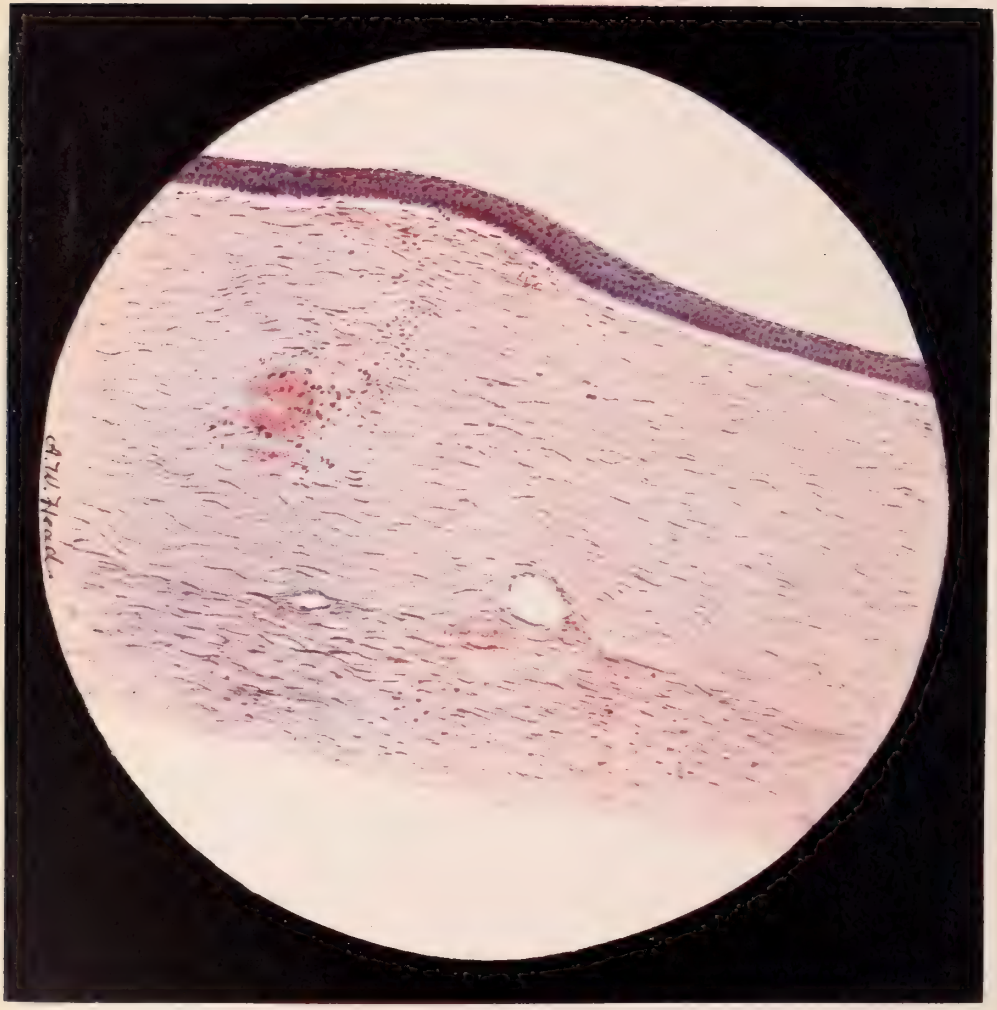
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BLOOD STAINING OF THE CORNEA: X100
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OBSERVATIONS OF BLOOD STAINING OF THE CORNEA.

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This report, from the Pathologist of the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital, gives an account of four cases seen at that institution, and especially of the microscopic findings in three of the eyes, which required enucleation.

Blood-staining of the cornea was first described by Baumgarten[1] in 1883. It is a discoloration of the cornea resulting from the presence of blood cells in the anterior chamber, which in the majority of cases results from an injury, with or without penetration of the globe, altho it has been known to appear spontaneously after an intraocular hemorrhage in buphthalmos.

The time at which the phenomenon manifests itself clinically, varies from a few days to a few months—its duration may extend over months or even years.

It can be readily understood that it is a comparatively rare condition, when one considers the number of cases with eye injuries seen in ophthalmic practice. According to Römer[2] it occurred in one case out of 400 severe injuries at the Giessen Clinic. At the Moorfields' Clinic it has been observed in about the same proportion. Treacher Collins[3] saw 9 cases in 3 years.

There is some diversity of opinion as to what the coloring matter is and as to how it gains access to the cornea. Treacher Collins,[4] in his series of cases, considers the discoloration due to fluid passing thru Descemet's membrane by a process of diffusion and depositing hematoidin crystals in the corneal stroma, associated in some cases with hemosiderin. Weeks[5] is of the opinion that the pigment enters the cornea thru the spaces of Fontana in the soluble form of hemoglobin, and is there transformed into a salt insoluble in the fluids of the cornea. Vossius[6] thought there was direct hemorrhage into the corneal substance, the blood coming from the vessels at the limbus. Baumgarten regarded the refractile bodies, causing the discoloration, as microorganisms. Von Hippel[7] and Leber[8] as fibrin coagula. Römer as globulin masses—he at any rate, proved they were not fibrin by the use of Weigert's stain. Gutmann[9] showed they were not globulin by the fact that they were not acted upon by trypsin.

The refractile bodies are seen principally in the stroma. They vary in size and shape, but are usually rounded or oval. They average approximately 1.5 to 4 microns in diameter. They may be rod-shaped. With hematoxylin-eosin and Mallory's stain, they appear red. Van Gieson's stain gives them an orange color.

It has been demonstrated that hemoglobin is insoluble in water, alcohol, ether, xylol, chloroform, acetic acid, dilute mineral acids and weak alkalies.

Lyle,[10] Manual of Physiology, 1911, page 263, states, "Hematoidin forms flat lozenge-shaped crystals, and is found in the neighborhood of old blood clots, or hemorrhages which have occurred in the body, particularly in the brain or the lungs. It gives no absorption bands with the spectrum, and is iron free."

Case 1.—Morris D., aged 14 years. had the left eye needled four times at the London Hospital, the last being on May 12, 1908. In March, 1911, the eye became inflamed and painful, and on admission to Moorfields Hospital a

month later, the cornea was found to be hazy, the ciliary vessels injected, and the anterior chamber full of blood. Vision equaled light perception with faulty projection. Tension = minus 1. The eye was enucleated and on pathologic examination, the haziness of the cornea was found to be due to blood staining of the corneal stroma.

Case 2.—William C., aged 43 years. was admitted September 12, 1913, under Mr. Hepburn, with a history of having been struck in the left eye by a piece of iron the day previous. The cornea showed a penetrating injury with iris prolapsed. The anterior chamber was full of blood. Vision equaled hand movements. Tension, minus. The Haab magnet proved negative. The patient was discharged in December and attended the outpatient clinic at regular intervals, vision now being 2/60. The hyphema had become absorbed and a small hypopyon occupied its place. On the 24th of December of the same year a fresh hyphema appeared and the tension became plus 1. January 23, 1914, the cornea showed extensive blood staining. The vision was reduced to fingers and the eye was very painful. The pain continued in spite of treatment and the eye was enucleated on February 7th, 1914. Right eye is normal. Vision equals 6/6.

Pathologic Report.—A healed scar is present in the center of the cornea. Bowman's membrane is intact and normal. The stroma shows dark, small, yellow granules, which are rounded and oval for the most part. These granules lie upon the fibers and between the corneal spaces. Descemet's membrane is not invaded. The anterior chamber contains laminated connective tissue, which is vascularized. Pigment cells are scattered about in this connective tissue. The iris shows atrophic changes and lies in contact with the cornea at places. The lens is forward. Choroid normal. The retina is not very atrophic. Optic nerve is cupped.

Case 3.—Emily H., aged 10 years, was admitted to Moorfields Hospital, January 2, 1915, under Mr. Hepburn, with a penetrating injury at the temporal side of the limbus of her right eye, the result of a blow with a stick. On admission vitreous was in the wound and the anterior chamber was full of blood. Tension, minus. Vision reduced to hand movements. A conjunctival flap was stitched over the wound and some vitreous escaped during the operation. On the 16th of January it was first noted that the cornea was blood stained. The hyphema was now disappearing, but no details were yet visible of the deeper structures. The eye became painful and was enucleated on February 2nd, 1915. L. eye normal. Vision equaled 6/6.

Pathologic Report.—Only the cornea was embedded. The epithelium is edematous. Bowman's membrane contains fine granules. These granules are coarse and predominate in the anterior part of the stroma. Some are rod-shaped but the majority are rounded and oval. Posteriorly, the granules are dustlike. The endothelial cells on the posterior surface show vacuolation opposite the area that is blood stained. The granules take the eosin stain.

Case 4.—Thomas D., aged 33 years, gunner, 65th R. G. A. Regiment, was in a gas attack for several hours on September 5th, 1918, from which time his eye trouble dates. He was treated at a base hospital in France after the attack with lotion and drops until October 8th, when he was sent to England. On October 10th he was admitted to Moorfields Hospital under Mr. Spicer. Examination at this time showed a burn of the conjunctiva below the cornea with marked conjunctival and ciliary injection. In the substance of the cornea was an area that was dark red in color, measuring about 6 mm. in diameter and occupying the lower and central part. Vision equaled light perception with faulty projection. Tension, minus. Not very painful. Right eye enucleated October 15th, 1918. Left normal, V. = 6/6.

Pathologic Report.—Macroscopic—The globe measures about 23.5 by 23 by 23 mm. The entire cornea is hazy and tends to bulge forward. A me-

ridianal section shows the iris to be adherent to the posterior surface of the cornea. Blood clot in anterior chamber. Lens in situ. An exudate fills the vitreous. The retina is not detached. Optic nerve looks normal.

After staining the sections with hematoxylin-eosin and Mallory's stain, the cornea was reembedded and paraffin sections cut.

Microscopic—At the limbus corneae are seen many degenerated blood cells. The cornea is about normal in diameter. In contour it tends to form an anterior staphyloma. The epithelial layers are regular and enclose a mass of blood cells near the periphery. Thruout the stroma are seen areas of blood corpuscles. Small, dark colored, refractile bodies are also present, measuring about 2 microns in diameter on the average. These bodies are rounded and oval and take the eosin stain. Bowman's membrane and the rest of the cornea show nothing pathologic. The iris at the periphery is adherent to the posterior corneal surface. A few small hemorrhages are present in the iris stroma. The vessels are filled with blood. The pigment epithelium on the post-surface is uneven and in many places heaped into clumps. No atrophy or cell infiltration. The ciliary body shows the pigment epithelium covering the processes to be undergoing atrophic changes. The vitreous contains a mass of faintly staining cells and debris, the individual cells being difficult to describe on account of degenerative changes. The retina is not very atrophic and is not cystic anteriorly. The optic nerve is not cupped. Left eye normal. Vision 6/6.

In case 4, I dissolved the paraffin from the sections with xylol and placed them in the dark for ten days in undiluted peroxid without, however, affecting the refractile bodies.

CONCLUSIONS.

1. The highly refractile bodies seen in the corneal stroma in cases of blood-staining of the cornea are pigment granules transformed from hemoglobin.

2. Hemoglobin gains access to the cornea by diffusion thru Descemet's membrane.

3. The discoloration is due principally to the pigment granules altho blood corpuscles may be associated as shown by the plate. The degree of the discoloration varies according to whether hemosiderin or other hemoglobin derivatives are present.

4. The staining never affects the extreme periphery on account of the efficient lymph circulation at the limbus, nor do we find pigment granules in this area.

5. The presence of an iron reaction seems to depend on the vascularization of the tissue.

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THE X-RAY TREATMENT OF RETINAL GLIOMA.

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This paper reports three cases of glioma of the retina treated with X-rays and radium. In each case the ocular growth was checked, and the eyeball became shrunken; but metastases occurred causing death. The autopsy findings with microscopic examination in one case include a metastasis to the pancreas.

The fact that in a boy suffering from glioma of both eyes and subjected to X-ray treatment, the tumor-tissue had considerably shrunk after several exposures, was reported at length by Professor Komoto and myself at the General Congress of the Japanese Ophthalmological Society, in April, 1917. Since then, two other similar cases have been treated in the same way, but with radium radiations added to insure success. After one year, in all these three cases, a contraction of both eyeballs was witnessed, together with the shrinking of the gliomas.

Axenfeld has expressed himself on this point thus: "The action of radiotherapy is an elective one. It destroys the tumor but leaves the normal tissue undisturbed, as far as can be determined clinically." Altho our cases went on to phthisis bulbi, we were led to imagine at least that we could save the lives of the patients; and so we reported the cases, and continued the treatment.

But, during 1918, all three boy patients met with similar lamentable catastrophes. One began to suffer from meningitis, the second developed metastatic nodules thruout his body, and both these cases terminated in death. The third patient was attacked with metastatic tumors in the parietal region, and he too, died. Altho we were not wholly without fear of some such fatal result, our attention was focused upon the contraction of the eyeballs and involution of the primary tumors, so that, exulting in the local destructive power of the Roentgen rays and hoping to save lives of the patients we did not anticipate the eventful development of the metastatic tumors. The fact that phthisis bulbi may result from the use of X-rays has not yet been recorded by any authority.

This being the case, we hasten to report on the sad outcome as a corrective to our former too hopeful report. As a preliminary let us first of all sketch briefly the pathologic history of each case.

Case 1. A. H. aged one year and two months; both eyes suffering from retinal glioma in the second stage. Consulted us for the first time on September 12, 1916. Both eyes apparently sound externally, but on examination the pupils somewhat dilated; yellowish white tumor mass, on the surface of which retinal blood-vessels are visible; intraocular tension increased; altogether exhibiting the aspect of the amaurotic "cat's eye."

At first X-rays alone were applied, and shrinking of the tumors was observed; but exposure to the rays produced an erythema with edema at times. Therefore, after April, 1917, the frequency of the exposures to the X-rays was lessened and radium (0.99 gr.) was applied to each eye twice a week.

On the 8th of November, 1917, the eyelids were thickened, the eyelashes had all fallen out, and the conjunctiva was injected. The cornea was hazy, the aqueous humor had a reddish hemorrhagic appearance, the pupils and iris were obscure, the intraocular tension reduced. The eyeballs were contracted into the condition of phthisis bulbi, and sunk deep in the sockets. X-rays applied up to that date amounted to 486 H. (Holzknecht's units), while radium had been applied to each eye for one hour, in all 40 times.

This state of things continued to the end of January, 1918, when the patient was found sick, nauseated, and emaciated.

February 2, 1918. We took away a small quantity of clear spinal fluid by means of lumbar puncture.

February 7. Lumbar puncture again; but vomiting did not cease, and he died on February 18th.

The total duration of the treatment was one year and seven months. Exposures to X-rays, 93; quantity 645 .5 H; to right eye, 617 H., and to left eye, 584 .5 H.

The method of application of the X-rays was as follows: From the front on each eye 5-10 minutes every time, focus-skin distance 20 cm., hardness of tube 4-7 W., thickness of the aluminum filter 1.5-30 mm., thus total dose of X-rays 5-8 H. every time.

SUMMARY:—In this case all the eyelids were inflamed from exposure to the X-rays, and the eyelashes fell out. The cornea became hazy, the anterior chamber hemorrhagic. Phthisis bulbi developed. Finally after eighteen months from the beginning of the treatment the patient died with symptoms of meningitis.



Fig. 1. Case 2, after ten months X-ray treatment, eyeballs contracted and sunken, lid margins macerated. Metastatic nodes in forehead. Right parotid region swollen.

CASE 2. Y. K., a girl, 6 months old; retinal glioma of both eyes. First consulted us April 14, 1917. According to her mother, the child began to see with one eye only about September 1916. About January, 1917, she presented a "cat's eye" reflex from her right eye. From about February, 1917, her left eye showed a similar reflex. On examination both eyes exhibited the typical aspect of the amaurotic "cat's eye." Pupils somewhat dilated.

White uneven tumor-mass seen thru the pupil, bloodvessels running over the tumor mass; intraocular tension rather lowered.

X-rays and radium rays applied together.

June 15, eyelids became thickened; eyelashes fell out; conjunctiva injected. The tumor-tissue in the eye broken up, course of blood-vessels obscured.

July 14. External aspects the same, parenchyma of the cornea generally hazy. Both eyeballs somewhat phthisical.

August 29. Haziness of the right cornea increased; iris and pupil altogether obscured; the left eye appeared red, from bleeding in anterior chamber.

November 8. General aspects almost the same, the phthisis bulbi more marked.

X-rays applied to each eye, in all 30 times, to the total of 464 H.—Radium rays applied to each eye 30 times for one hour each time.

January 16, 1918. Right parotid region showed an elastic nodule about the size of a dove's egg, movable with the skin.

February 16. On the right forehead a chestnut-sized nodule was noticed, about the hardness of cartilage, movable with the skin. The nodule in the parotid region gradually enlarged covering the region of the cheek forward, extending over the cervical region backward, and stretching the skin.

February 18. A subcutaneous nodule was discovered in the right temporal region about the size of a dove's egg.

February 25. X-rays were applied to the above mentioned nodules. The tumors in the right parotid region shrank considerably, and nodules in the right temporal region disappeared; but the hard nodule on the right forehead grew larger and larger, reaching about the size of a bantam hen's egg. (Fig. 1.)

March 2. The application of X-rays to the nodules on the face was continued, and the hard one on the right frontal region almost disappeared, while the tumors in the right parotid region shrank to the size of a hen's egg. But two hard nodules were found in the inguinal region about the size of a finger tip and several hard nodules were felt under the abdominal wall from the size of an ordinary bean to that of a horse bean.

March 8. Both eyeballs greatly shrunken; eyelids inflamed from X-ray burns. Appetite lost, debility increasing. The patient died on the 12th of March after a night of delirium.

Her treatment continued for eleven months. X-rays were applied to each eye 46 times; for the right eye 296.5 H., and for the left eye 311.5 H. To the nodules in the right parotid region 10 times, 120 H., to those in the abdominal region, once, 8 H.

The method of application of X-rays to the eyeballs was the same as in the preceding case.

SUMMARY:—In this case, the eyelids were inflamed from the use of the X-rays, and the eyelashes fell out. The cornea became hazy, the anterior chamber hemorrhage. Phthisis bulbi developed as in the preceding case. But in the present case, metastatic tumors broke out in the frontal right temporal and right parotid regions, under the abdominal wall, and in the inguinal region. The patient died debilitated.

CASE 3. M. I., aged 5 months. Retinal glioma of both eyes in the second stage. January 28, 1916, consulted for the first time. Good physique and nutrition. But both eyes exhibited an appearance of "cat's eye." Pupils dilated. Intraocular pressure raised. In each eye, three large tumors are observed in contact with each other in the vitreous humor. In the right eye there were two large tumors, one above the other, and between them a nebulous tumor mass intervened. In the left eye, three similar tumors were in contact with one another by their margins, one being situated above the other with the third at their side. In both eyes, the blood vessels on the surface of these tumors ran as in healthy retinas.

February 23. Exposures to X-rays, three times, quantity 16 H. in all. Intraocular pressure somewhat lowered; retinal glioma considerably disintegrated, even to transparency, and

nebulous tumor-mass greatly shrunken. Retinal glioma in left eye also somewhat shrunken.

May 23. Of the tumors in the right eye, the upper one and side one were all greatly shrunken and unless examined in the dark room, could not be made out; and only the lowest one remained. The big tumors one above another in the left eye, tended toward transparency, and their tumor-tissue appeared to be destroyed.

April 24, 1917. From this date radium (0.99 gr.) as well as the X-rays was applied once or twice a week for one hour.

November 8, 1917. The eyelids of both eyes thickened somewhat, eyelashes all fallen out. Eyelids, conjunctiva, and iris all congested. Around the pupil, on the iris margin, an irregular pigment ring had formed, presenting an ectropion of the pigment layer at the iris margin. Beyond the pupil, yellow tumor tissue was visible in the vitreous humor. The eyeball tended toward phthisical shrinking.

November 15, 1917. In the right eye, on the surface of the cornea, a blood vessel 1.5 mm. in diameter, is seen running up and in.

November 20. Around the blood vessels running obliquely on the surface of the right cornea, a parenchymatous haze was perceived.

December 8. The blood vessel running obliquely on the surface of the right cornea has already changed into a white line; and the infiltration round the blood vessel has become more extensive, causing parenchymatous haze, so that the anterior chamber and iris are completely obscured.

February 2, 1918. The middle of the right cornea gradually degenerated and shriveled, so that its tissue was broken, and perforated, to discharge a yellow mucoid matter. The left eye remained in the state of phthisis bulbi.

February 20. The perforation of the right cornea closed by the growth of surrounding tissue; but the cornea showed the signs of phthisis corneae.

February 25. The right eye gradually protruded, remaining in a shriveled condition. The eyelids and skin were tense and painful, and the debility being more and more marked, the right eyeball was enucleated.

March 9. In the right parietal region a hard nodule was felt about the size of a sparrow egg, and the debility increased. Both eyelids showed red spots from burning by X-rays, and the lid margins were greatly macerated.

March 30. The tumors in the parietal region had gradually enlarged to the size of a dove's egg.

April 14, 1918. The patient died.

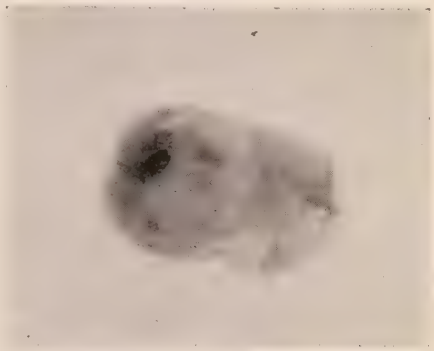


Fig. 2. Röntgenogram; enucleated eye from Case 3. Extension tumor continuous with globe has broken through the sclera posteriorly. Calcified lens and vitreous cause dark shadow.

The method of application of the Roentgen rays was the same as in the two preceding cases.

Inspection of Enucleated Eyeball:—The eyeball was in a shriveled condition, but had a white tumor mass of equal size attached to it, the whole measuring 30 mm. in length, and 20 mm. in breadth. The whole cornea was hazy, with a depression in the center, the edges of which were tinged with yellow.

Skiagraph of Enucleated Eyeball:—During section of the enucleated eyeball for pathologic study, the microtome knife grated on something. Suspecting a calcareous change we took a radiograph. In the region of the lens, a dense oval shadow is visible, while in the back part of the vitreous humor, one or two small dense shadows can be seen. (Fig. 2.)

Pathologic Study of Enucleated Eyeball:—The celloidin was dissolved away, the eyeball was thoroly decalcified by means of a 5 per cent solution of nitric

acid, the eye again embedded in celloidin, and serial sections made.

The cornea is perforated in the middle, the edges of the perforation being considerably thickened, and is much infiltrated by round cells. The sclera is generally thickened, and at the horizontal plane in the middle of the eyeball, the thickest part reaches 2 mm.

The tissue of the eyeball is generally loose and rarified especially in the part in contact with the tumors that remain attached to the back part of the eyeball. Here, in two or three places, perforations tissue, three times as thick as the sclera.

The retina is wholly replaced by the tumor tissue.

The calcified crystalline lens has lost its form in the process of calcification, while the vitreous humor is filled with tumor tissue, with the exception of empty spaces in the decalcified structure. The tumor tissue within the eyeball is loose, rich in blood vessels, hemorrhagic at the center and here and there degenerated.

The tumor tissue at the back of the eyeball is very compact, being formed of densely packed round cells with scarcely

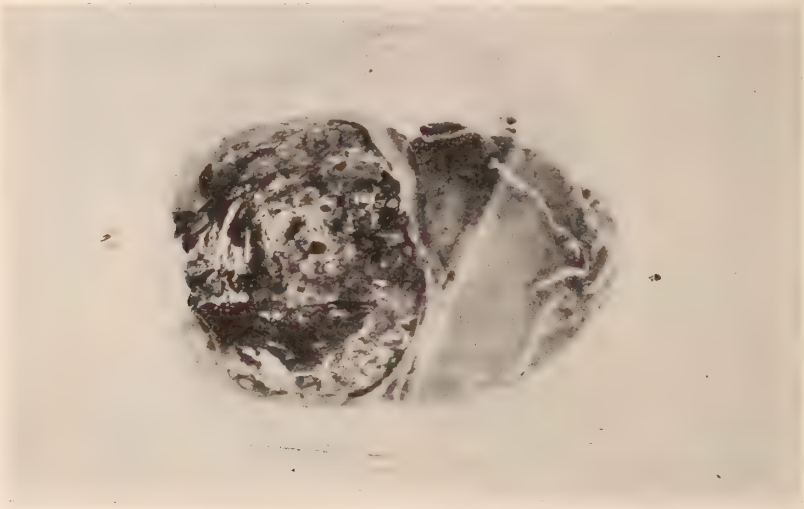


Fig. 3. Magnified photograph of enucleated eyeball, section.

exist; these being occupied by tumor tissue which connects the tumors within the eyeball with the tumor tissue behind the eyeball. That is, the tumors within the ball, perforating the sclera, have formed a large metastatic tumor mass beyond the ball.

The iris is thickened and infiltrated with round cells, and a part of it is in intimate relation with the perforated region above described. The ciliary body is generally loose and rarified, and is swollen. The choroid is detached from the sclera on the nasal side, and the space between them is filled up with a considerable amount of exudate staining red with eosin. Behind the equator of the eyeball the choroidal tissue is infiltrated thruout with loose tumor visible protoplasmic substance; almost no trace of the fibrous tissue is discernible there. Tho rich in blood vessels, and having degenerated spots, as in the tumor tissue within the eyeball, it shows no hemorrhagic center, thus resembling sarcoma.

This patient was, with the consent of his father, brought to autopsy, which revealed metastatic tumors in the bones of the cranium, the dura mater, the liver itself and the pancreas.

The report on the autopsy will be given later.

SUMMARY:—The retinal glioma in both eyes was greatly reduced in size by exposure to the X-rays; but this treatment produced such complications as the reddening and thickening of the eyelids,

maceration of the margins of the eyelids, falling out of the eyelashes, perforation of the cornea, and shrinking of both of the eyeballs. Metastasis of the glioma to the cranium, dura mater, liver and pancreas led to the patient's death after treatment for two years and three months. The right eyeball proptosed by the metastatic tumors in the orbit, was enucleated and the crystalline lens was found to be undergoing calcification.

General Considerations.

The three cases treated with X-rays and radium, all were suffering from retinal glioma in its second stage.

In consequence of the application to them of X-rays and radium, the tumors themselves shrank, but at the same time the eyeballs underwent a similar change. One patient developed signs of meningitis, the second had metastatic tumors in the frontal and temporal regions, and the third (the autopsied one), had similar metastatic tumors in his cranium, as well as the internal organs, and all three cases terminated in death. The shrinking of the tumors in the eyes took place in a striking manner after a few exposures to the X-rays, but the phthisis bulbi took at the shortest 7 months, and at the longest two years. From the time in which the phthisis bulbi was first noticed until death occurred the course was rather rapid, from three to five months only. From the discovery of the metastatic tumors to the time of death the interval was very short; in the second case, 2 months, and in the third case only 1 month. The interval between the commencement of treatment and death was, the shortest 11 months, and the longest 2 years.

According to our experience, our mode of application of the X-rays could not prevent the growth of metastatic tumors. The X-rays, vigorously used, would destroy the tissue of all morbid tumors; but, if weak, might on the contrary stimulate the growth of such tumors.

If, with retinal glioma in both eyes, one eye only be thus vigorously treated, the other eye remaining untouched, may not the malignancy of the untreated tumor become enhanced by more rapid extension along the optic nerve, thru the sclera, or by general metastasis?

Axenfeld had a patient whose one eye had already been enucleated and to whose remaining eye, in which three small retinal gliomas were found, he applied the X-rays. On this patient Axenfeld reported three times. The first report[1] says: He began to treat the patient in 1914, and treatment continued for months; the quantity of X-rays applied being 3,385 Kienboeck units. The tumors shrank considerably and the sight was partially recovered. The second report[2] says: In January, 1915, 8 months after the first report, the smallest of the tumors was almost wholly absorbed, only leaving a grayish green spot on the retina. The middle-sized tumor below the macula lutea, also, was almost absorbed, while a white streak formerly present disappeared, leaving only a grayish white haze. The biggest of the tumors was not yet absorbed, tho considerably shrunken. Thruout the normal tissue, no disturbance was observed and the patient was mentally and physically sound. As to X-ray treatment, he goes a step further to say: "In all events, we wish to recommend that in future cases the amaurotic eye be not X-rayed, but enucleated, for the avoidance of diagnostic errors, in order to free the body of the prolific metastasis in the most logical manner. In beginning glioma to prevent a similar growth in the other eye, or to prevent later stages and recurrences in the event of improper use of the X-rays, the therapy may be used."

His third report was a paper delivered before the Ophthalmological Society in Heidelberg, which M. Patry has summarized in the Annales d'Oculistique[3] as follows: "The subsidence of the tumor, due to radiotherapy, continued. In the fall of 1915 a cataract developed. The patient, a child of 3 years, was operated upon in the spring of 1916; this was attended by a return of vision. For six months a state analogous to blindness by blepharospasm was produced, but the child actually saw. Will this improvement last? The child is normally developed both intellectually and physically. The still-

growing lens had not been able to withstand the strong rays. But this is not a contraindication to the treatment. Radiotherapy is not preferable to enucleation, except in the second eye and when vision is not too greatly diminished."

In short, Axenfeld does not unconditionally approve the application of the X-rays to the treatment of retinal glioma. He says only: "When the visual power has not yet greatly diminished, or when the enucleation is refused; or in cases of later stages or relapse, its application is proper and justified.

But in his third report, Axenfeld, it seems, says nothing about the largest tumor, which had not been absorbed at the time of his second report. The great world war has prevented us from hearing from him for a long time. So the prognosis at least must be deemed still uncertain. In other words, his observation is not completed.

At any rate he asserted that two of his three tumors had been completely absorbed. Let us compare our cases with his. Was his success in the application of the X-rays due to the fact that his patient was in the first stage, and the tumor tissue very rudimentary? Or to the circumstance that his patient had had one eye already enucleated, and he had only to do with the remaining eye? Then let us consider that in our cases the patients were in the second stage, and the tumor tissue considerably developed, besides being dual; so that, tho on one side the rays acted destructively, on the other side they must have worked constructively, to help on the growth of metastatic tumor tissues. In our cases, might it not have been better and more effective if we had applied the rays simultaneously to both eyes, by means of a large, hard tube and a very thick filter; or to both eyes simultaneously but separately each from the temporal side, by means of two tubes?

Now I desire to state my conclusions with respect to the X-ray therapy based wholly on my personal experience.

Conclusions.

1. The X-rays should only be applied when retinal glioma is bilateral and the parents of the patient refuse to have one eye enucleated. In such cases the rays should be applied to both eyes jointly or severally by means of a big tube or two tubes both from the front as well as from the temporal regions.

2. After enucleation of the eyeball, when retinal glioma is unilateral, the X-rays may with great advantage be applied in order to prevent recurrence of the glioma.

3. Against retinal glioma in the last stage, or a relapse, the X-rays can prevent the local growth of the tumor; but it is impossible to save the patient's life by preventing the growth of metastatic tumors.

4. Axenfeld's statement, "After the enucleation of one eyeball, if a retinal glioma be found in the remaining eye, and that be in the first stage, and the visual power be perfect, exposure to X-rays may be tried with good results," cannot be accepted as established, until the final report is made on his patient's three tumors. For while one of them still remained unabsorbed, who can say that it would not undergo a metastasis in the future?

5. The tube employed in applying the X-rays should be very hard, and the filter must be very thick.

The Effect of Roentgen Rays on Human Eyes.

We employed a very thick aluminum filter (1.5 — 3. mm. thick), in applying the X-rays, but the frequency of application finally induced the thickening and reddening of the eyelids, maceration of the lid margins, falling out of the eyelashes, haziness and necrosis of the cornea, phthisis bulbi, and calcification of the crystalline lens.

Some of these have already been noticed by other observers before; thus Chalupecky[4] applied the rays to his patient for 24 hours (16 times in 27 days) and produced haziness of the cornea, and burning of his eyeballs. Birch-Hirschfeld[5] perceived, after 42 days, degeneration of the corneal surface and

transformation of the cells of the optic nerves; and Triboudeau and Lafargue[6] observed inflammation and ulceration of the conjunctiva and cornea, and also the inflammation of the iris. But no one has yet recorded, as we now do, phthisis bulbi and calcification of the crystalline lens. This a mature rabbit, and found that in the former the X-rays interfered with the growth of the iris pigment, induced cataract formation, moreover the eyeballs became stunted, and the retina formed folds or wrinkles.

Von Hippel[8] applied X-rays to the abdomen of a pregnant rabbit, and the

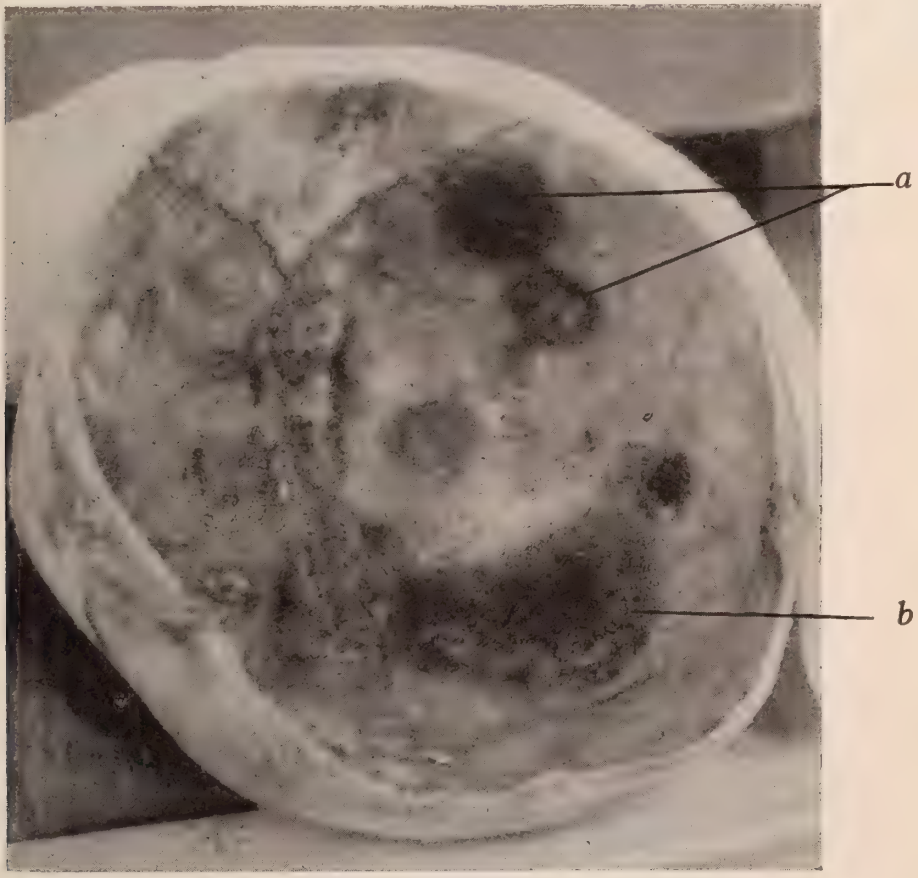


Fig. 4. Interior of cranium, Case 3. Small metastatic tumors, (a) the largest, (b) breaking thru the bony wall.

may be owing to the fact that their experiments did not continue so long as ours; the quantity of X-rays they used was much less than ours. Our prolonged treatments, and the great quantity of rays employed, no doubt afforded us this opportunity.

There remains one more interesting problem. That is the effect of X-rays upon the growing eye. Triboudeau and Belley[7] conducted a comparative experiment on a new-born rabbit and new-born offspring all suffered from congenital cataract. In Axenfeld's third report we see a similar effect on his child patient. It is plain that the X-rays exert a deleterious influence on the crystalline lens of the growing eye. Thus we are justified in inferring that the phthisis bulbi and calcification of the lens observed by us were chiefly due to the fact that our patients were very young and in the growing period, and further to the cumulative action of

the rays. Axenfeld added this remark at the end of his paper: "We regard our observations as only a single foundation stone for the whole question." We are glad that we too are able to contribute two or three stones to the foundation of this important problem.

enucleation, a large quantity of radium (from 50 to 125 mgms.), was applied in order to prevent a recurrence of the tumor, no sign of which was observable after eighteen months.

The second case was one in which a recurrence was observed in the orbital



Fig. 5. Base of skull with dura mater; deep red metastatic tumors (m) between cranium and dura in temporal region.

Sincerest thanks are offered to Prof. Komoto, who kindly placed these important cases at my disposal. I offer also my warmest thanks to Dr. Iwazaki, the head of our X-ray department, who ably managed the application of the rays.

[After I finished writing this article, I saw a report of three cases of retinal glioma to which radium was applied by Dr. Rex Duncan.[9]

The first case was one in which, after

cavity 5 months after enucleation; but the recurrent tumor shrunk considerably three weeks after the application of 110 mgms. of radium.

The third and last case was one in which, after enucleation, a small recurrent tumor was noticed in the central part of the orbit, a little to the nasal side; and after application of a tube containing 50 to 110 mgms. of radium, the tumor was speedily absorbed.

From this Dr. Duncan concludes that a retinal glioma may be cured without recurrence if enucleation is done early, and radium applied with a view to prevent its recurrence. Moreover, he has observed the efficacy of radium treatment even in cases where gliomatous tumors had recurred.

We are happy to state that this view, which recognizes the efficacy of radium application for preventing a recurrence, well accords with our views already expressed in the body of this essay.

But the "efficacy" of radium treatment refers apparently to the successful absorption of the recurrent tumors, altho not many months have yet elapsed since the absorptions referred to in Dr. Duncan's reports. The absorption or shrinking of the recurrent tumor in the second case only took place in November, 1917, and that in the third case occurred in June, 1917; so that he cannot yet positively deny metastatic transferences. Besides, we fear that the tumor cells in a recurrent case may not remain in the diseased spot alone.]

SUPPLEMENTARY OBSERVATIONS.

Report on Autopsy Findings: Third case, Makota Ishida. On the inside of the cranium are ten or more flat metastatic nodules, some large and some small, from the size of a pea to that of a hen's egg. These nodules are situated between the cranium and the dura mater, tho the inside of the dura mater is smooth, and there is no alteration in the tissues; only in the nodular portions, the tumor formations appear deep red. The dura mater is generally separable easily from the bone, but in the nodular parts, it adheres to the bone firmly, and when forcibly separated, a tearing sound is produced.



Fig. 6. Anterior cranial fossa with dura detached. Metastatic tumors (m) situated on surface of bone.

The smaller metastatic nodules are attached to the dura mater, and are easily torn away from the cranium, on the inner surface of which they leave mere depressions only (Fig 4, a). On the contrary, the large nodules break and leave tumor tissue attached to the cranium and dura mater. Of these nodules, the biggest one (Fig. 4, b), is situated in the right parietal region, and forms a longitudinally ovate sphere 9 by 5 mm. The tumors break thru the bony walls, and form dark-

blue-reddish eminences on the outer surface.

At the base of the cranium are visible small nodular formations, presenting deep red tumors in the roof of each orbital cavity, and between the cranium and the dura mater; these tumors run along the right temporal region up toward the parietal region. (Fig. 6, m.) Further, when the dura mater of the base of the cranium is torn off, a number of deep red metastatic nodules running out from the orbit are observed. (Fig. 5, m.) The brain and the pia mater are normal and do not show any metastatic nodules.

As for the liver, a portal lymph gland of the liver was swelled to the size of a pea, while the surface of the section showed a deep red tinge. A deep red tumor as big as a hen's egg was prominently visible on the surface of the right lobe of the liver. The surface of the left lobe of the liver looked normal, but the cut surface showed a bisected deep red tumor about 5 mm. in diameter. The tumor, being soft, and a little swollen, was clearly distinguished from the liver tissue around it, which was deep red, sharply contrasted with the yellow section of the liver. Beside this several minor metastatic nodules were found. (Fig. 7, m.)

In the pancreas, too, a little nodule, about the size of a pea, was found at the head.

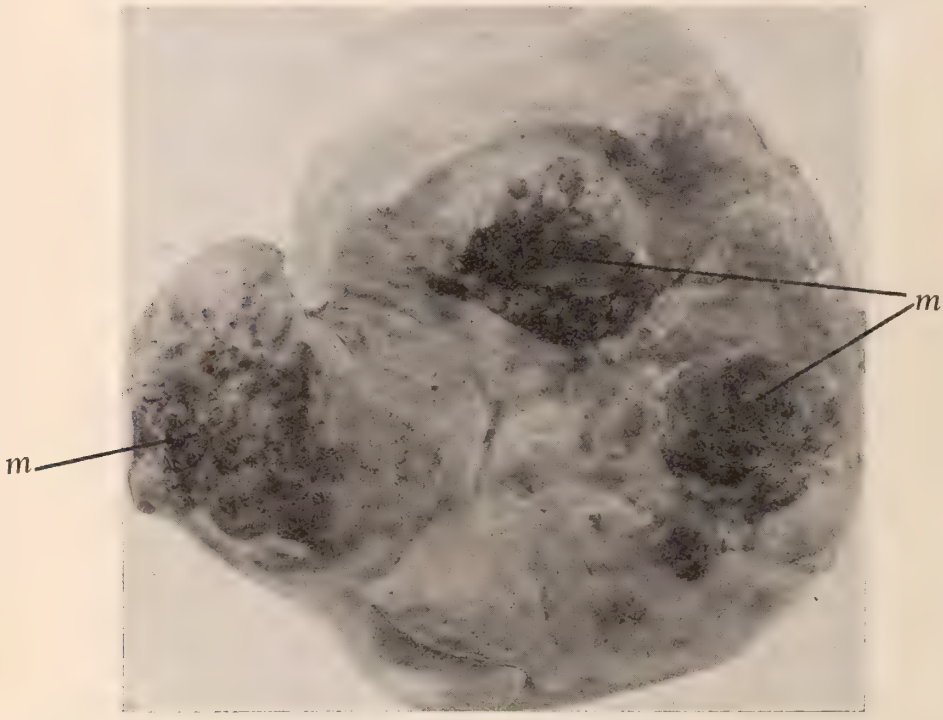


Fig. 7. Cut surface of liver, bisected deep red tumors (m) are prominent.

The lungs showed bronchitis, and the kidney parenchymatous cloudiness; but no metastatic nodules are found in either.

Microscopic Examination. The capsule of the portal gland of the liver (Figs. 8, t) is thickened, and in one part an infiltration of tumor cells is visible. As to the blood vessels of the capsule, some are filled with tumor tissue, and others with a few blood granules, while the parenchyma is mostly occupied by tumor cells, and severe hemorrhages.

With respect to the liver itself, in its normal portion (Figs. 8 and 9, l.),

the coloring of cell nuclei is insufficient, and a considerable fatty degeneration is apparent; and tho there is no proliferation of the intermediate substance, hepatic lobules reveal a hemorrhagic infarct; and the liver cell trabecula shows an appearance of collapse, tho there is no infiltration of round cells, or new formation of capillary bile tubes.

The tumors in the liver (Fig. 8 and 9, t.), consist almost wholly of glioma cells, and contain little glia fibers, but

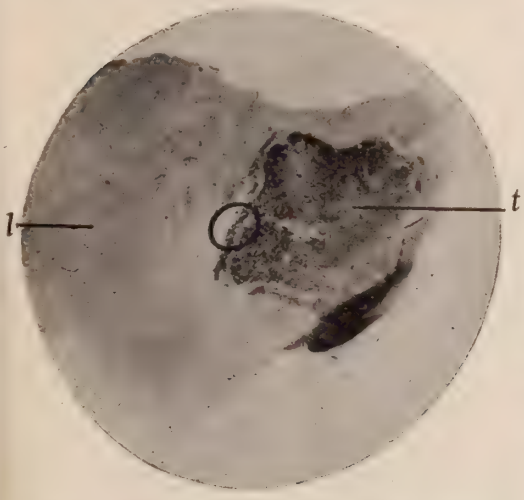


Fig. 8. Microscopic photograph of tumor tissue (t) with normal liver tissue (l). (Leitz oc. 1, obj. 3.)

no ganglionic cells. They are generally of a glandular composition, stained with hemorrhage in several places. In fine, these have the appearance of sarcoma.

In the normal portion of the pancreas (Fig. 10), the intermediate substance has proliferated, but no infiltration of cells is observed. The parenchyma, too, shows no infiltration, and the coloring of the cell-nuclei and the protoplasm is very good. The isles of Langerhans exhibit no special change. In the tumorous part (Fig. 10, t.), the intermediate substance is slight, while the tumors themselves present no glandular tissue, only tissue of a proliferating nature. In this metastatic transference there is severe hemorrhage.

In the liver, as well as the pancreas, the metastatic transferences show little or no infiltration of round cells, or degeneration thereof; on the contrary, they seem disunited.

PREVIOUS OBSERVATIONS.

In general, metastatic transferences of glioma in the head take place mostly in the brain and pia mater. Those that pass thru the bundle of optic nerves, settle in the substance of the brain; and those that go thru the optic disc, in the pia mater.

The former instances are far more numerous than the latter. They swell considerably about the chiasm and sella turcica, thereby overwhelming the adjacent tissues; or rise in the third ventricle, crushing the optic thalamus, or invade the temporal lobes, or the base of the brain, thus filling the greater part of the anterior and middle cranial fossae.

Instances of the latter are generally rare, as has been said above. Such metastatic transferences, when they reach the pia mater, infiltrate there, and usually form circumscribed metastatic seats, soft and flat.

In the present instance, the brain and pia mater were normal, without metastatic involvement.

Metastasis in the cranium is comparatively frequent, the tumors being flat and hemispheric, ranging from the size of cherries to that of the palm of the hand; and the path of transference is usually thru the diploe, some arising from the periosteum, and some from the dura mater. But in the last stage, all the tumors, regardless of their original connection, destroy the whole stratum of osseus formation, the dura mater also being broken thru. In the present case, the metastatic nodules are flat and hemispheric, ranging in size from a pea to a hen's egg. Smaller nodules have settled in the dura mater, medium sized nodules have depressed the inner surface of the skull bone, large nodules firmly attached themselves to the cranium while the biggest have infiltrated the whole osseus stratum, so that the condition is visible externally, showing that they have arisen from the dura mater.

2. *The metastasis in the liver.* Metastatic transferences of the glioma into

the liver are also very rare. The instances I have hitherto been able to study are only eight. All of them, however, are characteristic. Metastatic nodules are numerous, some small, and others large, ranging from the diameter of a pea to 5 or 8 mm. They are full of blood vessels, soft like marrow, mostly white, but in one or two instances, dark brownish red. In the present instance, many metastatic nodules are seen, both small and large, on the surface, and in sections, the largest measuring 5 mm.

According to Wintersteiner, the number of cases of metastatic transferences were: To the

Cranial and facial bones,	40 cases
Brain and pia mater,	43 cases
Lymphatic glands,	36 cases
Parotid glands,	9 cases
Bones of skeleton,	9 cases
The liver,	7 cases
Spinal cord and membrane,	5 cases
The kidney,	2 cases
The ovary,	2 cases
The lungs,	2 cases
The spleen,	1 case

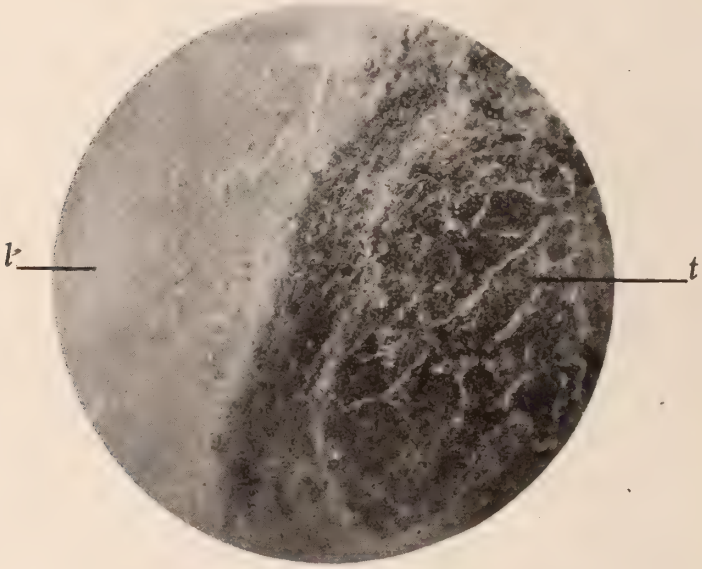


Fig. 9. Enlargement of Fig. 8. (Leitz oc. 1, obj. 7.)

The most extraordinary characteristic of this case, is the deep red color of the tumors, contrasted with the bright yellow tinge of the liver tissues around, enhanced by the fatty degeneration.

3. Finally as to the metastasis in the pancreas, this kind of metastatic transference is quite unprecedented, at least in the available literature. In the present instance, metastatic nodules are found on the upper surface, and microscopic inspection shows the same condition as in the liver.

Metastasis of glioma, in general, is rare, even in its best known form, namely: metastatic transferences into the brain, pia mater, cranium and facial bones.

I find also these further reports of such metastases: Lauber,[12] of the cranium, cervical lymphatic glands, and the lungs; Neese,[13] of the skull bones; Radoliffe[14] and Siegrist,[15] of the liver; Gardiner,[16] of the liver, cranial and facial bones, vertebral column, sternum, or pubis, ischium, cervical lymphatic glands, and testicles; Siegrist,[15] of the brain and pia mater; Kashiwabara,[17], under Prof. Dr. M. Inouye, of the skull bones, spinal cord, and lacrimal gland.

Of the three cases I have investigated, 2 were not dissected; but they showed clinically that one had metastatic nodules in the cranium, parotid glands, glands of the axilla, abdominal glands, the inguinal lymphatic glands.

The other no less clearly indicated transferrence in the pia mater.

Of these, Gardiner's observation on the testicles and Kashiwabara's on the lacrimal glands are new; to which may be added the present investigation on the pancreas.

CAUSE OF METASTATIC TRANSFERENCE.

Finally we must consider the cause of such metastasis. In the three cases we have investigated, all had these fatal transferences; but their cause is doubtful. We may surmise: As our case of retinal glioma was bilateral in its nature, its capability of growth was doubled. The cause might be inherent individuality, but the exposure to X-rays must, we fear, have contributed to the metastatic transference. The X-rays have, no doubt, destroyed the gliomatous tissue on the exterior part of the tumors, but at the same time the rays may have given greater stimulation to their basal portion, so as to quicken their growth. This undesirable stimulation had the effect, it is presumed, of spreading the germ of the tumor thruout the tissues of the body.

According to the statistics of Wintersteiner,[11] double glioma of the retina composes 5 per cent of all such cases, and so it cannot be called very rare. But, as shown above, the occurrence of such metastatic transference is rare, tho it cannot be limited to bilateral cases. If the metastasis of our cases is to be attributed to the bilateral character, it would be contrary to the statistics.

Now, in our cases, if no X-rays had been applied to them, and the retinal glioma had advanced in the debilitated patients to death, such metastatic transference might not have occurred. Therefore, the application of X-rays must be thought to have at least contributed to the fatal consequences.

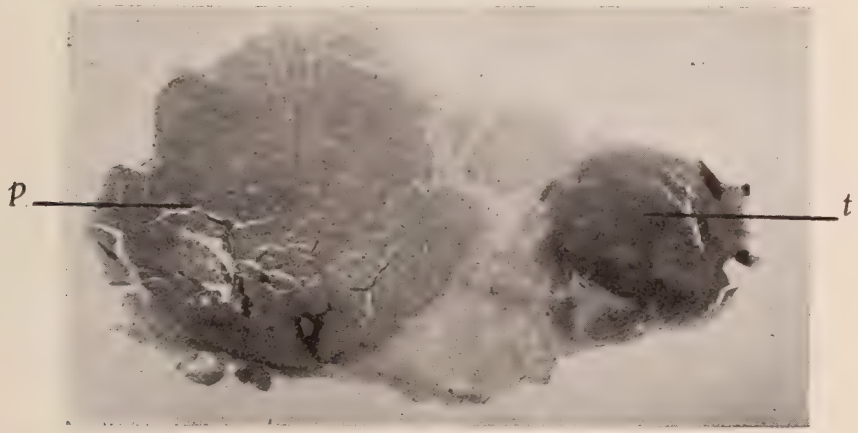


Fig. 10. The pancreas. Tumor tissue (t). Pancreas tissue (p). (Leitz oc. 1, obj. 3.)

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THE OCULAR COMPLICATIONS OF DENGUE FEVER.

HANS BARKAN, M. D.

SAN FRANCISCO.

This paper calls attention to dengue as probably a cause of such paralyses as are known to be associated with diphtheria, and gives reasons for the belief in such association, and the fact that it has been hitherto overlooked.

A case of abducens paralysis following dengue, and a case of paralysis of accommodation following dengue, seen in my office last August, caused me to investigate the literature. I was under the impression that I had never noted any eye lesions in conjunction with or following dengue reported in medical literature, except the severe pain in and about the eyeball during the height of the fever; my search of the literature found it barren of any mention of dengue and ocular complications. The publication of two cases seems to me, therefore, to be justified.

CASE 1. Mr. A. B., a resident of Honolulu, consulted me August 16, complaining of double vision. This he had first noted on the 9th day after the onset of the acute febrile paroxysm, severe headache, and intense muscular and joint pains with which his attack of dengue had started. The diplopia, while at first very annoying, had become less noticeable, but still embarrassed him, and prevented him from engaging in out-of-door sports, such as golf. He still felt very weak, perspired freely on slight effort, and had lost 15 pounds in weight.

Examination: External inspection negative. Test for ocular movements, balance and range showed slight abducens paralysis, right eye. Fundus negative. Vision 10/10, no glasses worn. Hypermetropia of 0.5 D. Urine negative. Blood Wassermann the same. No history of infection. Transillumination of sinuses, nose, throat and examination of teeth negative. Seen two weeks later, in better general health, had no complaints to make; diplopia could be elicited with difficulty. Discharged.

CASE 2. The day following the examination of the above case, Mr. B. H., also a resident of Honolulu, a friend of my first patient, consulted me. He had had dengue fever at practically the same time. Two weeks after the initial paroxysm on attempting to read, he found it impossible. He now complains of slightly blurred distant vision and inability to read anything but the headlines of a newspaper. His general condition is good.

Examination showed pupils round,

dilated almost maximal, very faint response to light, none to accomodation. Fundus negative. All else negative. Vision was 8/10, brought to 10/10 by +0.5 sph. Reads Snellen 0.5 with +3.5 sph. at 33 cm. In view of the first case, I made the diagnosis of paralysis of accommodation following dengue fever, with a certainly favorable prognosis. Blood examination for Wassermann, and urine examination were both negative. No source of focal infection could be found.

Temporary reading glasses were prescribed. I saw the patient a few times during the next month, during which time the accommodative power gradually returned. When he left for home, 6 weeks after his visit, accommodation was restored completely, altho fatigue in reading would set in rapidly, and the near point recede. Five to ten minutes' rest, however, would enable him to again read Snellen 0.5 at 20 cm. Age 37.

That in both these cases the ocular condition was subsequent and due to dengue fever will not, I think, be questioned. The negative results of all tests and examinations made for the usual and frequent causes of ocular paralysis; the coincidence of both patients having had dengue at the same time and in the same locality; the appearance of the ocular lesion in the first case 9 days after the initial acute febrile paroxysm, in the second case 14 days afterward; and finally, the fact that in both cases the ocular complication involved the neuromuscular apparatus, and was self-limited, with complete recovery, establishes with as much certainty as is possible, the connection between the attack of dengue fever and the subsequent ocular complications.

It might be asked whether or not they had dengue fever in the first place. The description of the disease as given by both cases presented the typical symptomatology,—they were suddenly seized with an acute febrile paroxysm, chills, accompanied by very severe pains in all muscles and joints, intense headache and complete prostration. On the first day both had extreme anorexia and vomiting. The maximum temperature was said to have been between 104° and 105° on the 4th day. While no rash was noted at first, it appeared on the 5th or 6th day, being most prominent on the face, tho there was some also on the arms, trunk, thigh and legs. A bran-like desquamation lasting a week, occurred on the 13th or 14th day. On the 9th and 14th days respectively, the patients noted the ocular symptoms. A note written to their medical attendant in Honolulu has met with no response; but from the above, there is no other disease that can have afflicted them, especially in a locality where dengue is endemic.

Considering the connection between the ocular lesions and dengue as being established, it may not be out of place to review in brief the established facts regarding dengue fever, sometimes known as dandy fever (because of the stiff and mincing walk), break-bone fever, stiff-necked fever, giraffe fever, polka fever, bouquet fever, (corrupted into bucket fever), knockel-koorts fever, and by other descriptive popular names. The description of the disease as given above is the typical form.

It may occur so suddenly and with such complete prostration as to strike down the sufferer at his business, pleasure or devotions. The intense and excruciating myalgia and joint pains are the most typical symptoms. Here may be mentioned the only ocular complaints occurring as a rule, namely the intense retroorbital and supraorbital pain, and often great pain on attemped ocular movement. The disease lasts from 10 to 14 days, during which time the temperature is usually highest on the 4th or 5th day, varying between 103-106° F. There is then often a remission in symptoms followed by return of symptoms and by a rash, described previously. Death following dengue is practically unknown. The complications and sequelae are few, occasionally hemorrhage from mucous surfaces, inflammation of serous membranes, and rarely pleurisy, orchitis, pericarditis and endocarditis.

The disease is one usual in tropical and subtropical countries, although it has occurred in outside zones, as, for instance, in Philadelphia, New York and Boston, appearing in the summer and disappearing in winter. In tropical countries it

stays fairly well confined to the coast and adjacent country, especially along the routes of travel. It occurs in both dry and moist atmospheres, altitude, however, acting as an inhibiting force.

The cause is still uncertain; from analogy some insect as a carrier would seem most probable. While some investigators have found a hematozoön in the red blood corpuscles, leucocytes and occurring free in the blood plasma, and have found this same organism in the stomach of Culex fatigans up to the 5th day after being fed upon blood of patients ill of dengue fever, other competent investigators deny its existence. The main points of agreement are that the pathology consists of a well-marked leukopenia, the polymorphonuclear leucocytes being decreased, with a marked increase in small lymphocytes; that it can be transmitted through Culex fatigans, and that is probably the common method; and that the organism is probably ultramicroscopic.

Returning for a moment to the two cases cited,—in countries where dengue is endemic, ocular muscle paralysis from other causes certainly exists, and when large numbers of the population are afflicted with dengue, certain ones might very well develop an abducens paralysis or accommodative paralysis during the fever, not in relation to it, but rather as the result of some of the common causes. This is not likely in the two cases cited, as both proved absolutely negative in the search for an inciting cause other than dengue.

It is also conceivable that due to the prostration occurring with dengue, an ocular paralysis from another cause might be favored and accelerated in its appearance, just as, for instance, in a heavy smoker and alcoholic, a tabetic nerve atrophy is apt to take a rapid course. Again, in view of the negative examination, this is not likely to have been the case in these two instances. It might be said that because 75 per cent of the population in some influenza epidemics is infected, therefore ocular lesions occurring in these are not related to the influenza, but would have occurred in the same number and time if free of influenza. But we know, for instance, that certain ocular diseases, such as herpes corneae, are much more frequent during an epidemic of influenza, and much rarer before and after an epidemic.

In dengue we are acquainted with one constant ocular symptom, the intense aching of the eyes, whether a true myalgia or a slight degree of serous tenonitis, or periostitis, is uncertain. It is rather surprising that ocular complications, such as the two cases of muscular paralysis I report, are not more common; there are many similar points in dengue and influenza. With the existing similarities it is curious that dengue has not been known to be complicated by ocular diseases common in association with influenza, —one need think only of acute hordeolum, keratitis neuroparalytica, herpes corneae, keratitis punctata superficialis, neuritis optica, muscular paralysis, iritis, etc.

As dengue occurs so largely among the ignorant tropical population, and as ocular sequelae may be late effects, it is quite conceivable that they may occur frequently, but be overlooked, especially if they be ocular paralyses causing no pain or inflammatory signs and recovering spontaneously.

AN OPERATION RELEGATING ENUCLEATION OF THE EYE TO ITS PROPER POSITION.

T. J. Dimitry, M. D.

NEW ORLEANS.

This paper presents an argument for a better operation to replace the enucleation of the eye in most cases. It describes such an operation, which the author has performed in twenty cases, and discusses its technic and results.

The reason for this contribution is to again insist that my confréres take cognizance of a superior surgical technic which should, in the majority of instances, replace enucleation, a quite unsatisfactory operation when considered as to its cosmetic, and, hence, as to its economic, results.

The enucleation of the eye is a rapidly and rudely performed procedure, and generally gives the impression that the sole aim of the operator is to get the offending member out. The muscles attached to the eye are cut, the optic nerve is severed, the eye delivered and hemorrhage controlled by pressure —this nonesthetic and purely mechanical procedure is the accepted performance, and it constitutes the operation of enucleation. Any nicety of technic aimed at obviating disfigurement is very generally ignored.

When the prothesis is inserted, following this crude surgical procedure, three highly unsatisfactory conditions, to say the very least, are almost surely present. We have an artificial eye sunken deeply in the socket, with a consequent lack of symmetry with the natural eye; we have sagging lids, and we have an eye staring rigidly and vacantly into space. Injury to the sympathetic incident to the operation of enucleation has been considered in a previous paper[2] as a probable factor to account for these unsatisfactory conditions; but, in addition, there are primarily some purely mechanical factors worthy of note: (a), the deeply sunken artificial eye can be attributed to the practically empty socket resulting from enucleation; (b) the sagging lids to the disturbance in relation between tension of, and pressure against, the palpebral muscles caused by the sunken prothesis, and (c) the rigidly staring eye results from the severed recti muscles.

These deformities are inexcusable, and can be avoided. Hence it is that I have been insistent that we improve upon what is undoubtedly a faulty surgical procedure, however skilfully it is performed.

I grant that enucleation may be compulsory in malignant conditions of the eye, or justifiable, as in advanced age, where appearances count for little as against the necessity for a rapidly performed operation; but it is not even justifiable in any one other single condition.

The laudable efforts of our government to rehabilitate the injured and disfigured soldier, and to restore him to a condition where he can most readily earn his own livelihood, should teach the lesson that the removal of the eye in civil practice should not be considered on a parallel with the emergency operation of the battle field that so often makes necessary later plastic treatment.

The civilian surgeon also is today removing postoperative disfigurements solely with the view of a cosmetic improvement; and much of this plastic surgery would be unnecessary had the patient been rationally handled in the first place. Yet, with respect to eye surgery, or to that part of it under consideration, very little is being done to preserve a normal appearance; and we must admit that a good appearance has no inconsiderable economic value.

Postoperative appearances are to be shown every consideration, and we must use the utmost care in preventing any avoidable disfigurement consistent with the welfare of the patient. That the observance of this surgical principle has been, and still is, so flagrantly ignored by the ophthalmologist, above all others, seems to me inconceivable.

I am familiar with the fact that some few surgeons are using tardy methods to correct, or to a lesser degree, seeking to prevent, these unsatisfactory results of an imperfect technic. But they are very few, and it is exceedingly difficult to gain serious attention to anything having a semblance of contrariness to text book teachings. Under the circumstances we would be justified in demanding that our teachers and authors more insistently impress upon the tyro the exact limitations of the operation of enucleation; for this operation is so easily performed, and so comparatively free from danger, that this inexperienced man is enucleating the eye at the slightest pretext. Some even have the conceit, once they have performed this operation, to regard themselves as finished surgeons.

The authentic case of the man who attempted to qualify as a brain surgeon in the Medical Reserve Corps for the sole reason that he had successfully treated scalp wounds during a considerable industrial practice, has its analogies in the records of the office of the Surgeon General in some instances where men wished to qualify as finished ophthalmologists for the reason that they had successfully enucleated the eye.

If we consider the muscles of the eye, situated in pairs each conveniently opposite its mate; and when we consider that so few make any serious attempt to utilize this great opportunity to conserve a practically normal muscular action, even by end to end suturing, and, further, that this undoubted neglect of opportunity acts to the detriment of the patient, both cosmetically and economically, I am impelled to ask if the operation of enucleation, as commonly performed, can be considered as a rational surgical procedure in the great majority of cases. My answer is that it cannot be so considered.

My operation is advocated for the reason that it practically obviates injury to the sympathetic nerve, conserves the normal movements of the eye, provides a foundation for the prothesis, and hence, a filled in socket, all tending to prevent disfigurement, and in that it exposes the patient to no greater risk from sympathetic ophthalmia than does enucleation.

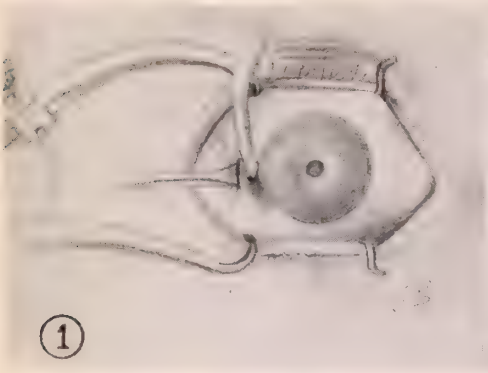
Any consideration of other substitute operations must take into account especially the important question of sympathetic iridocyclitis; and the writer, before first advocating his operation, had given serious thought to the other substitute operations for enucleation. His early opinion that the advocated operation provides for all eventualities to a greater extent than do other substitutes is now more firmly fixed than ever.

The advocated operation is an *evisceration of the sclera, with the removal of a section of it* POSTERIORLY *including a severance of the optic nerve.* A gold ball is inserted within the sclera, and the anterior opening is closed. The posterior opening is not closed. This latter feature is very essential, and a little thought should convince one of its merits.

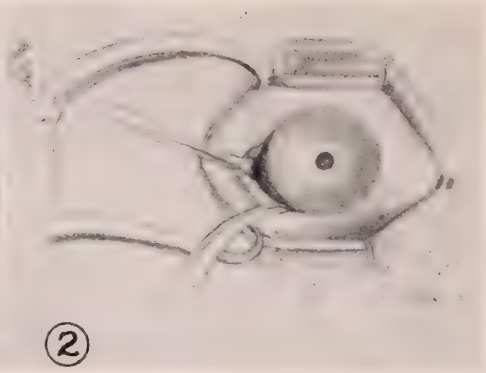
The procedure begins as in an evisceration; that is, the conjunctiva is first undermined, and the anterior aspect of the globe is resected. The point of resection is about 2 mm. posterior to the corneoscleral junction. The contents of the globe are removed, and any possible slight hemorrhage is easily controlled. A section is made in the posterior aspect of the sclera from within, and, at the same time, the optic nerve is severed.

This latter procedure is quite readily carried out by puncturing the sclera with a Graefe knife, and with a pair of curved scissors cutting in a circle around the insertion of the optic nerve, thus severing it from the sclera. The detached portion of the sclera with its attached portion of nerve are then removed after section of the latter. The long ciliary nerves may also be cut, if desired; but it is not the custom of the writer to do so.

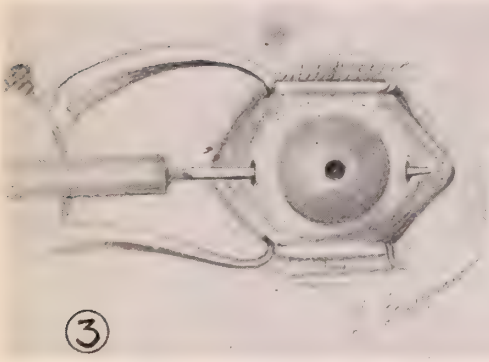
The sclera is now turned from within outward, evaginated, and every vestige of choroidal tissue is removed. It is then returned to its normal position, invaginated, and two small triangular sections of it removed at both sides of



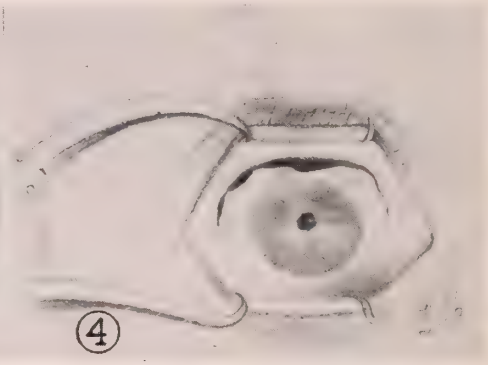
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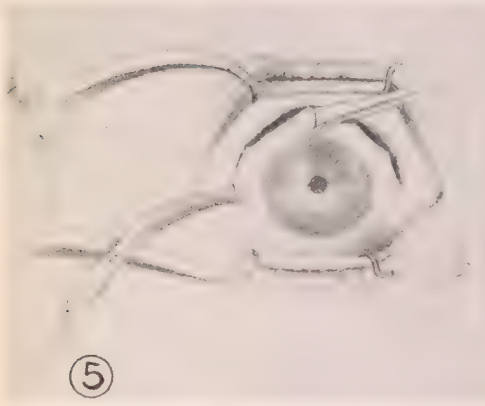
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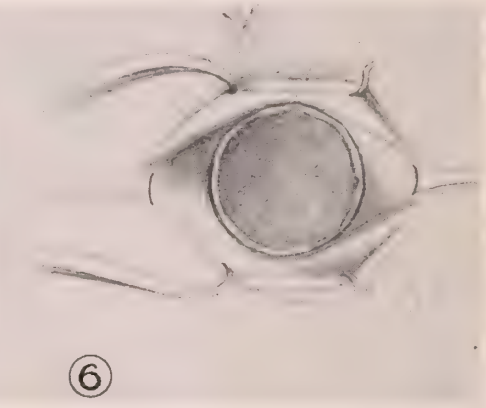
TRANSFIXED WITH GRAEFE KNIFE.



UPPER FLAP CUT WITH GRAEFE KNIFE

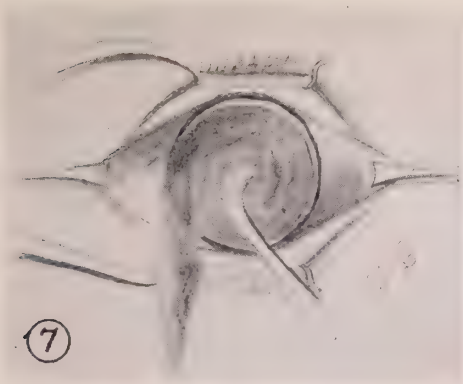


READY TO EXCISE ANTERIOR SEGMENT

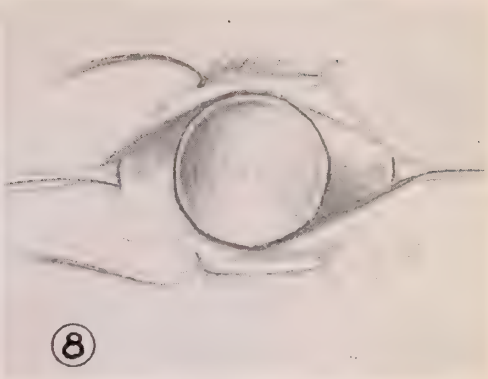


ANTERIOR SEGMENT EXCISED

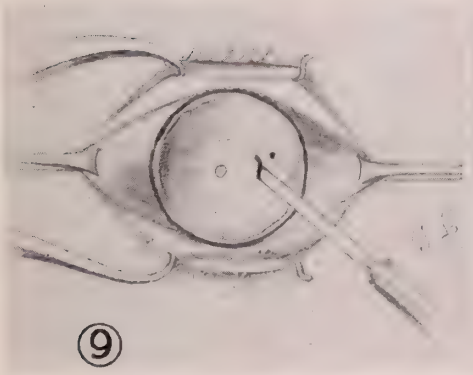
DIMITRY'S SUBSTITUTE FOR ENUCLEATION



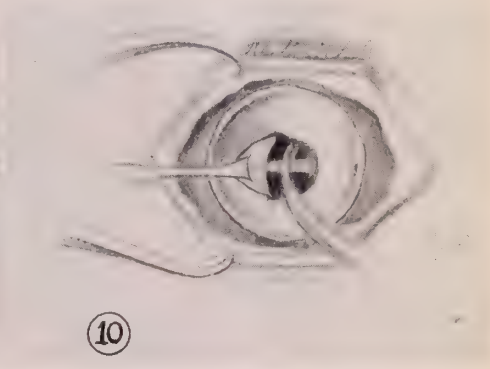
REMOVING CONTENTS OF SCLERA



SCLERAL CAVITY EMPTIED



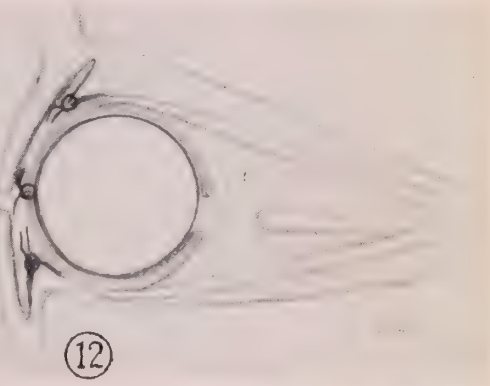
CUTTING WINDOW IN BACK OF SCLERA



DIVIDING OPTIC NERVE



CUTTING TRIANGLES OUT OF SCLERA



SCHEMATIC SECTION SHOWS GOLD BALL INSERTED—WINDOW POSTERIORLY THROUGH SCLERA—OPTIC NERVE CUT—CONJUNCTIVA SEWED TO TENON'S CAPSULE, NOT OVER SCLERA

DIMITRY'S SUBSTITUTE FOR ENUCLEATION

the anterior window, and in such positions that a horizontal line bisecting the latter will also bisect the triangular openings. The gold ball is then inserted, and the sclera is sutured over its anterior surface. The conjunctiva is sutured to the capsule of Tenon at the position of its attachment to the sclera, and, hence, is not brought over the sutured anterior wound in the sclera. The operation is now complete.

The triangular openings are for the purpose of securing a more snug fit of the sclera over the ball; and the above manner of attaching the conjunctiva secures a firmer, and a larger area of curvature for the artificial eye. The recti muscles, having been left attached to the sclera, retain their ability to function; so that, what remains of the eye, with its implanted gold ball, is capable of practically the same scope of movement as was the eye before operation.

When the prothesis is inserted, it sits on a filled-in socket, is protected by lids which do not sag, and, on account of the larger cul-de-sac resulting from the retroattached conjunctiva, is capable of practically the same scope of movement as the normal eye. This combination constitutes a veritable camouflage.

The two original features of this operation, in which it differs from all similar operations, are the posterior window in the sclera, and the method of attaching the conjunctiva. The questions of sympathetic ophthalmia and extrusion of the gold ball will now be considered.

The two most widely accepted hypotheses to account for sympathetic iridocyclitis are perhaps that of Leber and Deutschmann, and that of Rimpler.

If the former theory is correct, and sympathetic ophthalmia is due to the infectious virus reaching the sound eye by way of the lymphatics of the optic nerve, unless the retained sclera is the focus of the infection, which is extremely improbable, the advocated operation protects from this untoward eventuality to the same extent as does enucleation, for the optic nerve is severed.

Those who are partial to the cilioneural theory of Rimpler, that an irritation of the ciliary nerves of the eye first affected induces a susceptibility to the disease in the sound eye, will find it not difficult to sever these nerves at the same time the optic nerve is severed.

I have had no case of sympathetic ophthalmia following my operation, and, as stated, it is not my custom to sever the ciliary nerves.

Probably due to the posterior window in the sclera taking care of the exudates and small hemorrhages, or equalizing pressure, or both, I can report twenty (20) cases operated by my method without a single extrusion of the golden ball.

Eighteen (18) of these cases were operated under a general, and two (2) under a local anesthetic.

Two cases date back five years, 4 four years, 4 three years, 5 two years, and 5 one year. I have seen the great majority of these cases since the operation, and have still later communicated with most of them. My expectations of the operation have been fulfilled in every respect with each case; and, furthermore, while about half of these operations have been performed upon children, in not one instance have I yet noted anything even approaching an asymmetric development of the face.

Following the implantation of other substances in place of the gold ball, such as fat, cartilage, the eye of the rabbit, paraffin and dental wax, my results have been, on the whole, not satisfactory. Were it not for these investigations with the substances named above, I would be able to report many more cases of this operation at the present time.

Fat is quickly absorbed, as is the eye of the rabbit, altho not so rapidly. Paraffin and dental wax have given the poorest results, for they, and particularly the latter, cause a great deal of irritation. Cartilage, barring the great difficulty in procuring pieces suitably shaped for the purpose, seemed to give rather satisfactory results, but unfor-

tunately I was unable to keep the two cases where it was employed under observation for a sufficient time to note final results. However, I can see in its use no advantage over the gold ball; in fact, rather the contrary.

In further defense of my stand, I shall quote from Allport, in The American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology,[1] under the caption of Choice of Method in Eyeball Excision: "In the majority of cases this mutilating and deforming operation of enucleation is entirely unnecessary and should be relegated to obscurity, that it may make way for better, more modern and more humane surgical procedures."

In conclusion, the advantages of the operation may be summed up as follows:

(1) It may be performed with a comparative absence of trauma; and, hence, is followed by less reaction, less secretion and less ecchymosis, with less likelihood of injury to the sympathetic, than is the case after enucleation.[2]

(2) It furnishes a filled-in socket with its several advantages; a firm seat for the prothesis; an absence of sagging lids, and, hence, a normal lacrimal secretion and drainage.

(3) It evidently does not interfere with a natural face development in the young.

(4) It leaves the recti muscles undisturbed and with an unimpaired power to function.

(5) The posterior window permits of the easy severance of the optic nerve; it permits of ready absorption of hemorrhages and exudates, and obviates extrusion of the gold ball.

(6) The retroattachment of the conjunctiva furnishes a deeper retrotarsal fold permitting unrestricted excursions of the prothesis.

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A TEST FOR THE JUDGMENT OF DISTANCE

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PEKING, CHINA.

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The much discussed question of the judgment of distance has suddenly come to have, thru the advent of military and naval aviation, a very important and practical application. The literature on the subject is voluminous. One finds, however, that it is rich in the amount of theory from the physiologic, psychologic and philosophic viewpoints, but exceedingly meager in experimental data, most of which were published several decades ago. It is the practical phase and consequently the experienced data which most concern those of us interested in the examination and classification of applicants for the aviation service. We are eager to know how and why we are able to judge distance, but our chief object is to learn what the individual ability of men along this line actually is.

STATUS OF THE PRESENT TEST.

The test for the judgment of distance is referred to in our aviation manual as the test for "stereoscopic vision." For this purpose a hand stereoscope, with specially made sets of stereoscopic charts is used. In the

majority of cases this test is satisfactory as far as it goes. But it does not permit of any except rough distinctions. No accurate classification, based on a subject's relative ability, is possible. Either he projects all of the pictures fairly accurately or he gets no projection at all. On this basis he is rated as "normal" or "not normal." Also, the ability to fuse stereoscopic pictures is impossible for some individuals who have very good judgment of distance. Artificially produced stereoscopy with them is an act wholly new in their experience; the harder they try the more confused they become. Some finally learn the trick, others never do, so it is safe to assume that among the applicants who were excluded on account of this technical inability there must have been some who had good judgment of distance and consequently were unjustly debarred from the service. Nor does the stereoscopic test preclude the possibility of an over zealous applicant having learned the respective positions of the objects in the picture prior to his examination. Indeed, such an explanation is the least critical and perhaps the most ethical way of accounting for a number of cases of faulty binocular vision recently found among the flyers, especially since all the evidence pointed to the fact that this was not a recent condition.

On the grounds that there are flyers now in the service with faulty binocular vision and a few with only monocular vision, some examiners have questioned the absolute necessity of binocular single vision as a preliminary requirement. Upon sober reflection, however, one must conclude that the knowledge that a number of men with faulty binocular vision have been admitted to flying service and are still living, does not constitute a proof that even a larger number have not met an unnecessary death on account of having been wrongly permitted to fly. It is error in judgment of distance in landing a plane that has caused the great majority of deaths among cadet aviators. The Manual of the Medical Research Laboratory, 1919, in discussing this subject says, "Speaking of error of judgment in flying as a cause of aeroplane accidents, Anderson states that this accident may occur in getting off the ground, in the air, or when landing. To 58 crashes in the 'V' series, this accounted for 42, 4 in getting off the ground and 38 in landing." It is impossible to make post-mortem confirmation of the binocular vision of those unfortunate flyers, but it seems logical to insist on a safe-guard that seems so obviously necessary.

In view of the criticism of the hand stereoscope as a satisfactory test for the judgment of distance, it fell to my lot to find or devise a test which would be free from that criticism. In order to undertake the subject with the proper background it has been necessary to go into the subject of the judgment of distance rather fully. I shall endeavor, then, to give a brief summary of that subject with reasons for deciding upon a certain form of apparatus which seemed to fulfill the requirements which I sought and had the added advantage of being extremely simple in construction.

FACTORS INVOLVED IN JUDGMENT OF DISTANCE.

Judgment of distance is dependent upon several factors. Some of these factors operate for both monocular and binocular vision alike. The others act only when binocular single vision is present. In brief, the latter possesses all the factors that monocular vision has, and in addition has at least two others. The distinctions may be represented as follows:

A. Factors common to both binocular and monocular vision:

1. Size of the retinal image.
2. Accommodation.
3. Motion parallax.
4. Terrestrial association.
   (a) Linear perspective.
   (b) Overlapping of contours.
   (c) Light reflections and shadows.
5. Aerial perspective, i. e., the changes with respect to color, brightness and contrast which distant objects undergo on account of variations

in the clarity of the intervening atmosphere.

B. Factors operating only with binocular single vision:

1. Binocular parallax.
2. Convergence.

In employing a test for the purpose of classification it is necessary to utilize only that factor or those factors which operate to make for an individual difference in ability. All other factors should be eliminated in such a test. Is it possible to isolate and thereby examine the factor showing the most individual characteristic? The following argument should answer this question:

Motion parallax is produced either by movement of the observer or by objects within his field of vision. For that reason it may be considered an artificial factor employed only to enhance the already existing facility. It should, therefore, be eliminated as a factor not related either to innate or to acquired individual ability.

Factors external to ourselves which assist all of us equally, such as terrestrial association and aerial perspective should also be eliminated for the same reason.

Factors which operate only for short distances and either not at all, or only very slightly for distances of six meters and over, do not need to be considered when examining prospective aviators. Therefore, accommodation and convergence should be eliminated.

The two remaining factors are the binocular parallax and the size of the retinal image. It is possible to obtain the relative values of these two factors by using the same test apparatus, first with two eyes and then with only one eye. In the first instance both factors may operate together; in the second instance the binocular parallax is eliminated and only the size of the retinal image can operate. This latter is practically as important a factor with one eye as it is with two. If by comparison it be found on the one hand that the results are the same or approximately the same, it is obvious that the size of the retinal image which operated in both tests, is the important factor. If, on the other hand, it be found that the binocular test produces a far more delicate discrimination than the monocular, we are forced to the conclusion that the binocular parallax is the more important factor and the size of the retinal image is negligible or practically so. The results of just such tests were obtained and have been tabulated in this report and conclusions deduced therefrom.

It may be wise at this point to correct what may result in an erroneous impression from the foregoing statements. There has been no intent to belittle the other factors to the advantage of the binocular parallax and the retina image. These other factors must play a very important part in judging distance properly. It may be that taken as a whole, they assist us as much as the factors specially referred to. It may also be true that our experience teaches us to use these factors more and more, especially when suddenly deprived of the binocular parallax thru the loss of an eye, but it must be maintained that except for convergence and accommodation they are factors extraneous to the individual and do not represent that difference in ability characteristic of him. In addition they are not constant but vary greatly with atmospheric changes and environment, whereas binocular parallax is subject to no variation per se.

THE PROBLEM OF A SUITABLE APPARATUS.

The problem, therefore, was to devise an apparatus which would eliminate all factors except the binocular parallax and the retinal image. The test should also permit of our common every day method of depth perception without interposing the feat of fusing stereoscopic pictures. The apparatus then should be employed at a distance of at least six meters. The test should be as conventional as possible and simple, and should permit of fine discrimination. Finally to avoid the possibility of motion parallax a head rest should be used.

In searching the literature I was fortunate in finding the description of an

apparatus devised by Brooksbank James,* of England, in 1908. With a few modifications and the addition of a head rest this seemed to meet all the requirements.

*"Measurement of Stereoscopic Visual Acuity," Lancet, June 20, 1908, p. 1763.

DESCRIPTION OF THE APPARATUS.

The framework consists of three sides of a box, the back, the bottom and the front. The inside measurements of the front and back are 58 cm. high and 75 cm. wide; the floor is 55 cm. from front to back and 75 cm. wide.

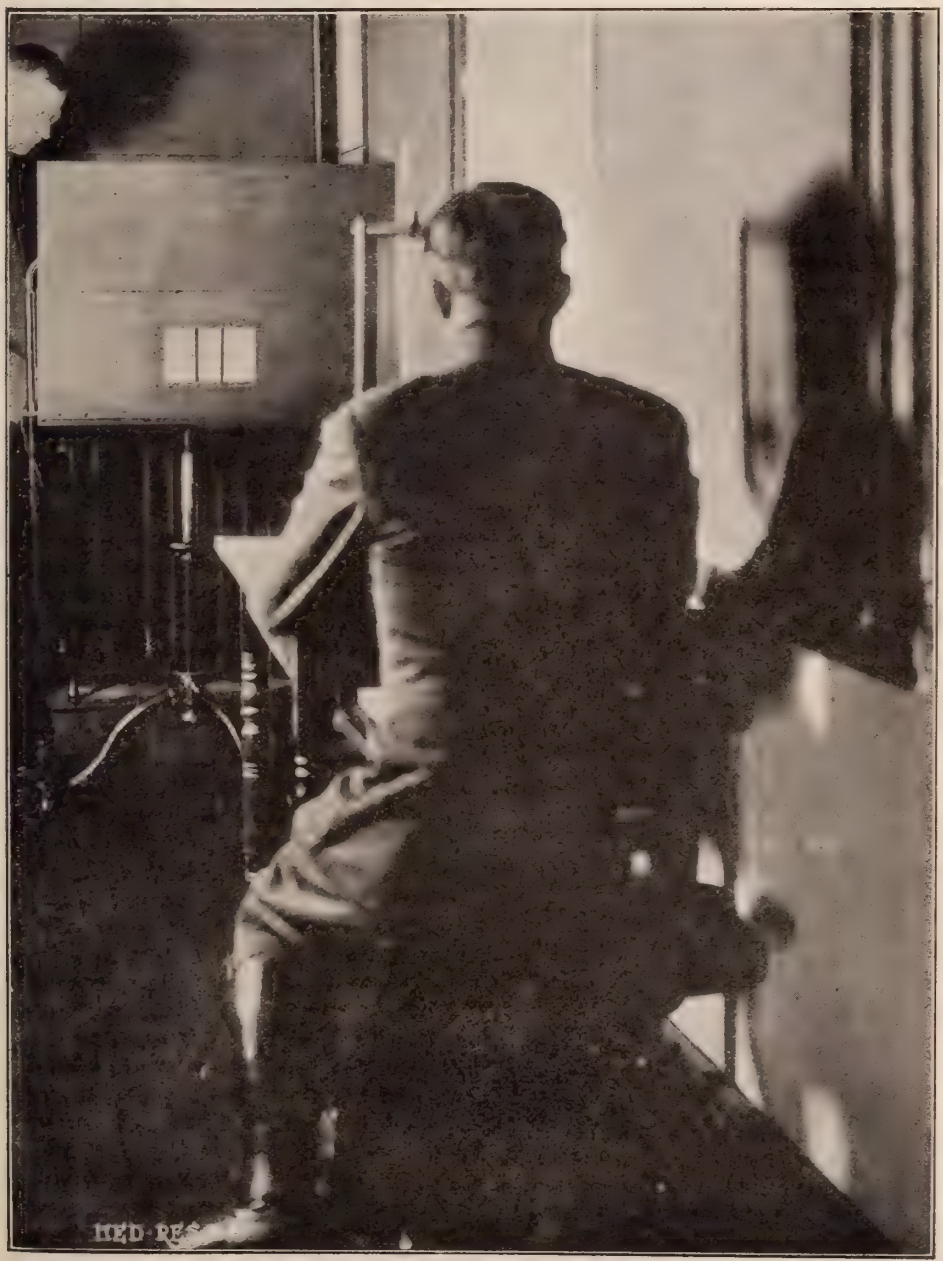


Fig. 1. A subject making an observation.

The anterior and posterior surfaces of the front partition and the floor are painted a dead black. The anterior surface of the back partition is covered with a sheet of dead white cardboard. In the middle of the front partition a window is cut 20 cm. wide and 12 cm. high. The upper margin is 38 cm. from the top of partition.

Extending from front to back a board 12 cm. wide and 2 cm. thick is permanently fixed over the center of the floor. Before being fixed, this board is marked off with a scale 0.5 cm. apart. Two parallel lines 6.0 cm. apart are also drawn the length of the board. Where the scale and parallel lines cross small holes are bored with an electric drill. The holes are made for the purpose of carrying upright wooden rods or dowels. There rods, which are 1.0 cm. in diameter and 26 cm. long are smoothed with sand paper, painted black, and carefully modeled at one end to fit into the holes.

The rods are illuminated by indirect light from the white surface of the background. The source of light is a 75 watt nitrogen lamp carried by a flexible goose neck attached to a floor stand. The lamp is set about 20 cm. in front of the back partition near to the top of the apparatus but low enough to be hidden from the view of the subject to be examined. A Hubbell aluminum reflector casts the light rays onto the white background at an angle of 45 degrees.

A cardboard screen is placed behind the window to prevent the observer from watching the operator adjust the rods. The latter stands at the left side of the apparatus which is placed upon a table adjustable to any required height.

The only remaining apparatus is a Trolland headrest attached by a clamp to the edge of a table six meters in front of the box.

METHOD OF EXAMINATION.

The test is carried out in the dark room with the source of light as indicated above. The subject or observer is seated in a chair with his head securely but comfortably fixed in the headrest. (See Fig. 1.) The apparatus is adjusted so that the eyes of the observer are exactly six meters from the zero mark or middle of the cross scale on the rod carrying board. Adjustment is also made so that the observer's eyes are at the same height as the middle of the window. This latter precaution is necessary to avoid any chance of linear perspective entering in. Therefore, when the rods are placed in position and the screen lifted neither the bottoms nor the tops of the rods are visible, but only the middle one-half or thereabouts.

When everything is ready the observer is told to fix a point near the center of the screen. The screen is suddenly giving practically an instantaneous view of the rods. The observer is required to state which of the two black rods is nearer to him, the right or the left. He is informed at the beginning of the test that at no time will the rods be set in the same reference plane, i. e., they will not be equidistant from his eyes. His judgment is therefore, reduced to the simplest terms, viz., which rod is the nearer. At the same time all effort is made to deceive him as to the relative positions of the rods. A pack of 20 blank playing cards are lettered, ten of them "right" and ten of them "left." These cards are shuffled before the judgments are taken at each station, and the positions of the rods determined in the order indicated by the cards.

Twenty judgments are taken at each of five stations. As a rule the first station observed represents the 30 mm. depth difference, i. e., when one rod is in a reference plane 6,000 mm. away from his eyes and the other 6,030. If the twenty judgments are all correct, the observer is tried successively at the 20 mm., the 15 mm., the 10 mm., and the 5 mm. stations or until it is apparent by the number of wrong judgments that he is merely guessing or actually projects the farther rod nearer than the other. If the judgments at the 30 mm. station are not all correct the observer is tried at the 40 mm., the 50 mm., the 60 mm., and the 90 mm., sta-

tions, etc., i. e., until his judgments are all correct.

EXPLANATIONS OF TERMS AND DIAGRAMS.

When we look at two objects to compare their relative distance we make our judgment by the difference in their distances from us. In Figure 2, A and B represent the two eyes and O and O^1 the two objects respectively. The two distances may be represented by imaginary lines, one from O and the other from O^1 to a point midway between the two eyes, that is, to an imaginary cyclopean eye. These distances may be compared with less difficulty by using a more diagrammatic drawing. Let us therefore, consider one eye B and the two objects O and O^1 in a straight line as in Figure 3. In this Figure let

p=AB, the interpupillary distance
d=BO, the shorter distance
D=BO^1, the longer distance

D—d=Δ, the difference in distance or as it is termed in this paper, the *depth difference.*

Also let ∠ 1=∠ AOB, the angle of convergence upon the near object; and ∠2=∠AO^1B, the angle of convergence upon the far object; and ∠3=∠OAO^1

Then ∠ 1—∠ 2= ∠ 3, which is the binocular parallactic angle represented by the depth difference D—d or Δ.

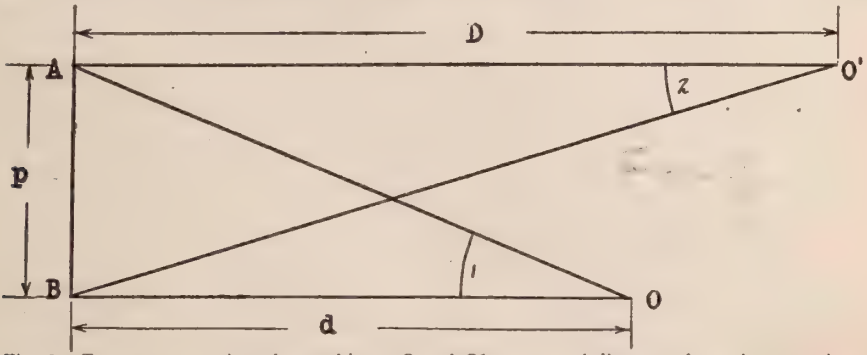


Fig. 2. True representation of two objects, O and O^1 at unequal distnaces from the eyes, A and B.

For small angles like angles 1, 2 and 3, the sine, the tangent and the angle in radians may be considered equal with negligible error.

Let r=angle 3 in radians.

then tan. of angle 1 $= \frac{p}{d}$ and tan. of angle 2 $= \frac{p}{D}$ and r $= \frac{p}{d} - \frac{p}{D} = \frac{p\,D-d}{Dd}$

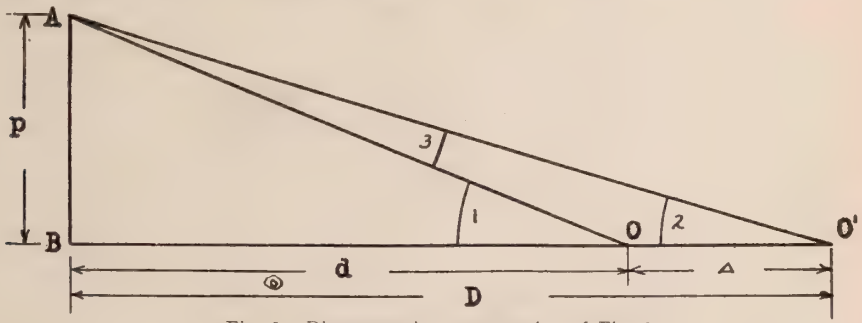


Fig. 3. Diagrammatic representation of Fig. 2.

But when p=0.063 meters, and d and D are 6.000 and 6.005 meters respectively, then by substitution

$$r = .063 \frac{.005}{6.000 \times 6.005} = 0.00000874,$$

which represents the binocular parallactic angle in radians.

In order to convert radians to de-

grees of arc we must multiply radians by $\frac{180}{\pi}$ and then this result in degrees by 3600 to obtain the final result in seconds of arc.

Therefore 0.00000874 radians= 1.803″.

This angle 1.803″ is the binocular parallactic angle when the interpupillary distance is 63 mm., the depth difference 5 mm., and the distance of the nearer object 6 meters.

On the basis of this formula, the binocular parallactic angles were worked out for interpupillary distances ranging from 57 to 72.5 mm. and for depth differences ranging at regular intervals from 5 to 360 mm. (See Table I.)

RESULTS OF THE TEST.

One hundred and six subjects or observers, seventy-five of whom were aviators, were examined with the apparatus. Prior to the test other visual data were recorded, such as: age, army service, hours of flying if any, vision, muscle balance, near points of convergence and accommodation, and interpupillary distance.

The classification of a subject is not made on the basis of the shortest depth difference at which he gives twenty consecutive correct judgments, but rather upon the shortest depth difference at which he is still at or within his threshold, i. e., when at a certain station the subject makes 15 correct and 5 wrong judgments, the calculation may be made as follows: The 5 wrong judgments may be classified as guesses. To offset these 5 correct judgments should be eliminated also as guesses. That leaves 10 correct judgments which represents the number which the subject actually distinguishes, i. e., just 50% of the total number of 20. I have accepted therefore, as the threshold of any individual, that least depth difference at which his judgments are correct not less than 75% of the time.

The ability of the 106 observers varied greatly. It was found convenient to classify them into twelve groups based upon their depth-difference thresholds. This classification with all correlating data has been recorded in Tables II to VII.

It was found that fourteen men had judgment of distance to a remarkable degree. According to a formula expressed above, their respective binocular parallactic angles depend not only upon their depth difference threshold, but also upon their interpupillary distance. Their depth-difference thresholds were as small as 5 mm. Their interpupillary distances varied from 63 to 72.5 mm. It is obvious that the man having the smallest interpupillary distance would have the smallest binocular parallactic angle. By referring to Table II we find that the smallest interpupillary distance 63 mm. represents a binocular parallactic angle of 1.80″. The longest interpupillary distance 72.5 mm., represents an angle of 2.07″. This difference in angle of 0.27″ denotes an advantage of about 15% that the man with the longest has over the man with the smallest interpupillary distance, i. e., their actual ability is the same but the latter observer with the 63 mm. interpupillary distance must have a threshold angle of not more than 1.80″ in order to equal the discriminating ability possessed by the 2.07″ angle of the man with the interpupillary distance of 72.5 mm.

The parallactic angle of the remaining twelve observers in Class A ranged between 2.07″ and 1.80″. The average threshold for the entire fourteen men was 1.89″.

Class B, Table III, represents a group of thirty men with a threshold of 10 mm. and a binocular parallactic angle averaging 3.67″. Class C, Table IV, represents a group of fifteen men with a threshold of 15 mm. and an average angle of 5.5″. Class D, Table V, is a record of a group of twenty-three men with a threshold of 20 mm. and an average parallactic angle of 7.30″. The remaining eight classes, E to M, recorded in Tables V-VII, were determined by the depth-difference thresholds ranging from 30 to 360 mm. These thresholds represent parallactic

TABLE I. BINOCULAR PARALLAX IN TERMS OF SECONDS OF ARC.

Inter p. d. in mm. | Depth difference in millimeters when the nearer distance is 6000 mm.; e. g., 5 mm. represents the second object at 6005 mm.

	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	50	60	90	120	150	180	210	240	270	300	330	360
57.0	1.628″	3.255″	4.880″	6.505″	8.128″	9,737″	11.349″	13.005″	16.178″	19.389″	28.945″	38.405″	47.775″	57,054″	66.242″	75.343″	84.357″	93.286″	102.131″	110.893″
57.5	1.645	3.289	4.931	6.572	8.205	9.833	11.462	13.089	16.339	19.569	29.210	38.755	48.210	57.572	66.839	76.024	85.115	94.120	103.041	111.878
58.0	1.662	3.322	4.975	6.624	8.273	9.919	11.563	13.208	16.478	19.739	29.463	39.091	48.627	58.069	67.420	76.682	85.855	94.942	103.943	112.855
58.5	1.676	3.343	5.010	6.676	8.341	10.004	11.663	13.314	16.615	19.909	29.717	39.427	49.044	58.567	67.998	77.338	86.589	95.752	104.829	113.822
59.0	1.687	3.372	5.056	6.738	8.419	10.090	11.760	13.429	16.762	20.080	29.972	39.766	49.466	59.072	68.585	78.006	87.335	96.576	105.723	114.795
59.5	1.703	3.405	5.105	6.798	8.487	10.175	11.862	13.546	16.905	20.249	30.225	40.102	49.884	59.570	69.163	78.664	88.074	97.395	106.628	115.775
60.0	1.720	3.435	5.143	6.850	8.557	10.261	11.954	13.660	17.080	20.420	30.480	40.440	50.304	60.071	69.744	79.324	88.812	98.210	107.519	116.741
60.5	1.728	3.455	5.181	6.905	8.623	10.350	12.058	13.767	17.183	20.589	30.764	40.775	50.763	60.575	70.325	79.986	89.553	99.029	108.514	117.712
61.0	1.745	3.488	5.230	6.971	8.702	10.431	12.160	13.886	17.333	20.759	30.987	41.113	51.141	61.076	70.906	80.646	90.293	99.848	109.313	118.735
61.5	1.767	3.527	5.276	7.029	8.777	10.528	12.266	14.010	17.477	20.936	31.246	41.457	51.567	61.579	71.494	81.312	91.039	100.672	110.214	119.757
62.0	1.776	3.545	5.312	7.077	8.842	10.604	12,361	14.112	17.610	21.103	31.498	41.789	51.981	62.075	72.075	81.970	91.775	101.487	111.107	120.635
62.5	1.786	3.571	5.354	7.137	8.916	10.686	12.456	14.224	17.751	21.268	31.746	42.121	52.396	62.570	72.646	82.626	92.514	102.299	111.992	121.603
63.0	1.803	3.605	5.405	7.197	8.986	10.774	12.560	14.344	17.899	21.441	32.003	42.462	52.819	63.075	73.232	83.291	93.254	103.122	112.897	122.579
63.5	1.819	3.635	5.448	7.250	9.056	10.860	12.663	14.457	18.038	21.564	32.241	42.754	53.192	63.529	73.766	83.905	93.946	103.902	113.745	123.505
64.0	1.832	3.658	5.482	7.306	9.119	10.940	12.756	14.565	18.180	21.780	32.509	43.133	53.654	64.072	74.390	84.609	94.730	104.754	114.684	124.520
64.5	1.844	3.688	5.530	7.370	9.200	11.029	12.857	14.682	18.325	21.949	32.763	43.471	54.074	64.576	74.974	85.275	95.473	105.577	115.581	125.497
65.0	1.861	3.721	5.574	7.423	9.270	11.116	12.960	14.800	18.465	22.122	33.021	43.813	54.499	65.080	75.558	85.936	96.214	106.395	116.480	126.470
65.5	1.877	3.746	5.612	7.478	9.342	11.204	13.058	14.909	18.606	22.294	33.273	44.145	54.912	65.574	76.134	86.592	96.951	107.210	117.373	127.439
66.0	1.886	3.771	5.654	7.536	9.414	11.284	13.154	15.021	18.751	22.458	33.523	44.479	55.330	66.074	76.716	87.254	97.692	108.029	118.272	128.415
66.5	1.902	3.804	5.704	7.595	9.484	11.371	13.257	15.140	18.891	22,631	33.781	44.822	55.756	66.581	77.300	87.917	98.433	108.848	119.166	129.386
67.0	1.919	3.835	5.743	7.650	9.556	11.459	13.361	15.252	19.032	22.805	34.038	45.157	56.171	67.077	77.879	88.576	99.172	109.666	120.062	130.359
67.5	1.930	3.857	5.781	7.705	9.627	11.542	13.452	15.361	19.174	22.969	34.284	45.488	56.586	67.575	78.458	89.237	99.912	110.486	120.958	131.331
68.0	1.944	3.888	5.829	7.769	9.699	11.627	13.554	15.479	19.318	23.140	34.541	45.826	57.011	68.076	79.042	89.899	100.651	111.302	121.852	132.302
68.5	1.962	3.922	5.875	7.824	9.771	11.715	13.659	15.597	19.460	23.315	34.802	46.150	57.429	68.580	79.623	90.560	101.393	112,123	122.752	133.280
69.0	1.978	3.946	5.913	7.878	9.841	11.802	13.755	15.705	19.595	23.483	35.049	46.502	57.845	69.079	80.199	91.219	102.135	112.941	123.646	134.249
69.5	1.987	3.972	5.955	7.936	9.913	11.883	13.851	15.818	19.744	23.649	35.301	46.833	58.267	69.582	80.784	91.879	102.869	113.755	124.538	135.219
70.0	2.003	4.005	6.004	7.995	9.984	11.970	13.955	15.938	19.885	23.823	35.561	47.180	58.686	70.081	81.365	92.542	103.612	114.578	125.440	136.200
70.5	2.019	4.035	6.043	8.055	10.055	12.058	14.057	16.048	20.027	23.996	35.812	47.513	59.103	70.581	81.948	93.207	104.355	115.395	126.333	137.167
71.0	2.031	4.057	6.082	8.105	10.126	12.140	14.150	16.158	20.169	24.144	36.062	47.848	59.525	71.082	82.526	93.861	105.088	116.209	127.225	138.137
71.5	2.044	4.087	6.128	8.167	10.197	12.225	14.251	16.276	20.310	24.331	36.320	48.190	59.942	71.580	83.106	94.523	105.831	117.032	128.127	139.113
72.0	2.062	4.121	6.175	8.223	10.269	12.314	14.357	16.392	20.453	24.502	36.577	48.525	60.362	72.083	83.693	95.191	106.574	117.850	129.020	140.085
72.5	2.077	4.146	6.212	8.277	10.340	12.401	14.452	16.501	20.595	24.673	36.826	48.860	60.781	72.586	84.271	95.845	107.309	118,665	129.904	141.058

Note.—Each increase of 1 mm. in interpupillary distance gives an advantage of about 1.6%; i. e., the man with the 72.5 p. d. has an advantage of 15% over the man with the 63 mm. p. d.

angles ranging from 10.6″ to 136.2″ (2′ 6.2″).

THE BINOCULAR FINDINGS.

When we turn our attention to the question of determining the causes for the great difference in the binocular parallax as an individual factor we must refer to the other data such as visual acuity, muscle balance, etc. The tests which provided this data were carefully made by one examiner and the results obtained checked by another. All visual tests were made under the same condition of surface brightness and illumination. Ocular muscle balance was determined by the screen and parallax tests. The near point of convergence was taken from a vertical plane through the anterior foci of the two eyes but the record was corrected to read from the center of rotation of the eyeballs by adding 25 mm. to the first finding. The interpupillary distance was measured in millimeters by the infinity method, i. e., when the visual axes were parallel.

The results of the tests for the near point of accommodation, however, are unreliable because unfortunately they were obtained subjectively and as a consequence many of the findings are absurdly small. When we are reminded that the observers were all endeavoring to make their maximum showing it is easy to understand why a test for accommodation under such circumstances should not be subjective. Fortunately the other findings provide sufficient reasons for the individual difference in classification.

In examining the data of Class A we find not only a very high visual acuity but also, except for two cases, a perfect symmetry of visual acuity. The difference exhibited by the two exceptions is only that between 20/10 and 20/10— for one, and 20/15 and 20/15+ for the other. The average visual acuity of the fourteen men was 20/15+ in each eye. The lowest visual acuity was 20/20 O. U., which was found only in one observer. None of the men had ever worn a correction. Tests for muscle balance for distance revealed no hyperphoria. Eight men had orthophoria, and the other six from ½ to 3 prism diopters of esophoria. There was none with exophoria. The near point of convergence ranged from 63 to 100 mm. with an average of 83 mm., which is fully normal. The interpupillary distance averaged 66.14 mm., which is over the average. In brief, there were very high visual acuity, practically perfect visual symmetry and perfect muscle balance. These findings are the more significant after we examine the data of the other classes.

In Class B we find a little less visual acuity, more visual asymmetry and a few men with corrections; also a number of observers with small degrees of exophoria and with some hyperphoria; also a few men with a weak convergence for near. The interpupillary distance averaged about 2 mm. less than in Class A.

The other classes, C to M (See Tables IV to VII), show on the whole a steadily decreasing visual acuity and visual symmetry, more subjects wearing corrections and more cases of muscle imbalance.

There was another phenomenon. It was found that some men projected one rod nearer when actually it was the farther. This tendency began to show even in Class B, but became quite common in the lower classes. With some it appeared to be connected with a difference in the visual acuity of the two eyes. With others it seemed to be associated with some latent vertical or lateral deviation. Finally it appeared in a few observers to be the sole cause in reducing their power to judge distance. There was no uniformity as to the false projection of either the right or the left rod; one man might persistently project the left rod nearer and another man follow him immediately and strongly project the right rod nearer. It, therefore, cannot be explained by some fault in the method of testing. In fact there seems to be no adequate explanation of this phenomenon.

TABLE II. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS ACCORDING TO THEIR BINOCULAR PARALLACTIC ANGLE

Class A. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 5 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying	Vision	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Correct judgment in 20 trials—*Depth Differences: 30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	10 mm.	5 mm.	Per cent Correct at 5 mm.	Binocular Parallactic Angle.
1.	W. O'T.	19	Chauffer Med. Dept.	....	R.20/10 L.20/10	Orth	85	65	63	20	20	20	20	15	75	1.803″
2.	C. B. W.	26	Aerial Observer	180	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Eso 1½	120	63	63.5	20	20	20	20	16	80	1.819″
3.	O. A. B.	41	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	150	70	63.5	20	20	20	18	16	80	1.819″
4.	T. L. O.	25	Pilot	150	R.20/10 L.20/10—	Eso ½	145	80	63.5	20	20	20	20	15	75	1.819″
5.	S. A. P.	28	Pilot	65	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Orth	120	95	64	20	20	20	18	16	80	1.832″
6.	A. H.	21	Pilot	60	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	100	95	66	20	19	18	18	17	85	1.886″
7.	S. V. T.	26	Pilot	100	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Orth	110	95	66	20	20	19	18	16	80	1.886″
8.	D. R. S.	26	Pilot	300	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	R.115 L.105	65	66	20	19	18	18	15	75	1.886″
9.	W. R. D.	27	Pilot	500	R.20/20 L.20/20	Eso ½	90	90	66	20	20	19	20	15	75	1.886″
10.	J. N. L.	25	Pilot	150	R.20/10— L.20/10—	Orth	105	93	67	20	20	20	18	18	90	1.919″
11.	R. W. E.	23	Pilot	140	R.20/10— L.20/10—	Orth	97	75	67	20	19	19	19	16	80	1.919″
12.	W. A. B.	22	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/15+	Eso 3	65	100	69	20	20	20	16	18	90	1.978″
13.	L. B. C.	21	Pilot	150	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Orth	95	100	69	20	20	20	19	17	85	1.978″
14.	O. G. H.	21	Pilot	400	R.20/20 L.20/20	Eso 1½	93	75	72.5	20	20	20	17	15	75	2.077″
	Average	25			O.U.20/15+	Eso ½	106	83	66	..	..	..	..	..	80	1.893″

TABLE III. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS CONTINUED.

Class B. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 10 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer	Correct judgments in 20 trials—Depth Differences—30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	10 mm.	5 mm.	Per cent Correct at 10 mm.	Binocular Paralactic Angle	Remarks.
15.	C. B.	13	School Boy	....	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Eso 1	90	60	57	.....	20	20	17	16	11	80	3.255″	
16.	J. N. B.	44	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	375	80	59.5	.....	20	20	17	18	8	90	3.405″	
17.	Thom.	33	Pilot	250	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	150	90	60	.....	19	16	15	15	12	75	3.435″	
18.	L. P. K.	29	Pilot	250	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Eso 1	90	105	61	Left	20	17	15	16	9	80	3.488″	Tendency to project L. rod nearer when the two rods are in same plane.
19.	H. L. L.	31	Pilot	175	R.20/10— L.20/10	Orth	75	96	62	.....	20	20	20	17	8	85	3.545″	
20.	D. L. J.	23	Pilot	50	R.20/20 L.20/20	Orth	85	75	62	.....	20	18	18	15	10	75	3.545″	
21.	A. R. T.	23	Pilot	75	R.20/10 L.20/10	Orth	115	90	62.5	.....	20	20	19	19	10	95	3.571″	
22.	L. C. A.	22	Pilot	50	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 1	80	75	62.5	.....	20	17	19	18	12	90	3.571″	
23.	H. H.	24	Pilot	80	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Eso ½	100	95	63	.....	20	20	17	19	11	95	3.605″	
24.	G. A. B.	22	Pilot	400	R.20/15 L.20/10	Exo 1½	73	88	63	.....	20	17	17	17	10	85	3.605″	
25.	R. W. S.	25	Pilot	200	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Exo 1½	95	90	63	.....	20	18	19	16	8	80	3.605″	
26.	J. C. R.	23	Pilot	500	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	107	85	63	.....	20	20	20	17	13	85	3.605″	
27.	G. C. F.	22	Pilot	31	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	98	100	63	.....	20	20	15	16	14	80	3.605″	
28.	H. C. S.	25	Pilot	140	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Exo ½	105	125	63	.....	20	20	20	15	7	75	3.605″	
29.	J. T. D.	23	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15+ L.20/15—	Exo 1	90	75	63.5	.....	20	19	18	16	8	80	3.635″	Wearing moderate myopic correction. Vision excellent and practically equal.
30.	C. T. F.	23	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	R 130 L 115	65	64.5	.....	20	20	17	18	10	90	3.688″	
31.	P. W. C.	45	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo ½ L.H. ½	325	100	64.5	.....	20	20	18	15	12	75	3.688″	Wearing mixed astigmatic correction. Vision excellent and symmetrical.
32.	J. H. Mc.	26	Pilot	70	R.20/15— L.20/15	Eso ½	110	95	65	Right	20	20	20	17	8	85	3.721″	Tendency to project R. rod nearer when the two rods are in same plane.
33.	E. G.	26	Pilot	95	R.20/20 L.20/20	L.H. 1	92	82	65	.....	20	18	15	16	12	80	3.721″	
34.	W. C. S.	26	Pilot	90	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	95	85	65.5	.....	20	20	17	19	9	95	3.746″	
35.	H. Mac.	23	Pilot	100	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 2 R. H. ½	120	100	66	.....	20	19	18	19	11	95	3.771″	
36.	H. C.	27	Pilot	70	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	100	70	66	.....	20	20	20	15	13	75	3.771″	
37.	W. S. R.	24	Pilot	100	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	105	85	66.5	.....	20	19	17	16	12	80	3.804″	
38.	C. L. P.	23	Pilot	50	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	95	110	67	.....	20	20	19	16	7	80	3.835″	
39.	B. B.	22	Pilot	250	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1	97	85	67	Left.	20	20	15	15	8	75	3.835″	Tendency to project L. rod nearer when the two rods are in same plane.
40.	E. H.	33	Med. Corps	....	R.20/20 L.20/15	Orth	165	115	67	.....	20	20	16	15	9	75	3.835″	
41.	J. M. W.	39	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 3	140	60	67	.....	18	19	18	15	12	75	3.835″	Wearing myopic correction. Vision excellent and symmetric.
42.	A. W. M.	23	Pilot	300	R.20/15 L.20/10—	Eso 2	70	85	69	.....	20	19	19	17	12	85	3.946″	
43.	T. J. V.	24	Pilot	300	R.20/20— L.20/10—	Exo ½	75	65	70	.....	20	20	16	15	11	75	4.005″	
44.	W. K. D.	22	Pilot	185	R.20/15— L.20/15	Eso ½	96	85	71	Right	20	18	17	15	5	75	4.057″	Tendency to project R. rod nearer when the two rods are in same plane.
	Average	26.2			O.U.20/15	Orth	118	87	64.3	.....	..	..	..	..	..	82.2	3.678″	

TABLE IV. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS CONTINUED.

Class C. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 15 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer	Correct judgments in 20 trials—Depth Differences—40 mm.	30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	10 mm.	Percent Correct at 15 mm.	Binocular Paralactic Angle	Remarks.
45.	H. J. H.	39	Med. Corps	....	R.20/10 L.20/10	Eso ½	145	70	59	.....	20	20	20	15	10	75	5.056″	Wearing high correction for compound hyperopic astigmatism.
46.	J. D. C.	23	Pilot	125	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	142	100	60	.....	20	16	19	15	11	75	5.143″	
47.	P. A. W.	26	Pilot	15	R.20/15 L.20/20	Orth	102	92	61	Right	20	18	16	16	12	80	5.230″	Wearing high mixed astigmatic correction.
48.	E. B. G.	38	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 2	145	60	62.5	.....	20	20	20	16	14	80	5.354″	Projects R. rod nearer. Vision better in right eye.
49.	E. L. H.	24	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/10	Exo 1	R 110 L 102	100	64	Left	20	17	18	16	13	80	5.482″	Projects L. rod nearer. Vision better in left eye.
50.	H. M. J.	34	San. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	150	95	64.5	.....	20	20	17	16	11	80	5.530″	See note below.
51.	L. H. B.	31	Med Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	R.H. ½	150	108	64.5	.....	20	20	20	15	13	75	5.530″	Convergence power below normal.
52.	C. K.	23	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 1½	R 90 L100	85	65	.....	20	20	18	18	9	90	5.574″	Wearing correction for compound myopic astigmatism.
53.	E. L. S.	22	Pilot	100	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1	95	85	66	.....	20	20	18	17	13	85	5.654″	Projects left rod nearer.
54.	W. G. B.	23	Pilot	100	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	90	100	66	.....	20	20	20	16	11	80	5.654″	Excessive exophoria for near.
55.	E. A. B.	28	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	110	90	66	Left.	20	20	20	15	13	75	5.654″	
56.	E. W. K.	27	San. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 1 Exo' 12	130	90	66	.....	20	20	19	15	13	75	5.654″	
57.	W. S. P.	26	Pilot	150	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1	115	95	67	.....	20	20	19	16	9	80	5.743″	
58.	R. W. P.	23	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	120	130	68	.....	20	19	19	16	11	80	5.829″	Has weak convergence.
59.	H. W. R.	24	Pilot	150	R.20/30 L.20/30	Eso ½	70	65	70	.....	20	15	16	16	10	80	6.004″	Thinks his low vision due to excessive smoking.
	Average	27.4			R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1/5	118	91	65.6	.....	..	..	..	..	..	79.3	5.540″	

Note:—Case No. 50 was the first subject experimented upon. The next day the effect of the shutter was discovered. A subsequent test of this man, who was a most careful observer, put him in Class A when shutter was used.

Among the less efficient classes there were three or four observers whose poor showing could not be explained on any of the data recorded. One of these however was suspected at the time of his test of not giving his conscientious cooperation, and two others admitted at the beginning of the test that they were very tired from lack of sleep.

It seems, therefore, from a study of the data in Tables II to VII that there are physical reasons for the marked individual variations in the ability of the binocular parallax to judge distance. Furthermore, that it is possible by means of an apparatus smilar to the one used here to eliminate those candidates whose judgment of distance is below normal and also to classify the normal observers into several groups according to their degree of excellence.

To determine what should be called a "normal" or "not normal" in the judgment of distance is a very difficult proposition. It is decidedly a relative matter especially when an examination affords a classification as this one does. A careful study of the data, however, convinces me that a break occurs between the 20 and 30 mm. depth-differences. Beyond the 20 mm. station there seems to be a physical cause for a poor showing in almost every case. With some it was visual asymmetry or some muscle imbalance. With others there was a persistent tendency to project one image nearer. Or it may be that the subject was wearing a high correction. Another thing is noted, i. e., the great majority of the flyers fell into the first four groups. This latter explanation may seem like an empirical one, so I take this opportunity to state what I should have liked to include in the tables, viz., that I took every opportunity possible to question the flyers upon their training, their accidents if any, and to obtain their opinions as to the importance of certain visual factors. Therefore basing my conclusions upon all the facts at my disposal, both those recorded and those unrecorded, I feel justified in recommending as normal a binocular parallactic angle not greater than 8.0", when the test is made with an apparatus made on the principles of the one used in these experiments.

An important feature of the test is the use of the screen or shutter. Lifting this quickly gives a sudden impression of the rods which is more accurate than is a delayed impression. In fact most of our every day depth judgments are made instantaneously or practically so. During the war, balloon observers in training were required to make instantaneous judgments of distance in spotting shell bursts near targets. Of course in this case linear perspective aided them greatly. An aviator recently told me he was convinced that the success of the great aces was largely due to the fact that they made instant decisions. It would seem then that accurate determination of not only visual but also depth perception reaction times would be of great value.

This last mentioned phase of the subject is made the more complex when we reflect that the flyer must not only judge his distance accurately, but also his speed. More properly therefore the whole subject might with profit be approached from the view point of trying to discover the correlation between judgment of distance and of speed. A priori it would seem that those flyers possessing very quick reaction times as well as small binocular parallactic angle thresholds should be able to give the best performances.

ACCESSORY DATA.

A. **Monocular Judgment of Distance.**

Our ability to judge distance with only one eye depends upon two things:

1. Terrestrial association.
2. Size of the retinal image, but this only when we recognize the object fixated or its association with some other object we know from experience.

In order to be able either to confirm or to refute the opinion expressed by some that the loss of an eye by an aviator should not necessarily disqualify him from further flying, I examined ten men for the purpose of learning their ability to judge distance monocularly. Nine of these men had already

TABLE V. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS CONTINUED.

Class D. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 20 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer	Correct judgments in 20 trials — Depth Differences — 40 mm.	30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	10 mm.	Percent Correct at 20 mm.	Binocular Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
60.	E. B.	12	School Boy	....	R.20/15 L.20/15—	Eso ½	82	75	58.5	.....	20	20	19	13	11	95	6.676″	
61.	H. A. G.	26	Pilot	300	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 2 Exo′ 9	108	95	59.5	.....	20	19	20	13	7	100	6.798″	Excessive exophoria both for near and distance.
62.	N. S. A.	24	Pilot	300	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	100	60	60	.....	20	20	17	11	8	85	6.850″	
63.	R. K. H.	23	Pilot	....	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Orth	100	85	60	.....	20	19	15	9	9	75	6.850″	
64.	C. P. M.	22	Pilot	175	R.20/15 L.20/15	Orth	95	70	61	.....	20	18	15	10	13	75	6.971″	
65.	R. J. H.	24	Pilot	200	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 1½ Exo′ 10	100	155	62	Left	20	20	18	7	11	90	7.077″	Projects left rod nearer. Has very weak convergence.
66.	N. B. L.	26	Observer	60	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo ½	127	88	62	Left	20	20	16	12	11	80	7.077″	Projects left rod nearer.
67.	C. B. T.	31	Pilot	150	R.20/20+ L.20/20	Eso ½	102	85	63	.....	20	17	15	12	13	75	7.197″	
68.	G. A. Y.	32	Pilot	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1	120	75	63	Right	20	17	15	11	12	75	7.197″	Projects right rod nearer.
69.	H. R. C.	26	Pilot	100	R.20/20— L.20/20—	Eso 1	85	90	63.5	.....	19	16	16	13	12	80	7.250″	
70.	E. B. M.	22	Pilot	60	R.20/15 L.20/15+	Exo 4 Exo′ 12	100	175	64	.....	20	18	16	7	8	80	7.306″	Excessive exophoria and very weak convergence.
71.	J. L. J.	30	Pilot	175	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Orth	115	85	65	Left	20	20	18	5	7	90	7.423″	Projects left rod nearer.
72.	W. H. P.	24	Pilot	400	R.20/15— L.20/15	Eso ½	85	90	65	.....	20	18	18	13	11	90	7.423″	
73.	G. B. B.	25	Pilot	165	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Eso 1½ R.H. 1	95	60	65	Left	20	20	16	8	13	80	7.423″	Tendency to project left rod nearer. Has a latent vertical deviation.
74.	H. S. S.	22	Pilot	60	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 5	95	92	65	.....	20	20	16	6	8	80	7.423″	Excessive exophoria for distance.
75.	M. A. M.	31	Pilot	250	R.20/20— L.20/30	Exo 2	110	80	65	Right	20	20	15	8	11	75	7.423″	Projects right rod nearer. Vision not normal and not symmetrical.
76.	C. M. S.	23	Pilot	80	R.20/15— L.20/15	Orth	115	90	65	Left	20	19	15	8	6	75	7.423″	Projects left rod nearer.
77.	J. J. V.	24	Pilot	200	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Orth	85	80	66.5	.....	20	20	15	12	7	75	7.595″	
78.	H. M. H.	24	Pilot	160	R.20/10— L.20/10—	Eso ½	98	50	67	Left	20	18	17	16	13	85	7.650″	Projects left rod nearer.
79.	J. H. V.	29	Balloon Observer	150	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso ½	110	50	67	.....	20	20	16	11	12	80	7.650″	No sleep the previous night. Gave conscientious assistance in test but stated he was too tired to do well.
80.	B. L. W.	56	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Eso 4	310	75	67	.....	20	15	16	10	9	80	7.650″	Wearing hyperopic and presbyopic corrections. Accommodation taken without near correction.
81.	D. C. M.	25	Pilot	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 1	75	50	67	.....	20	19	15	14	10	75	7.650″	
82.	R. E.	24	Pilot	125	R.20/15 L.20/15—	Eso 3 Eso′ 10	65	60	71	.....	15	16	16	14	8	80	8.105″	Has had marked asthenopic symptoms recently. Examination showed mixed astigmatism.
	Average	26.3			O.U.20/15—	Eso ¾	108	83	64	.....	..	..	..	..	..	81.5	7.308″	

Note.—Phoria for near has only been recorded when abnormal Near findings are designated by the prime sign, e. g., Exo′ 12.

TABLE VI. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS CONTINUED.

Class E. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 30 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	Correct judgments in 20 trials—Depth Differences—50 mm.	40 mm.	30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	Percent Correct at 30 mm.	Binocular Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
83.	W. W. M.	26	Pilot	....	R.20/20—L.20/15	Orth	84	65	62	Right	16	15	15	10	..	75	10.604″	Projects right rod nearer. Very erratic, easily fatigued. Loss of sleep several nights.
84.	C. T.	26	Pilot	170	R.20/15+ L.20/15+	Orth	120	65	62.5	Left	20	18	15	6	..	75	10.686″	Strong tendency to project left rod nearer.
85.	C. P. H.	31	Pilot	....	R.20/15—L.20/15—	Exo 5 L.H. ½	190	90	63	.....	..	20	19	13	11	95	10.774″	Has muscle imbalance.
86.	E. W. D.	41	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Eso 2	105	80	64	.....	..	20	16	11	12	80	10.940″	Wearing high hyperopic correction.
87.	J. H.	28	Med. Corps	....	R.20/15 L.20/15	Exo 1	135	67	64.5	.....	..	20	17	11	8	85	11.029″	Wearing high hyperopic correction.
88.	E. C.	47	San. Corps	....	R.20/20—L.20/20+	Exo 1 L.H.1	R170 L160	90	64.5	.....	18	19	16	12	8	80	11.029″	Wearing myopic correction. Has latent vertical deviation.
89.	P. D.	43	Med. Corps	....	R.20/10 L.20/10	Exo 2	185	55	65.5	.....	..	20	16	12	10	80	11.204″	Wearing astigmatic correction.
90.	J. D. G.	37			R.20/15—L.20/15—	Exo 2 R.H.½	155	115	67	.....	..	20	18	13	13	90	11.459″	Has weak convergence.
91.	J. D. B.	29	Med. Corps	....	R.20/10—L.20/10—	Orth	110	90	67	Right	..	20	16	7	..	80	11.459″	Projects right image nearer. Wearing high correction for hyperopic astigmatism.
92.	J. R. C.	21	Pilot	100	R.20/20+ L.20/20—	Eso 1	90	80	69	Left	..	20	17	12	7	85	11.802″	Strong tendency to project left rod nearer.
	Average	32.9			R.20/15—L.20/15	Exo 4/5	134	80	65	.....	..	..	..	..	..	82.5	11.099″	

Class F. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 40 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	50 mm.	40 mm.	30 mm.	20 mm.	15 mm.	Percent Correct at 40 mm.	Binocular Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
93.	C. J. R.	52	San. Corps	....	R.20/40+ L.20/30	Exo 1	190	100	65	.....	20	18	12	14	11	90	14.800″	Wearing correction but vision not normal and not symmetric.
94.	G. C. P.	30	Pilot	300	R.20/30—L.20/30—	Exo ½	75	100	66	.....	20	16	13	11	..	80	15.021″	Vision not normal but equal in the two eyes. Had no serious landing trouble.
95.	L. E. B.	30	Balloon Observer	100	R.20/30 L.20/15	Exo 1½	R165 L192	100	69	Left	20	17	10	..	..	85	15.705″	Projcts L. rod nearer. Considerable uncorrected hyperopia.
	Average	37			R.20/30—L.20/20—	Exo 1	147	100	67	.....	..	..	..	..	..	85	15.175″	Vision better in left eye.

TABLE VII. CLASSIFICATION OF OBSERVERS CONTINUED.

Class H. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 60 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	Correct Judgments in 20 trials — Depth Differences — 90 mm.	60 mm.	50 mm.	40 mm.	30 mm.	Percent Correct at 60 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
96.	H. F. H.	24	Pilot	300	R.20/30— L.20/20—	Eso ½	95	110	62	.....	..	20	13	16	8	100	21.103″	Slightly myopic. Vision not symmetric. Has weak convergence.
97.	E. W. D.	41	Med. Corps	....	R.20/30 L.20/30	Eso 2	105	80	64	.....	..	20	11	..	..	100	21.780″	Same case as No. 86, but with vision uncorrected.
98.	P. W. C.	45	Med. Corps	....	R.20/50 L.20/50+	Exo ½ L.H. ½	325	100	64.5	.....	20	16	11	..	..	80	21.949″	Same case as No. 31, but with vision uncorrected.
99.	J. M. W.	39	Med. Corps	....	R.20/50 L.20/50	Exo 3	140	60	67	.....	..	20	..	..	..	100	22.805″	Same case as No. 41, but with vision uncorrected.
	Average	37.3			R.20/40 L.20/40+	Exo ¼	166	88	64.4	.....	..	..	..	..	..	95	21.909″	

Class I. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 90 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	150 mm.	120 mm.	90 mm.	60 mm.	50 mm.	Percent Correct at 90 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
100.	P. F. O.	28	Pilot	150	R.20/30+ L.20/30+	Eso ½	100	50	62	Left	20	19	16	14	8	80	31.498″	Very strong tendency to project left rod nearer. Vision not normal but equal.
	Average	Same as above.																

Class J. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 120 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	120 mm.	90 mm.	60 mm.	50 mm.	Percent Correct at 120 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
101.	V. T. S.	30	Med. Corps	....	R.20/70 L.20/200	Eso 1	145	160	69	.....	20	17	14	10	8	85	46.502″	Highly myopic; not corrected.
	Average	Same as above.																

Class K. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 180 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	180 mm.	150 mm.	120 mm.	90 mm.	60 mm.	Percent Correct at 180 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
102.	J. M. W.	39	Med. Corps.	....	R20/200 L.20/200	Exo 3	140	60	67	.....	18	..	..	..	..	90	67.077″	Same case as Nos. 31 and 98. Left eye alone corrected to make vision symmetric.
103.	A. B. H.	26	Pilot	120	R.20/15— L.20/15—	Eso 3	102	70	71	Left	20	14	12	10	13	100	71.082″	Strong tendency to project L rod nearer. Single binocular vision for near, but intermittent for distance.
	Average	32.5			O.U.20/50—	Orth	121	65	69	.....	..	..	..	..	..	95	69.079″	

Class L. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 270 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	300 mm.	270 mm.	240 mm.	210 mm.	180 mm.	Percent Correct at 270 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
104.	W. T. G.	39	A. S. Non-Flier	....	R.20/50+ L.20/15	Eso 4	R250 L185	80	64	Right	20	18	12	16	8	90	94.730″	Small central relative scotoma R. E. Strong tendency to project right rod nearer. Vision not symmetric.
	Average	Same as above.																

Class M. (Those whose threshold is represented by a depth difference of 360 mm.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Army Service.	Hours Flying.	Vision.	Muscle Balance.	N.P. Accom.	N.P. Conv.	Inter P.D.	Image Projected Nearer.	360 mm.	240 mm.	180 mm.	Percent Correct at 360 mm.	Binocular. Paralactic Angle.	Remarks.
105.	J. M. W.	39	Med Corps	....	R.20/200 L.15/200	Exo 3	140	60	67	.....	16	..	..	..	80	130.359″	Same case as Nos. 31, 98 and 102, but with vision wholly uncorrected.
106.	S. E. G.	55	Med. Corps	....	R.20/200 L.20/100	.....	..	..	70	.....	16	12	10	..	80	136.200″	Myopic test made without correction.
	Average	42			R.20/200 L.20/200—	.....	..	..	68.5	.....	..	..	..	..	80	133.280″	

been examined by the binocular test. The tenth man was an aviator who had lost one eye thru an accident. The result of these tests are recorded in Table X. The same apparatus was used for both the binocular and monocular tests, so the results are comparable. In the former test it was accepted tentatively at least, that not more than two factors, the binocular parallax and the retinal image, operated in the depth-difference determinations, whereas in the monocular test the difference in size of the retinal images or visual angles of the two rods was the only determining factor. From the data of Table X, it is noted that the average depth-difference representing the first recognition of an inequality of the two rods was 250 mm. According to computation derived from Table VIII, this distance represents a difference in visual angle of 0.23′ or 13.8″. The average monocular threshold depth difference, however, is somewhat larger. From the same table we find it to be at least 285 mm. which represents a visual angle difference threshold of 0.26′ or 15.5″. By referring to the records showing the binocular ability of the nine men we find that their average binocular threshold was represented by a depth-difference of only 14.4 mm., or by a binocular parallactic angle of 5.3″. This is about one-third the size of the visual angle required for the monocular test. If however, we compare the depth-difference thresholds we find that the binocular ability is twenty times that of the monocular. In other words, according to this conventional test, the binocular parallactic ability is twenty times more valuable as a determining factor in the judgment of distance than the best discrimination recognizable by the retinal image.

From the results obtained by the binocular and monocular tests it is evident that the apparatus altho devised to eliminate all factors except the binocular parallax and the visual angle, actually eliminates everything except the binocular parallax when the test is made with both eyes.

Another important distinction was revealed by the test, and that is, judgment with monocular observation is very slow. One must carefully study the object and surrounding data while binocular judgment is practically instantaneous.

Monocular vision is also very liable to a "reversal" deception, e. g., a valley may appear in perspective as a hill or vice versa. In case of a wrong interpretation by a one-eyed aviator trying to land, his disillusionment might easily come too late. On the other hand binocular single vision may be deceived only when the depth-difference is less than that which subtends the individual's least binocular parallactic angle. What would at first thought appear to be an exception in the case of binocular vision, and which

TABLE VIII. VARIATIONS IN THE VISUAL ANGLE SUBTENDED BY A 10 mm. ROD AT DIFFERENT DISTANCES.

Distance in mm.	Angle in minutes
6000.	5.730
6005.	5.725
6010.	5.720
6015.	5.715
6020.	5.710
6030.	5.701
6040.	5.691
6050.	5.682
6060.	5.673
6090.	5.645
6120.	5.617
6150.	5.590
6180.	5.563
6210.	5.536
6240.	5.509
6250.	5.500
6270.	5.483
6285.	5.470
6300.	5.457
6330.	5.431
6360.	5.405

TABLE IX. SIZE OF OBJECT REQUIRED TO MAINTAIN A VISUAL ANGLE OF 5.73 MINUTES AT THE FOLLOWING DISTANCES:

Distance in mm.	Size of object in mm.
6000.	10.000
6005.	10.008
6010.	10.017
6015.	10.025
6020.	10.033
6030.	10.050
6040.	10.067
6050.	10.083
6060.	10.100
6090.	10.150
6120.	10.200
6150.	10.250
6180.	10.300
6210.	10.350
6240.	10.400
6250.	10.417
6270.	10.450
6285	10.475
6300.	10.500
6330.	10.550
6360.	10.600

renders it almost as helpless as monocular, occurs when the distance to an absolutely flat surface with no associated objects within the visual field is to be judged, like the distance from an aeroplane to the surface of a perfectly calm sea. In this instance, however, the problem is reduced purely to the judgment of absolute distance with no relative distance criteria to assist. In other words there is no depth-difference to be judged when there is apparently only one distance.

B. Judgment of relative and absolute distance.

Some one may offer the criticism that with this apparatus the applicant is asked to perform a test for judgment of relative distance when the aviator's chief problem is absolute distance. The answer to this is that correct judgment of the latter depends upon the summation of a series or succession of judgments for relative distance, i. e., our eyes instinctively and unconsciously travel back and forth from one associated object to another over the interval to be judged, perhaps not only once but several times before our judgment of absolute difference is made. The best example to prove this is the great error made by untrained observers in judging distance on the water.

C. Night Landings.

A difficulty similar to landing upon a calm sea arises in making night landings. There is a lack in the necessary visual- and depth-difference contrasts. The Navy Department recognized this difficulty and several months ago devised an instrument to overcome it. According to a statement in Aerial Age Weekly of February 24, 1919, "The naval night altitude indicator consists of four spot lights whose rays are projected downward from the fuselage at such an angle that when the altitude of fifty feet is reached the two right and two left beams meet, forming a single spot on the ground. As the plane drops to a still lower altitude the beams again diverge, thus indicating the approximate distance from the ground. With a little practice the aviator is enabled to make very accurate landings with the assistance of this device."

D. The Projection of Objects Horizontally superimposed.

A test was made on several men to

TABLE X. MONOCULAR JUDGMENT OF DISTANCE USING SIX METER STEREOSCOPE.

(Judgment was made by the difference in size of the retinal images of the two rods.)

No.	Name.	Age.	Vision.	Correct judgments at the following depth differences: 180 mm.	210 mm.	240 mm.	270 mm.	300 mm.	First noted one rod larger when depth difference was	Monocular Threshold	Represents visual angle difference of	Binocular Threshold	Represents binocular parallactic angle of
1.	N. B.	44	R.20/15	....	50%	90%	100%	.....	210 mm.	240 mm.	13.2"	10 mm.	3.4"
2.	H. M. J.	34	R.20/15	40%	60%	70%	90%	.....	240 mm.	240 mm.	13.2"	5 mm.	1.9"
3.	P. C. D.	43	R.20/10	55%	35%	65%	70%	95%	210 mm.	270 mm.	14.7"	30 mm.	11.2"
4.	C. K.	23	R.20/15	40%	....	50%	....	100%	240 mm.	300 mm.	16.4"	15 mm.	5.6"
5.	E. C. C.	47	L.20/20	40%	50%	60%	....	100%	240 mm.	300 mm.	16.4"	30 mm.	11.0"
6.	E. W. H.	33	R.20/15	60%	60%	30%	....	90%	210 mm.	300 mm.	16.4"	10 mm.	3.8"
7.	E. B. G.	38	R.20/15	....	60%	60%	....	70%	300 mm.	300 mm.	16.4"	15 mm.	5.3"
8.	P. W. C.	46	R.20/15	40%	50%	39%	35%	40%	270 mm.	Over 300 mm.	Over 16.4"	10 mm.	3.7"
9.	C. R.	41	R.20/15	....	30%	....	50%	60%	270 mm.	Over 300 mm.	Over 16.4"	5 mm.	1.8"
10.	M. B. C.	20	L.20/20	50%	....	45%	....	65%	300 mm.	Over 300 mm	Over 16.4"	R. Eye Blind....	
	Average	37	20/15	48%	48%	58%	69%	77.5%	250 mm.	Over 285 mm.	Over 15.5"	14.4 mm.	5.3"

determine their ability to judge which of the two rods was nearer when the apparatus was turned over on its side, thereby putting the rods in a horizontal position. In doing this the advantage of the binocular parallax was entirely lost and, as was to be expected, the judgment of the relative position of the horizontal rods was no better with two eyes than with one, and was reduced solely to the one factor, viz., the size of the retinal images. A recent aeroplane accident serves as a practical illustration of this inability to judge horizontal objects especially when they are suspended in the air with no linear parallax and other terrestrial association factors to help. During the Fifth Liberty Loan campaign an aviator was flying a captured Fokker as a member of the U. S. flying circus. He attempted to make a landing in a field in Cincinnati. His approach was at right angles to and over two sets of telegraph and telephone wires. He flew close to the ground intending to zoom over the wires and then drop down into the field. What actually happened was that he tore down both sets of wires, broke down a large pole and crashed. If the flyer had realized the difficulty of accurately projecting or judging the distance of horizontal wires with only the sky as a background, he probably would not have attempted the feat.

CONCLUSIONS.

1. Of all the personal factors which aid us in the judgment of distance, the binocular parallax is the most important. By experiment it was found to possess twenty times the ability of the retinal image or visual angle which is the important factor in monocular judgment. This however should not represent the comparative depth judgment skill of two and one-eyed persons, because in actual life the extraneous factors by helping both equally, serve greatly to lessen the difference in ability of the respective personal factors.

2. The minimal binocular parallactic angle varies greatly with individuals. It depends upon such factors as visual acuity, equality of visual acuity or visual balance, muscle balance, interpupillary distance, and probably some innate and acquired ability.

3. Fourteen observers (twelve of whom were pilots) out of one hundred and six examined were found to possess judgment of distance to a remarkable degree. Their binocular parallactic angles ranged from 1.8″ to 2.0″ with an average of 1.89″.

4. To possess normal judgment of distance one's binocular parallactic angle should not be greater than 8.0″ when the test is performed with an apparatus made on the principles of the one used for these experiments. This includes classes A, B, C and D of this experiment (See Tables II to V).

5. An apparatus like the one used in this experiment is free from the criticism of the hand stereoscope. Furthermore, it permits of classification of individuals according to their discriminating ability. In view of the different requirements in various forms of military aviation it would be an advantage to be able to assign successful applicants to special training according to their different degrees of ability.

6. The value of such an apparatus is greatly enhanced and much smaller discriminations are possible by giving the observer a sudden impression of the objects to be judged. Otherwise there is apt to be a disconcerting fluctuation of those objects. Most of our natural binocular judgments are more or less instantaneous. Therefore the shutter on the apparatus is an important requirement.

7. The binocular parallax operates in the judgment of objects maintaining some horizontal or lateral separation, but not for superimposed objects like telegraph wires. In the latter instance judgment is dependent upon the interpretation of the retinal images when all factors extraneous to the individual like terrestrial association and aerial perspective are excluded.

8. To estimate correctly the position of an object one must know its

direction and distance. Direction is judged more accurately with one eye but distance better with both. To be denied the privilege of using either one or two eyes at will would be a distinct disadvantage to an aviator.

9. The reaction time required to make monocular judgments of distances is very slow, whereas binocular judgments are practically instantaneous.

10. A tendency to project one image nearer than the other was found in 23 out of the 106 subjects. Some showed this tendency to a marked degree. Altho some of these cases had muscle imbalance, others visual asymmetry, and still others had both these abnormal conditions, the phenomenon cannot be explained satisfactorily.

11. The wide variations in the visual angle and binocular parallactic angle thresholds according to the experiments herein recorded make it evident that the two angles have nothing to do with each other. It is a mistake therefore to assume because the cones in one's retina are limited to a certain distance apart, that one's binocular parallactic angle must necessarily be limited to the size of the visual angle representing that distance.

12. The effect of low oxygen on the depth perceiving sense is of little importance because, at the critical time during the flight, which is the landing, there is no lack of oxygen.

RELATION OF THE OCULAR MUSCLES AND SCLERA IN THE ETIOLOGY OF MYOPIA.

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This paper discusses probable factors in the etiology of myopia, and reports experiments bearing on the influence of compression upon the development of the eyeball.

There are many hypotheses concerning the genesis of myopia, which I will not repeat here. I wish only to call attention to the relation of the ocular muscles and sclera to myopia as indicated by my experiments.

I. Ocular Muscles and Sclera. All vertebrates (except myxinoids) have four recti muscles and two obliques, inserted on the eyeball. Some vertebrates have in addition a retractor bulbi, which is found in most forms from the amphibia upwards, but does not exist in man and monkeys.

The ocular muscles have the movement of the eyeball as their principal function; but that they may serve other purposes also is indicated by the fact that the ocular muscles of some animals are excessively developed in comparison with the size of their eyeballs. For example, the ocular muscles of the whale are of enormous size. Therefore Weber[1] suggested that such excessively developed muscles might serve as an elastic cover to protect the eye. But Pütter[2] said that the strongly developed ocular muscles may serve to keep the eye warm. Tho the physiologic function of the ocular muscles may not always be so simple, it can be easily understood that the eyeball-wall can undergo some pressure by the contraction of the ocular muscles; and if the muscles are strongly developed, the compression of the eyeball must be greater.

The sclera of vertebrates is composed of fibrous tissue, cartilage and bone. But that of mammals contains no cartilage or bone, except in the monotremes, which retain cartilage in the sclerotic coat. The thickness of the sclerotic coat varies with the species, and moreover its thickness varies in different parts of the same eyeball being thick in some parts, while thin in others. We know that the eye of the whale has a very thick sclerotic coat. Weber[1] explained this fact as

due to the resistance of the sclera against hydrostatic pressure. But the sclerotic coat of the whale is especially thick in the back of the eyeball. If its resistance against the hydrostatic pressure is the only reason for the thickness of the sclera, then the wall of the eyeball should be as thick in front as behind. I believe that this phenomenon is probably due to the resistance against the pressure of the strongly developed ocular muscles. Also in the human eyeball the sclerotic coat of its rear pole is the thicker, altho it is not so excessivcly thick as the whale. I should give in this case, too, the same explanation as for the whale.

I understand that the sclera of the eye of any animal is usually so constructed as to resist the pressure of the ocular muscles.

I once studied anatomically many Japanese eyeballs, and have found that the longest diameter of the adult eyeball runs from its inner-upper part to the outer-lower.[3] But I could not find the same condition in the eyes of the newborn and babies under one year, with few exceptions. I concluded, a posteriori, that the diameter, which runs from the inner-upper part to the outer-lower, is the longest of all the diameters of the eyeball. And I explained this condition as due to the relation of the insertions of the muscles on the eyeball and the pressure produced by their contraction.

I have conducted experiments in rabbits to determine the relation between the pressure of the ocular muscles and their influence upon the diameters of the eyeball. Ascher brought some young rabbits to the condition of forced convergence by advancing the attachments of their internal and inferior recti. After about five months he found no change of the form and the diameter of the eyeball. I have repeated the same experiment and found no influence upon the length of the diameters of the eyeballs.

Therefore I decided to make a stronger pressure upon the eyeball. For this purpose I used a foreign body, which I tried to wedge between the ocular muscles and eyeball. As a foreign body I have used an absorbent cotton-ball, which is tied fast by silk thread. It is almost as big as a kernel of rice and is disinfected by boiling. The operation, which is to put the cotton-ball between the muscles and eyeball, was only successful on the upper side, that is, between the superior rectus and the eyeball. On the other three sides I had no success, because the ocular muscles were easily broken during the manipulation. On these three sides I was obliged to leave the cotton-ball over the exposed muscles, putting the foreign body in between the margin of the orbit and the corresponding muscle. In this way the eyeball may be constantly compressed by such a foreign body. At the beginning of these experiments I used to expose the ocular muscles by cutting the bulbar conjunctiva. But this operation often results in inflammation of the corner, so I improved it at last by incising the eyelid without hurting the bulbar conjunctiva for the purpose of exposing the muscles.

In these experiments 41 young rabbits (22-30 days old) were used, and in one eye of each rabbit a foreign body was inserted, while the other eye served as the control. Six months after the operation nine rabbits were alive, in three of which the foreign body was inserted on the upper side, and on the other three sides in two rabbits each. In these nine cases the three on the upper side (No. I, II and III of the next table) and the one on the lower side (No. IV) showed the following results, while the others showed no change of the diameters of the eyeballs:

	Vertical Diameter (in Mm.)		Transverse Diameter (in Mm.)		Antero-posterior Diameter (in Mm.)	
No.	Normal Eye	Operated Eye	Normal Eye	Operated Eye	Normal Eye	Operated Eye
I	17.35	15.8	18.4	18.8	16.3	16.5
II	17.7	17.5	19.2	19.4	17.1	17.2
III	16.6	16.0	17.3	17.4	16.0	16.0
IV	17.6	17.4	18.9	18.9	16.8	16.8

In experiment No. I, I have found that the part of the eyeball-wall, where the foreign body was wedged in, was s

bit flattened therefore the vertical diameter of the operated eye was 1.55 mm. shorter than that of the normal side, and the transverse diameter of the former 0.4 mm. longer than that of the latter, and the antero-posterior diameter of the former is 0.2 mm. longer than that of the latter. But the other cases showed only slight differences between the operated and normal eye or remained unchanged.

I decided to let the antero-posterior diameter undergo the influence of a stronger compression. So I bound the equator of the eyeball of young rabbits by silk thread, instead of wedging in a foreign body. For this operation a greatly curved needle was stuck thro the eyelid near the anterior or posterior canthus without hurting the eyeball or the bulbar conjunctiva, and running around the equator of the eyeball the thread was brought out again at the puncture and there tied. For this experiment six rabbits (25 days old) were used, of which three were living after six months. I enucleated both eyes of these rabbits, and found the silk thread tied around the operated eye already broken. The results of the measurements are as follows:

	Vertical Diameter (in Mm.)		Transverse Diameter (in Mm.)		Antero-posterior Diameter (in Mm.)	
No.	Normal Eye	Operated Eye	Normal Eye	Operated Eye	Normal Eye	Operated Eye
I	17.15	17.0	18.6	19.0	16.8	17.4
II	17.1	17.0	18.35	18.5	16.7	16.9
III	17.2	17.2	18.6	18.7	16.7	17.0

According to these experiments we can understand, that strong compression caused the antero-posterior diameter to lengthen, and these cases showed myopia (No. I myopia of 10 D, No. II and III that of 7 D) before their enucleation. But they all had nubecula near the margin of cornea, therefore these degrees of myopia cannot exactly correspond to the length of the antero-posterior diameter, and there was found no developing of conus at the fundus.

As a result of the experiments with rabbits, mentioned above, we conclude that, even a pretty strong compression, continuous upon the eyeball, cannot greatly lenghten its diameter. Therefore it seems likely that the pressure of the ocular muscles alone upon the wall of the globe cannot greatly change the antero-posterior diameter, if the wall is normally strong. But, if the resistance of the sclera is weaker than normal, even the compression of the ocular muscles alone could lengthen the antero-posterior diameter. I would ascribe the developing of juvenile progressive myopia to the pressure of the ocular muscles upon eyeballs with weak sclerotic coats.

II. The sclera is to be regarded as a part of the cranium. Most vertebrates below the Mammals have a cartilaginous layer in the sclera, and many Selachii have a cartilaginous ocular support, which pushes into the orbit from the wall of the skull and supports the eyeball behind. Gegenbaur[4] rightly interpreted the existence of a cartilaginous ocular support as an indication that the sclerotic cartilage is derived from the skull. The form of the ocular support is not always the same; in some it is absent altogether, in others it is imperfectly developed, a rudimentary ocular support as suggested by Franz[5]. In any case the existence of the ocular support evidently proves the closest relation between primordial cranium s. chondrocranium and sclerotic cartilage.

I have pointed out that, at the beginning of the development of the sclerotic cartilage in the chick embryo, the cartilage first appears in the sclera at a point, which corresponds to the part where in the Selachii the ocular support touches the eyeballs. Therefore I regarded the sclerotic cartilage of the embryo as a part of the primordial cranium, and so consequently the sclera in the adult animal as developmentally a part of the cranium.

My opinion is not unreasonable from the embryologic point of view, for at the beginning of its development the eye starts as the primary optic vesicle at either side of the primary fore-brain. Therefore the sclera developing around the primary optic vesicle may corre-

spond to the cranium, which develops around the brain.

But the eye has its orbit. It may be thought that what corresponds to the cranium for the brain, is the orbit for the eye. But I have found such a correspondence unreasonable by my study of the orbit[6]. If we make a comparative study of the several bones in the so-called orbital wall of Amniota, we can assure ourselves these bones belong to the organs surounding the eye, or connect the surrounding organs with each other, and there is no bone, which must belong specially to the organ of vision. Therefore it is not correct from the standpoint of comparative anatomy to compare the relation of the orbit to the eyeball to that of the cranium to the brain. Altho the structure of the sclera is not always the same in the different kinds of animals, I can make the following suggestion.

The sclera of the eye corresponds to the cranium of the brain; consequently the sclera may be compared to the skeleton of the human body.

III. Development of myopia and its prophylaxis.

In the preceding paragraphs I have related some experiments concerning the relation between the compression of the ocular muscles and the resistance of the sclera against it, and from these I have concluded that the development of progressive myopia is due chiefly to more weakness of the sclera than normal. Therefore according to my thought the weak sclera causes a predisposition to myopia. Because of the correspondence of the sclera to the skeleton, some scrofulous, weak children may have a predisposition to progressive myopia.

Formerly tenotomy of the external rectus was tried as a treatment and prophylaxis of myopia. But there was no good effect.

I think that is because altho by the tenotomy the pressure by the ocular muscles on the eyeball may be temporarily a little reduced, unless the resistance of the sclera against the compression can be increased, such a treatment cannot assure a permanent cure for myopia.

Owing to my opinion as stated above I would at first suggest an improvement of the constitution as the prophylaxis for progressive myopia. Hence for children with weak constitutions an attempt must be made to strengthen the skeleton and with it the sclera. For this purpose I suggest, for scrofulous children especially, some proper sports.

According to my study[3], the size of the eyeball of children reaches by 8-9 years that of the adult. But of course the skeleton of children at that age is not so big and strong as that of an adult; and so the sclera in childhood may not be so strong as that of an adult. Usually progressive myopia develops in children of primary school age. Therefore in children, whether they have a predisposition to myopia or not, unhygienic exhaustion of the eye must be garded against, because unhygienic use of the eye can give an excessive compression of ocular muscles upon the wall of the globe, which is not yet strong enough to withstand it. This gives an opportunity to break the balance between the pressure of the muscles upon the eyeball and the resistance of the sclera against it. That is to say, this may provoke the development of myopia. I mean by "predisposition to myopia" in the above " ones with weak constitution, heredity of myopia and so forth."

By way of summary we may say that proper exercise for children with myopic predisposition forms the active prophylaxis for progressive myopia; and as a measure of general prophylaxis all children should be guarded against exhaustion of the eye.

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TUBERCLE OF THE CONJUNCTIVA.

JAMES ALLEN PATTERSON, M. D.

COLORADO SPRINGS, COLORADO.

This is the report of a case which was exhibited at the February, 1919, meeting of the Colorado Ophthalmological Society (see p. 343), with a note on subsequent progress.

I beg to show this case of Tubercle of the Conjunctiva, offer some remarks upon its diagnosis and treatment and exhibit photographs of the condition taken three weeks after the operation, which will be mentioned. A much milder case with tinted illustration was presented to this Society in 1916[1].

This boy, age 13, was first seen on Sept. 21, 1918, his parents giving a history of enlarged parotid gland for some weeks, which was suspected to be mumps when first observed.

The conjunctival trouble had been present all summer and had been treated by the family physician, who used argyrol. Inspection showed the upper lid of the right eye to be thickened and sufficiently heavy to give the appearance of ptosis. Further observation disclosed a large tumor mass high up under the lid which prevented the lid being everted unless great force was used. The bulbar conjunctiva was white excepting for two small reddish elevations near the caruncle, extending toward the limbus, which were accompanied by vessels springing from the caruncle. There was a third small one in the lower cul de sac below the others, otherwise the lower lid was free from invasion.

There was great enlargement of the upper part of the parotid gland, also of another gland which is located just below and over the malar process.

The nose was normal but the tonsils and adenoids were enlarged. The patient did not appear ill, the color of his skin was good, altho his appetite was poor, and his body weight below normal. He had been brought to this climate for the relief of asthma, which has subsided.

Owing to the condition of the tonsils, the enlarged glands, and the fact that the lid could not be everted without sufficient force to cause considerable pain, it was decided to remove the tonsils and adenoids; and while the patient was under the anesthetic, to turn the lid for exploration and treatment. This was done on Sept. 25, when there was found under this eyelid large masses of granulation-like tissue, a majority of the granules being surmounted by a small yellow spot, quite suggestive of tubercle. Slightly to the nasal side of the center of the everted lid there was a deep ulcer, fully 3 mm. in width, extending to the cartilage. The exposed surface was thoroly scrubbed with gauze. It was then found that there remained very tough ridges of a lineal ulcer extending horizontally over the entire everted lid; the ulcer first mentioned being as it were, the bottom of the crater. These hard edges were trimmed smooth with scissors, cauterized with nitrat of silver, it being the only available caustic at the hospital.

The tonsils and adenoids were then removed, a large mass of cheesy material being evacuated from the supratonsillar fossa of the left side.

The next day the patient returned home, it being notice that the glandular enlargements had already lessened in size and were softer. The eye showed almost no reaction.

Diagnosis. The tentative diagnosis of tubercle was made from the glandular involvements and the appearances.

As the photographs show there were on all sides of the ulcer the typical papules, surmounted by small tubercles. The appearances were not in any way suggestive of trachoma, and the ulcer still further disproved it. Furthermore there was not the horny nor flattened pavement-like appearances, nor were there any symptoms that would suggest any likelihood of the affection being vernal conjunctivitis. Parinaud's con-

junctivitis was thought of, and the microscopic illustrations of Verhoeff's observations (A. J. O. Oct. 1918) were compared, but the pathologist excluded the possibility of such diagnosis. (Figs. 1 and 2.)

Smears taken showed the presence of tubercle bacilli. The excised specimens were given to Dr. Ryder, of the laboratory of Drs. Webb and Gilbert, who reported that the sections showed areas of caseation with tubercle bacilli in the surrounding margins. These bacilli as well as those found in the smears were acid fast. Dr. Ryder found no cartilage in the sections.

Treatment—I have noted on Oct. 17, that the eye has been treated twice weekly, that there has been some improvement, particularly of the small elevations on the palpebral conjunctiva. Up to Nov. 9 the improvement was very slow, and after trying glycerit of tannin, saturated solution of trichloracetic acid and formaldehyd in varying dilutions up to full strength, I began giving 1/10,000 mg. of O. T. once a week, which dose was not increased until three weeks ago; it has now reached 1/5,000 mg.

After the first two injections there was a very small local reaction, which disappeared inside of twenty-four hours.

The tuberculin has had more action upon the glands than upon the invasion of the lid. After every dose of the T. O. there has been some lessening in size of the glandular swelling and coincidently he has had at times threatenings of asthma, just a slight, barely noticeable wheeze. The lid has, however, seemingly been improved more by the trichloracetic acid used to cauterize thoroly than by any of the other methods tried. This has been done once weekly.





Fig. 1. Fig. 2
Tuberculosis of the Conjunctiva (Patterson).

The invasion near the caruncle mentioned, disappeared within three weeks but there has been some characteristic extension upon the lower lid involving the outer half. This extension has been modified and its spread controlled by the same treatment.

April 23, 1919. The patient has not had tuberculin since Feb. 15. He was taken from school for three weeks, kept out-of-doors, and not allowed to become fatigued. This regimen with a local treatment once a week, has produced marked improvement. The invasion mentioned upon the lower lid has disappeared; the upper lid, although pale from scar tissue, is smooth. The eye is white, free from iritation and conjunctival discharge.

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NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

SUBCONJUNCTIVAL GRAFT OF FASCIA LATA.

JOEL WHITAKER., M. D.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

I wish to report a subconjunctival graft, which I used recently with success.

The boy was injured by a splinter of kindling wood piercing his right eye. The wound was at "9 o'clock" on the corneoscleral margin, and just in front of the ciliary body, and extended over three millimeters into the cornea. The iris was torn by the splinter, but fortunately the lens and the ciliary body were uninjured.

The wound occurred in the summer of 1918, and the eye was first treated at a dispensary in Louisville. I saw the boy about July at the Indianapolis City Dispensary; there was then a protrusion of the iris thru the unhealed wound. I did an iridectomy and covered the opening with a single conjunctival patch, after Kuhnt's method. This conjunctival patch was not strong enough to hold, and "ballooned" over the opening with a little more iris protruding.

I again did an iridectomy and used a double conjunctival patch with the same unfortunate result.

On December 10, 1918, there was no plus tension with a McLean tonometer, and the vision was 20/100, so I knew a stronger patch was necessary. While talking to Dr. Murray Hadley, a surgeon of Indianapolis, he suggested fascia lata, and it was this which I used.

I cut away the conjunctiva over the wound and undermined it well back. At the corneal edge of the wound I split the cornea which was much easier to do on account of the conjunctiva which had become attached from the former patch. The opening into the eye was then entirely exposed, irregular in shape, and about 4x3 mm. in size. I took a piece of fascia lata about 1 cm. square, trimmed off the edge to dovetail into the split cornea. I placed this patch under the conjunctiva and put the beveled edge into position where I anchored it snugly with a single stitch, passing thru the fascia lata and outer portion of the cornea. I then passed a silk suture thru each of the other edges of the fascia letting them come out thru the conjunctiva well back. By tightening these three stitches I could use them as "guy ropes" against the point anchored to the cornea, to make the patch fit more snugly to the eye, and at the same time loosen up the conjunctiva with which to cover it. These stitches were then tied and the patch entirely covered with the conjunctiva.

I have seen the boy several times since, and the eye needed no further interference beyond removing the stitches.

In July, 1919, the patch had every appearance of doing all I could wish. His vision was then 20/70. Tension was 22 mm. with McLean tonometer, and with his correction of +1.00 S ⌒ +2.50 C ax 70° he had 20/20 vision under mydriatic.

I believe from my single experience that fascia lata has proven to make a live subconjunctival graft of great strength, which is tolerated by the cornea. It can easily be gotten under local anesthesia from the leg just above the knee, thinned down and cut into any desired shape. All of the thinning down should be on one side, leaving the other smooth surface to go next to the sclera and the opening. While I have never used it for the purpose, I believe fascia lata could be better used than any other substance for replacing tarsal plate, should this be desired.

HEREDITARY CATARACT IN CALVES

CHARLES P. SMALL, M. D.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

The occurrence of hereditary cataract in calves was recently demonstrated upon five blind animals in the experi-

mental department of the College of Agriculture, University of Illinois. The youngest animal examined was a heifer, four months old; the oldest a heifer, one year and eleven months old. Two bulls, about six months old, and a heifer, seven months old, completed the number.

With the exception of the youngest animal, both eyes of all the others presented mature cataracts. Small chalky dots of further degeneration in the lens substance were seen in most of the cases. Because of the oval shape of the pupil, it was possible to view the fundus thru the clear opening between the edge of the opaque lens and the nasal border of the iris. In several of the eyes the lenses, apparently undeveloped in size, were seen thruout their entire circumferances, giving the appearance of a glass marble suspended in the clear vitreous. The other ocular conditions were practically identical in all the animals. Intraocular tension, so far as could be judged, was normal. There was no ciliary nor conjunctival congestion. Light perception and a good degree of light projection was found in all cases. The pupils responded readily to light.

Both atropin and homatropin were employed, similarly to its use in the human eye, to observe the mydriatic effect. Full mydriasis was obtained in about one hour. In most of the eyes, dilatation of the pupil was uniform; in a few eyes there were slight points of posterior synechiae. The fundi were examined by an electric ophthalmoscope. The normal tapetum was seen, but very faintly or not at all. In other respects they appeared normal.

In the case of the four months old animal, the cataract was apparently soft; there was a loss of transparency, and the opaque radiating striae were faintly in evidence.

Thru the courtesy of Professor J. A. Detlefsen, of the Laboratory of Genetics, and his associate Mr. W. W. Yapp, who have in preparation a paper on the genetic aspects of this condition. It may be stated that their observations thus far carried out, correspond very closely to the Mendelian theory. Eleven blind calves have been observed, where they might have expected to find 9.375.

Of the five animals reported here, four came from a mating of the son of "Old Homestead" to his own half sisters, which were daughters of "Old Homestead." That is "Old Homestead" was mated to a number of unrelated females. The daughters from this mating were mated to a son from this mating. The youngest animal was derived from a daughter of "Old Homestead," mated back to "Old Homestead," her sire.

TRAUMATIC CATARACT. LENS ABSORBED WITHOUT OPERATION.

JAMES H. MCKELLAR, M. D.

LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA.

Believing that in some cases of traumatic cataract, operation is advised too readily, I present the following three cases, showing what nature will at times do, unassisted by operative interference. This is in no way a criticism of operation when absorbtion does not take place otherwise within a reasonable time; or when complications clearly indicate it. In such a case as II, I believe operation should always be advised. These cases are of interest also, in that they differ essentially in character from one another.

The first case is one of subconjunctival dislocation of the lens. The second of traumatic cataract, due to contusion; the third of traumatic cataract, due to punctured wound.

In each of these cases, practically the only treatment used was rest and instillation of atropin solution, with iced compresses at intervals at first, (if we except Christian Science treatment in the second case); yet in each case the ultimate result was as good as it could possibly have been, had the operation been resorted to.

CASE I. Negro bootblack, age 45, came to my office in April, 1909.

History—The night before he had engaged in a fist fight, and was struck on the right eye. Had not been able to see plainly with that eye since.

Examination — Lids swollen. Globe rather soft. Mass under conjunctiva temporal to limbus, which apparently consists of iris and cataractous lens. Conjunctiva unbroken. Break in the continuity of iris, corresponding to the portion seen under the conjunctiva. Eye aphakic, media fairly clear, fundus normal.

Diagnosis—Traumatic dislocation of lens and iris subconjunctivally. Iridodialysis. Rupture of globe.

Treatment—Rest and atropin.

Result—Eye was soon quiet, and tension normal. Dislocated lens became entirely absorbed. Dislocated iris shrunk. I was able to follow this case for a number of years. He had no complications of any kind during that time, and vision was good with correcting lens.

Case II. Sept., 1913. Boy aged 10.

History—Stated that he had been struck on the left eye, the day before, by a schoolmate. Had not been able to see with that eye since.

Examination — Conjunctiva injected. No wound of cornea or conjunctiva. Lens cataractous and swollen. Tension normal.

Diagnosis—Traumatic cataract.

Treatment—Rest and atropin. Iced compresses at intervals.

This case progressed favorably for several days, then I saw him one day, with marked pericorneal injection, and exceedingly high tension. I advised operation, which advice was refused. The case passed from my observation for several months, then one day the mother brought the boy to see me (partly, no doubt, that I might be enlightened as to the beneficent effects of Christian Science treatment, which she stated the boy had been receiving).

The eye was entirely free from irritation. The pupil was clear, the tension normal, and the vision was approximately normal with correcting lens.

*Case III. Jan., 1918. Boy, age 6.

History—Mother stated that several days before he had been playing with a hat pin, which had struck him in the right eye, since which time he had not been able to see with that eye.

Examination — Pericorneal injection. Punctured wound of cornea. Lens swollen and cataractous; tension normal. Iris uninjured.

Treatment—Rest and atropin. Iced compresses at intervals for first few days.

Result—Lens became absorbed uneventfully, and by October, 1918, pupil had entirely cleared. The eye was quiet, and with correcting lens vision was approximately normal.

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*This case has been reported in the California State Journal of Medicine.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

AMERICAN OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING.

Atlantic City, June 14-17, 1919.
President, Dr. Lucien Howe
of Buffalo.

Requirements of Ocular Examinations for the Army.

Dr. William H. Wilder, Chicago, considered these in detail. The changes made in such requirements since the beginning of the recent war have been chiefly in the direction of discriminating more closely between those conditions that actually incapacitate for service and those that do not. The general tendency has been to admit for special service those with defects that would incapacitate for some other branches, but do not interfere with the particular work of that special branch.

As to malingering, he found it impossible to ascertain the visual acuity of malingerers who consistently adhered to the claim that they could not see the largest test letters. But it was difficult to prove that they were making a false claim, or that they had vision sufficient to meet the requirements, altho they might be proved to have enough to avoid objects likely to hurt them.

Discussion.—Dr. E. C. Ellett, Memphis: All who had to do with the work in the camps must have marveled at the sort of men that occasionally got in. I saw one man brought in on a stretcher, with a shortening of one femur, so that he could not walk a step. One was mentally deficient, so that the family never allowed him to go about without an attendant. I think that the way in which these things happened was that the men were summoned to appear before a draft board, and if they did not do so, they were summarily put into the service. I saw another who had been made a noncommissioned officer and recommended to be sent to a training camp for officers, and was found to have an artificial eye. The camp I was in had a board that worked most efficiently. All the men who came to camp went before that board, and every man whose hearing or vision was not normal was immediately referred to the proper specialist for more complete examination.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: I just want to discuss one point, reclassification, which was the problem that came before the ophthalmologists in France. It was the subject of a great deal of thought on the part of Drs. Black and Derby and myself. Reclassification was asked for because the former classification was not clearly worded.

Dr. Wilder, closing: There was one point that I wished to bring out, in connection with the tests of malingerers that I found very useful. It is the ordinary prism test; using the fourteen or sixteen-degree prisms and putting the apex above and the base below. This makes two charts on the wall. You ask the man to read the first one, and then the other. You demonstrate that he can see two with the ordinary prism test. Then, when you raise it, you demonstrate, when he reads from the lower chart, that he is reading with the alleged blind eye.

The test for visual acuity, I think, is not very valuable for the class of people who insist that they cannot see well with either eye, and who habitually do not read the top letter of the chart. We scattered nails on the floor and had them walk around without their shoes, and they studiously avoided injuring their feet. We thus found cases of malingering that we could not find in any other way.

Dr. Alexander Duane, New York: I have succeeded in detecting two cases of malingering by another application of the prisms: one that would produce, if the patient were really using two eyes, a confusion; but that if he were really excluding one eye, would not cause confusion. I have succeeded in that way in convincing the friends of the person, in accident cases, that he

was either selfmisled or misleading them.

The Eyes of the Signalman.

Dr. Alexander Duane, New York, read the paper published in full in this JOURNAL, p. 555.

Observations of an Administrative Officer.

DR. WALTER R. PARKER, Detroit, gave an outline of the history of the recognition of specialties in the army medical service; and the organization and work of the Division of Surgery of the Head. Important functions were the selection of officers fitted for the special duties involved, the training of such officers in their specialties, the selection of special equipment required to make their work effective, and the organization of agencies and methods for assisting in the restoration and re-education of the soldiers requiring special treatment.

It had been extremely difficult to get specialists properly placed near the front so as to make their special ability available. Altho the specialties of brain surgery and dental surgery were likely to be dropped, those of ophthalmology and otolaryngology would be continued in the permanent organization of the army medical service after the war.

DISCUSSION.—Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: The work that was done abroad was predicated on the work that was done in the Surgeon General's office; and no man in America has done so much for the specialties in the army as Colonel Parker. It is due to his efforts, his workings with the general surgeons and convincing them of the necessity for the specialists, that we have gained what we have today for ophthalmology and the other specialties.

Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia: Colonel Parker has directed me to make an addendum to his paper. It is perfectly true that cantonment instruction in the head specialties, particularly ophthalmology, was not a brilliant success; but there were two exceptions. They had a very excellent school under the control of Colonel Todd, altho whether particularly in ophthalmology or not, I cannot state. Another successful school was at Camp Lewis, where a great deal of trouble was taken to instruct not only the ophthalmologists, but also those interested in the problems of ophthalmology as a specialty, and in its broader relations to general medicine.

Ocular Manifestations Following Exposure to Poison Gas.

DR. GEORGE S. DERBY, Boston, Mass., read a paper pointing out that the Germans first began to use gas for the purpose of disabling their enemies. It was at first sent over in the form of drifts or clouds. Among the varieties thus sent over was the so-called *lacrimatory gas*, which caused burning pain, copious lacrimation, injection of the conjunctiva and photophobia. There was also fine exfoliation of the epithelial covering of the cornea. The milder cases recovered very quickly, the corneal lesions showing no tendency to extend. The more severe cases were usually well within two weeks.

Much more serious were the injuries inflicted by *mustard gas*, which was first used in July, 1917. It was sent over in shells, and caused sneezing; painful irritation of the nose, throat and eyes; and sometimes vomiting. Its action was not noticed until from two to six hours after exposure, when severe erythema of the skin developed, followed by blistering, the moist parts of the body being more severely affected. Respiratory symptoms also developed; and in severe cases, bronchitis and secondary pneumonia. There was profuse lacrimation and considerable injection of the conjunctiva.

The mild cases constituted seventy-five to eighty per cent of those affected. In the remainder, the more severe cases, the lids showed redness and swelling, and often the formation of bullae. They were tightly pressed together, and all attempts to open them caused severe pain. In these cases, the cornea is markedly injected, and may show chemosis. In severely burned

cases, there is often an area of solid white edema of the conjunctiva in the palpebral fissure. The corneal lesions are also of varying severity, principally consisting of a roughening of the epithelium with irregular grayish scattered areas of opacity. In very severe cases, there is a whitish band traversing the cornea in the area of the palpebral fissure.

Eyes that are bandaged are made worse. It may cause secondary infection of the cornea. The lesions produced by mustard gas are in the nature of a chemical burn. In mild cases, recovery may take place in from one to two weeks. The moderately severe cases may last from four weeks to two months; and it may be four months before the most severe cases can return to duty. The nervous effect produced by the severe irritation of the eye sometimes produces a neurotic condition that is hard to overcome. The man fears that he is going to become blind, and often the general condition is impaired.

The gas mask will protect the eyes from the effects of mustard gas; but if they have been exposed to it, they should be washed out frequently with sodium carbonat or boric acid solution. A drop of some oil, such as liquid albolene, should be instilled. When there is much blepharospasm and irritation, atropin should be used. The eye should not be bandaged, but a shade or a pair of dark glasses should be worn. In cases of secondary infection, protargol or argyrol should be employed. Cold bathing and the instillation of a weak solution of sulphat of zinc are also of value. The patients always recover with normal vision, unless a severe involvement of the cornea has taken place.

Discussion.—Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston, Mass.: At Camp Devens I saw a number of these gas cases when they returned to this country. Their eyes were still in a very much irritated condition. Sometimes they quieted down somewhat; but the slightest irritation gave them a great deal of photophobia and made them unable to use their eyes. Exposure to cold might start them up. I saw all grades of sensitiveness. In a few cases, there was permanent corneal involvement, with vision cut down to 20/100, and there seemed no prospect that vision would get better.

I found nothing that would relieve this irritation. Weak cocain solution would make them worse, if kept up for any length of time. Castor oil seemed to produce a little benefit in some cases, but I finally decided to use nothing; and they did better on that than on anything else. The question arose in my mind whether these eyes that had been badly exposed, even without corneal involvement would ever reach a normal condition. It seemed to me that the men would have more or less trouble all their lives.

Dr. Walter B. Lancaster, Boston, Mass.: Dr. Derby spoke of the importance of starting these men right, by not letting them think that their trouble would be serious. There are two lessons to be drawn from these cases. One, the importance of starting the patients right, so that they will not fear the loss of their sight, or permanent disability; and the other is that similar things occur in private practice. Very slight injuries happen, and all the troubles of the patients are attributed to these injuries; while the truth is that the injury was only an insignificant factor, and simply started the ball rolling, the trouble being kept up by the patient's attitude towards it.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston, Mass.: Several points that Dr. Derby has brought out I wish to emphasize. One is the early treatment of these cases. We made efforts to have them treated within five or six miles of the front line, and the gas service was under the charge of a special medical officer. He wrote out for us some circulars, to be sent to the regimental surgeons and medical officers at the front, calling attention to the points that Dr. Derby has mentioned, particularly the nonuse of bandages. I saw one case that had come from the front in which both corneas were destroyed; and the patient

said that a bandage had been on both eyes and left there for three days, during transportation. Colonel Derby has told you that he went to one hospital and removed many bandages at one time. That bandaging was done away with later. In the circular, we advised avoidance of bandaging, early treatment and care not to hospitalize these cases. They were prone to become hospitalized. I saw one man who had been in the hospital for three months, in a dark room, and was in very bad shape. The only treatment that I advised was to send him out doors the next morning, without colored glasses or eye-shade, to work in the garden. That treatment produced a cure within twenty-four hours, showing the psychic influence on the condition. In the severe cases, it is similar to any caustic burn. Those who have seen mild burns, with the whitened conjunctiva lifted up around the cornea, and the usual corneal involvement that follows such severe burns of the conjunctiva, will have a good picture of these cases.

It is well to call attention to the really severe results following the use of gas in the war. One experience will always remain with me. In a little hospital six miles back of the firing line at Baccarat early in the spring of last year, there were brought in, during one afternoon, one hundred and fifty men who had been badly gassed. They took out thirty-five dead bodies from the ambulances that had contained one hundred and fifty living men when they left the front. All had been badly gassed by phosgene and mustard gas combined.

Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver: I saw a patient accidently exposed in the manufacture of gas in this country about seventy-two hours after exposure. The trouble with the eyes had appeared about thirty-six hours after the probable time of exposure. There was a free discharge from the conjunctiva, which consisted almost wholly of young epithelial cells. There were no polymorphonuclears, and no bacteria whatever were found.

Dr. Nelson M. Black, Milwaukee: Dr. Derby and Dr. Lancaster have called attention to the fact that it is important to start the men right, with the idea that they are not going to lose their eyesight. Dr. Derby hit upon an admirable plan. The men felt that they must have some protection from the light. As eye-shades were practically unobtainable, and dark glasses few and far between, Dr. Derby suggested to the nurses and men in the service to utilize the blue paper that came around absorbent cotton, and make eye-shades out of that. The result was that many men, who wanted to keep their heads down and their hands over their eyes, could go out and face the light that they had been so afraid of, by making small shades out of blue paper and putting it under their overseas caps. In a very short time, being guyed by men of their acquaintance for wearing this shade, it would come off, and they would be on the high-road to recovery.

Dr. Derby, Boston: There are three brief points that I wish to discuss. First, in regard to what Dr. Verhoeff said, that the experiments made under the direction of the medical war service showed that it is not improbable that hypersensitivity to mustard gas may occur in cases showing a persistent thymus and characteristic lymphoid hyperplasia. Second, eye-shades or dark glasses must be worn so long as the action of the atropin still exists. You cannot tell a man to take off the shade until that has disappeared. The third thing that I want to refer to is that Warthin and his associates have an excellent exhibition of slides of microscopic and other photographs at the Steel Pier, with the other exhibits; and it certainly is well worth seeing.

Primary Treatment of War Injuries to Orbits.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston, read a paper in which he called attention to the importance of preserving all tissue possible, in opposition to what was generally done in the case of wounds elsewhere. Primary suture of lid wounds, provided there is not a tremenous loss of tissue, is always indicated at the earliest possible moment

and with the greatest accuracy. Any debridement of lid wounds, such as is performed in other parts of the body, is absolutely contraindicated.

Small foreign bodies in the orbit should be left alone unless they are causing some trouble. Larger and more devastating foreign bodies in the orbit can be removed if this is possible without destruction of living muscle and nerve tissue.

Discussion—Dr. George S. Derby, Boston: I should like to emphasize one point that Colonel Greenwood has emphasized; and that is, leave foreign bodies in the orbit alone, unless you have to go after them, or unless they are large. A great many were left in, in France, and have been there ever since; and the men are apparently perfectly well. The orbit is a bottomless pit, it is often hard to find even a fair-sized body, and a great deal of damage may be done in searching for it.

Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia: Colonel Lister speaks of the comparative infrequency of hole in the macula as compared with other concussion lesions. That is not the experience in the concussion lesions that have come back to this country. At No. 11 and other camps, we have had a proportionately large number. Of the twenty-six severe concussion injuries that I examined, I found five typical holes in the macula—a pretty large proportion; and a great many have been reported since.

Dr. Derby: I was rather surprised at Colonel Lister's statement; because, working in No. 83 Hospital, I saw more holes in the macula than I had ever seen in my life before.

Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver: In relation to the frequency of holes in the macula, the examination of recruits for our army, including a careful ophthalmoscopic examination, showed that holes in the macula were much more frequent than the literature previously published would have led us to believe. I have a considerable series of cases that were found in that way. The most of these patients could give but little history of the cause of the hole. In many cases, the injury had probably occurred in early childhood; and the patients had never consulted an ophthalmologist or had their eyes examined with the ophthalmoscope.

Dr. Nelson M. Black, Milwaukee: Dr. Greenwood mentioned the fact that many of the men come across with such bad conditions of the orbit. In the early portion of the work in our army over there, when the evacuation hospitals were first organized, the ophthalmic section was not allowed to attach ophthalmic surgeons to them. Later, permission was given to do this; and, in ignorance of the conditions existing, the ophthalmic section did not select the most highly qualified ophthalmic surgeons for this work. This was an error; as the primary surgery is what counts in the end. As the result, in a large number of cases, an attempt was made at removal of the eyes, by the means that Dr. Greenwood speaks of, by the general surgeon.

Another factor was that in these evacuation hospitals, when the eye men were assigned to them, the percentage of eye wounds being relatively small, the eye man was not given a position on the general surgical team. He was given various other comparatively unimportant duties to do. Then, when a case came in, a chief on the surgical team would ask for the eye man; and considerable time was spent in finding him. When he was found, he had to get his instruments ready; and that took time. As the result, the surgical chief decided against sending for him, and enucleated the eyes himself.

Later, the suggestion was made by Colonel Greenwood that the eye surgeon be made assistant on a general surgical team to a general surgeon, and that tirage officers be requested to send all eye cases to this particular team. The general surgeon, in these cases, acted as assistant to the eye man. This change was made only lately, and did not become generally effective; but a great many officers acted on Colonel Greenwood's suggestion and did that. In the Third Army it was ordered that the eye man should be a member of a surgical team and assistant to the general surgeon, so as to be on hand at a"

times. When he was not on duty, the cases that came with eye injuries were sent to the ward. Then when the team to which the eye man was attached came on duty, the men's eyes were attended to.

Dr. Greenwood: I want to say that the suggestion of putting an eye man on the surgical team was made by Dr. Black, and not by me. I was glad to adopt his suggestion, which seemed exceedingly wise; and it worked out well, particularly when Dr. Black or Dr. Derby was a member of the team. The lack of ophthalmologists in the evacuation hospitals was a grave one in the early days. All had to go to the front and take positions in evacuation hospitals, and go from one to another during the stress of work, and try to cover these cases.

I want to draw one little picture of an evacuation hospital in time of stress. During the height of the Argonne offensive, I went to the most forward of the tip of the forest. It had been opened only two days. It had been raining a week, and was still raining, when I arrived there. The roads were a sea of mud. The hospital was in an old chateau, with tents scattered in the grounds around it; and practically every ambulance went up to the hub in this mud. The nurses and officers were wearing rubber boots; and those that were there to help out or to see how things were going wore overshoes. I entered the hospital at three o'clock in the afternoon. Every ward was crowded. Ambulances were coming at the rate of one every two or three minutes. Colonel Tracey, who had charge of the shock work, had four wards filled with shock cases. Among these cases were ten or fifteen men whose faces were practically ruined. I assisted the ophthalmic surgeon the best I could to patch them up temporarily.

I wish I had the power of speech and the ability to draw word pictures, so as to draw for you a picture of that hospital—the rain coming down in torrents, the sea of mud, the shock ward filled, a little heater at the foot of each bed, the men looking as if at their last gasp, ambulances coming in every two or three minutes, and the drivers exhausted. Thirty miles away, we had a special hospital for head cases; but it seemed a crime to ask the drivers to go thirty miles farther, to take these cases to the eye hospital. This shows the necessity of having a competent ophthalmic surgeon right at the spot.

Penetrating and Perforating Wound of the Eyeball with Diagnosis and Treatment of Retained Foreign Bodies.

Dr. William T. Shoemaker read a paper on this subject, published in full in the Journal, page 590.

Discussion.—Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston: There has long been a general misconception as to the danger of sympathetic ophthalmia following retained foreign body, and I agree with the speaker that this is much exaggerated. During the past nine years, I have examined a large number of eyes having the typical picture of sympathetic ophthalmia; and in not one have I found a foreign body. On the other hand, I have examined a great number of eyes in which foreign bodies had been retained for a number of years; and none of these cases showed sympathetic ophthalmia. There is more danger of the latter I think, in removing the body than in leaving it in; because you produce so much more trauma.

Regarding removal of the body, I would say that I prefer the anterior route, whenever it is possible to use it. We produce so little damage to the anterior parts of the eye in removing it that this need not concern us. Another thing I have noticed is that when we attempt to remove the foreign body through the anterior chamber, it sometimes becomes lodged behind the iris. It comes out until it strikes the sphincter, which is a very rigid ring; and then the foreign body catches on the sphincter. The natural tendency is to put the magnet opposite and try to draw it out; but it would be better to have the traction tangential to the pupil. In that way, the foreign body will ride over the sphincter and come out in the anterior chamber. If it is caught very firmly, I should pull it back a little bit, and then it would come out easily. I have seen eyes greatly mutilated by attempts to get foreign bodies out that were caught in the iris.

Dr. Samuel Theobald, Baltimore: Regarding the retention of foreign bodies in the eye, if they are aseptic and incapable of undergoing serious change, they may not damage the eyeball or produce serious consequences. I have seen a patient who, about forty years ago, got a spicule of glass in his eyeball. It had lodged in the anterior chamber under the upper margin of the pupil. While the patient was in my office, it fell down behind the iris. There was a sharp inflammatory reaction; and undoubtedly, as that subsided, the bit of glass was encysted. From then until the present time, the patient has not been able to notice any difference between the two eyes.

Dr. George S. Derby, Boston: Whether I agree or not with the Moorefields School of London, as to the advisability of extracting foreign bodies anteriorly except the very large ones, I must certainly admire tremendously their very splendid techniq for extracting foreign bodies thru the anterior chamber, as I saw it in the No. 83 General Hospital at Boulogne. The foreign body was pulled into the anterior chamber; and an incision made thru the clear cornea with a selected keratome, very carefully, so that little aqueous was lost. The foreign body was then pulled forward by means of a magnet, after which the small magnet manufactured by Weiss, in London, which works on some dry cells was placed over the foreign body, which was thus drawn up to the wound and emerged from it, without the necessity of introducing the instrument into the anterior chamber.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus, Ohio: I have been taught that a foreign body in the eye, in the course of forty, fifty or sixty years, will affect the other eye. Is it not too soon to draw any conclusions regarding sympathetic ophthalmia from war experiences? Has sufficient time elapsed?

Dr. Nelson M. Black, Milwaukee. In regard to the question of the occurrence of sympathetic ophthalmia from retained foreign bodies, I can say that we saw comparatively few cases of this in proportion to the large number of eye injuries. Comparatively few of these injuries were due to retained foreign bodies that were nonmagnetic, and cutting injuries, were due to other causes than those that would leave foreign bodies in the eye. I was wondering whether a possible factor in not having more sympathetic ophthalmia could not be the injections that the men received—typhoid, paratyphoid and tetanic injections—at the time of injury. Is that a factor worth considering?

Dr. William Tarun, Baltimore: I should like to speak of a few phases of this subject. One is the advisability of enucleating an eye during ophthalmitis. Dr. Chisholm, who had a hospital at Baltimore, has removed three thousand eyes for various lesions. A good many were having ophthalmitis, and he has not seen a single case of meningitis develop after removal of an eye for that cause.

Another phase is the development of the lesion in the eye itself. Dr. Randolph asked me to see a young man, an employe of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, who had had an injury some years before. Dr. Randolph, at that time, had removed a piece of steel from the eye, and the preservation of the eyeball was perfect. The macular region was destroyed, and he had only excentric fixation with the eye. Two months ago, he returned with a history of being struck on the opposite eye. Dr. Randolph found a small foreign body in the left eye. The right was the one affected. I was asked to see the man, and to do whatever was necessary. The X-ray showed a small foreign body in the vitreous, more or less movable as the eyeball was moved, and some short distance posterior to the lens. A number of hemorrhages were seen in the vitreous; and a number on the retina below. Vision was then 20/60; and the question was whether to leave the eye alone or remove the foreign body.

In view of the fact that he had had an injury to the opposite side, and that removal of this body would mean further destruction to the eye, I suggested that the eyeball be left alone, and that the patient be put on atropin, ice-compresses, rest, glasses and constitutional treatment with salicylat of soda and purgatives twice a week. I also suggested that he have his sinuses X-rayed,

the teeth looked after and the tonsils examined. He had all this done, and there did not seem to be anything wrong. His vision grew better, and came to 20/15. The foreign body was still present. The irritation had subsided, and everything was perfectly quiescent. It is quite a responsibility to determine exactly what shall be done with this man. He has a bad eye on one side, and operative interference on the other side is needed. We are just keeping him under observation. I am a believer in Elschnig's work. He has thrown much light on sympathetic ophthalmia. I do not think that it goes to one eye from the other, but believe that it is due to a constitutional cause. If those causes such as pus conditions about the body are eliminated, and the injury is of such character that the pigment substance had been destroyed from the entrance of the foreign body, I think that it is safe to allow the foreign body to remain, without the prospect of causing serious damage to the individual in after life. The foreign body in this case was a piece of steel.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: I want to suggest that probably we shall never come to an agreement as to the posterior and anterior routes. The decision depends upon the conditions present and upon where the work is being done. If we are considering Dr. Shoemaker's paper, we must remember that his work was connected with the military service in the very front line hospitals. In such circumstances the anterior route for tiny foreign bodies probably offers the better operation; because it is difficult to get X-ray localization. If you have a small body in the eye at a place where the X-ray can be used, my preference is to draw it through a small opening in the vitreous, nearest the point where the foreign body lies. You must judge which route is the best according to circumstances. The size of the foreign body and the personal equation must be taken into consideration.

As far as sympathetic ophthalmia is concerned, the war is so recently finished that one cannot give an opinion. I saw only one case during my entire service as consultant in the various hospitals. In that case, there was a foreign body in the eye, with a history of iridocyclitis of three weeks' duration. The eye was removed, and the sympathetic condition, uveitis, on the opposite side disappeared. I think that cases of sympathetic ophthalmia are going to be much less frequent than one would expect, considering the multitudes of ocular injuries. The condition has lost a little of its dread to the man who sees service. The condition of the opposite eye depends on whether there is an iridocyclitis that persists, in addition to an inclusion of the foreign body.

Dr. T. B. Holloway, Philadelphia: I wish to call attention to a complication in these cases that, while extraocular, may have wide-reaching effects. The surgeon at the Naval Hospital in Philadelphia referred to me the case of a man who had injured his eye. I found that a foreign body had plowed its way directly through the lens and had lodged in the vitreous. I had no difficulty in drawing this large foreign body into the anterior chamber; but while it was approximated against the posterior wall of the cornea, I had difficulty in getting it through the corneal incision. I asked the Resident to hand me an applicator, with which I depressed the lips of the wound. Another Resident picked up the porcelain-lined instrument tray and brought it close enough to the heel of the magnet to draw the tray out of his hands. After the atmosphere cleared, I found that this hunk of steel had been extracted very nicely and was attached to the end of the tip of my magnet. I mention this because a nurse or someone else may inadvertently pick up one of these trays and bring too close to the magnet, and the result may prove disastrous to the eye.

Concerning the Ocular Phenomena in the Psychoneuroses of Warfare.

Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia, read a paper upon this subject. It dealt with cases that are usually spoken of as due to shell-shock, altho, as he pointed out, the use of this term was so confusing and misleading, that it had been forbidden in army reports. The vast majority of these cases have all the characteristics of "peace time neuroses with a war-time coloring," and that "the neurosis is a maladjustment of the indi-

vidual to his environment," with the understanding that the results of a true neurosis, be it one of war-time or one of peace-time, are not conscious or voluntary. Many of these men had been confronted by what was for them an intolerable situation, from which the conditions that presented necessarily arose. These individuals were generally neurotic and biologically inferior, and symptoms arose unconsciously and by suggestion.

In general terms the cases include shell concussions, that is, those patients who have obvious physical lesions, or at least symptoms which may be assumed to interpret physical lesions — a small group not discussed in the paper except in incidental mention; and the large group of shell hysterias, psychoneuroses, and war shock. From the ocular standpoint, altho it is admitted that it is difficult to make sharp distinctions, for convenience sake the following classification is adopted. (1) Various types of amblyopias and amauroses, including disturbances of color vision—types which have in civilian practice been included under the terms incomplete and complete anesthesia of the visual sense; (2) asthenopias and anomalies of accommodation; (3) anomalies of the iris movements (pupil phenomena); (4) anomalies of the eyelids and eye muscle movements; (5) cases not classified in the above groups.

The paper is illustrated with a number of case histories and a series of charts of the visual fields.

Discussion.—Dr. William H. Wilder, Chicago: In a time of crisis and stress such as these men have all gone thru, it is extremely difficult to differentiate wilful from unwilful manifestations. Possibly it is quite as difficult as it would be in civil life, in the case of an individual seeking damages. It seems to me that some of the manifestations are those of what we might call fatigue of the nervous system,—fatigue that is brought about by what some of the older clinicians used to describe as an insult to the nervous system. Hence, in some of the cases of hysteric manifestations that you see, this may be an explanation. I refer particularly to the peculiar inversion of the color fields seen in hysteric manifestations.

I have seen a case, such as Dr. de Schweinitz mentions, of complete abolition of the color sense, apparently from shell shock. This young man, a soldier, came to me for examination from the Vocational Board of Chicago. He was to be prevented from going into his former vocation, that of an engine man, or fireman, because of complete color blindness. I do not know the previous history, but he stated it as a fact that when in the service of the Rock Island Railroad, which requires careful vision tests of its employes, and perfect color sense, he was absolutely normal for red and green. There were no lesions of the eye discernible. The fundus was perfectly normal, and yet he must be excluded, and probably will be from railroad service on account of his color defect. This is the case that has come under my observation.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: One of the manifestations of the war neurosis created by "an intolerable situation" is the deplorable fact that some of the men who came to the evacuation hospital had self-inflicted injuries. They were in such numbers that it became quite apparent; and it also became apparent that the condition was more or less infectious, coming at certain times and among certain groups of men. I remember serving as tirage officer of No. 7 Evacuation Hospital one night, and I kept a record of the names of the men and where they came from. During that night, I found twenty-five men who had either shot off the middle or fore finger of the left hand, or shot a bullet between the big toe and the first toe or between the first and second toe. Those were the four principal locations. A few had shot themselves thru the palm of the left hand. I doubt, from my observation, whether these men were really cowards. They came to an intolerable situation, and found that men were being sent back with minor injuries; so they inflicted these minor injuries on themselves.

Another night, when assisting the general surgeon, I did not see such injuries.

Dr. de Schweinitz: The cases that Dr. Wilder has referred to belong to a group that I did not discuss here, altho I did in my paper. They are the so-called ex-

haustion cases, and belong to the psychasthenias. They almost invariably got well by rest, and the condition usually disappeared comparatively soon.

I should like to add just two things more. I spoke of blindness. In a certain number of cases there was a distinct physical reason for the blindness. Some had a disease of the retina. They are referred to in a number of papers—among the rest, Babcock's paper; so it was necessary to decide carefully whether there was an organic lesion. In one case, the only one was a diminutive lesion, like a little cross, right in the macula.

Another thing is that, in the recovery from blindness, it was interesting to observe that the shooting eye was the last to recover. This point is mentioned by Parsons in his article. It was the last eye to accept the suggestion of recovery.

Trachoma in the Camps and Hospitals of the Army.

Dr. Burton Chance, Philadelphia: From his experience in Camp Jackson, he concluded that in the American army trachoma did not constitute a serious problem. His statistics could not be brought to the close of the war since reports covering the latter part of the time had not been issued. During the larger part of the period the records showed that at Camp Jackson, but 35 men had been rejected from the service, and only 26 had been treated for trachoma at the hospital.

Discussion.—Dr. William H. Wilder, Chicago: My impression is that the number of cases of trachoma that we saw in Camp Taylor is considerably larger than that mentioned in Dr. Chance's paper. I do not know how our records went in; but Major Barton, who later became head of the Department of Ophthalmology, after he left the camp, told me that according to the early statistics of 1918, something like two hundred and seventy-five cases had been sent from the camp because of trachoma. This number included some doubtful cases, but not a large percentage; because we early inaugurated the practice there (the Review Board, I mean), of sending back any draftee who had symptoms that we regarded as suspicious. We did not want to keep any such cases for treatment for a number of weeks.

Altho there was a strong effort made by the Public Health Service to have a separate ward set aside for the treatment of these cases, it was deemed inadvisable by Col. Aller; and I thought that was wise. He discharged these men and asked the boards to return sound men. The reason that there was some trachoma in Camp Taylor was that the men there were drawn from Indiana, Kentucky and the southern part of Illinois. Those who are familiar with the Middle States know that there is a great prevalence of trachoma among the native born in the southern part of Illinois. The population there is made up of immigration which came from Eastern Kentucky and southern Indiana in the early days. In that region, between the Mississippi, the Ohio and the Wabash rivers, there is a great proportion of trachoma among the native population. Some of these fellows from Kentucky were cute enough to imagine that they could deceive the surgeon. They set up an inflammation so much like trachoma as almost to lead to their rejection. They produced a conjunctivitis that was extremely puzzling. They would get well; and then, in the course of the day, they would have a marked recurrence. I put my sergeant on one man's track, and he found that the man was rubbing into his eye carbolic acid furnished by a kind druggist at home. Another man, a friend of the first, hesitated to use that, and rubbed in ordinary soap. Another used ordinary camp dirt, and produced a conjunctivitis, which, however, did not have the features of trachoma. These men were taken before a court martial and sentenced to three years at hard labor.

Dr. Nelson M. Black, Milwaukee: In 1918, I was representing ophthalmology in the Surgeon General's Office, and was ordered to the infected districts of eastern Kentucky and Tennes-

see, to observe the treatment instituted by the representative of the United States Public Health Service, Dr. McMullin, and make a report, to be used in the treatment of cases of trachoma in the army. I was also requested to make suggestions to the Quartermaster General's Office as to accepting infected individuals in the draft. The observations that I made, conclusively proved that trachoma, under the treatment instituted by the Public Health Service, could be cured; and in a time sufficiently limited to permit of the man's being available for service. Recommendations were made that a trachoma concentration camp be formed, to which should be sent men from the various camps for observation, treatment and training. The general staff, however, did not see fit to accept these recommendations; so the trachoma concentration camp never developed. However, the next article's reference to acceptance to the draft included trachoma as a remediable disease. Later, that was thrown out; and all trachoma cases were to be rejected. Still later on, they were to be received for treatment in the base hospital, and if not cured in a certain length of time, were to be discharged.

As to the question of the transference of contagion in our armies, I think that the training that the men received in personal hygiene and the establishment of an Ophthalmological Section in the Medical Department of the Army, made the possibility of infecting the army absolutely nil. The men took care of their eyes. If they had eye trouble, they went to the regimental surgeon, who sent them to the field hospital; and from there, they were sent to the base hospital, where, if they had trachoma, it was taken care of. So if a man had trachoma, even in a stage in which infection was evident, there would be no chance to infect the army at large, because of the precautions due to personal hygiene and the establishment of an ophthalmologic department in the army.

(To be continued.)

COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS OF PHILADELPHIA SECTION ON OPHTHALMOLOGY

April 17, 1919

Dr. William T. Shoemaker, Chairman

Bilateral Congenital Entropion.

Dr. Wm. Zentmayer presented an infant upon whose eyes he had performed an operation for congenital entropion of both lower lids. The removal of a crescent of skin with a few of the underlying fibers of the orbicularis had been sufficient to cure the condition. Mayou states that these conditions are never true entropion but a malposition of the cilia. In this case the margin of the lid was rolled in also, so that the cilia were turned down into the cul-de-sac. It may, therefore, be properly termed congenital entropion.

Congenital Pigmentation of the Sclerotics.

Dr. Zentmayer showed R. C., aged eighteen years, a Russian Jewess. Each eye presents a broad interrupted zone of pigmented sclera reaching from within a few millimeters of the cornea almost to the equator of the globe. The pigment is blotchy and varies from light to dark slaty gray and in places brownish, probably due to the presence of capillaries, as the instillation of adrenalin causes it to lose the brownish color. The skin of the lids is dusky and the veins dilated and dark. The skin of the face shows linear pigment stripes. There are disseminated areas of "port-wine" nevus over the entire body with the exception of the right arm and foot. The ocular fundus has a dark steel-gray hue. The patient is the oldest of five children. None is similarly affected. She had good teeth and has broken no bones. The condition is a pigmented nevus of the sclerotics.

Uveitis with Disciform Opacities.

Dr. Zentmayer since sending in the title had become convinced that his case was not really one of asteroid hyalitis as he had thought possible at first. The appearance being similar to a dot-

ted veil. There is a patch of exuative retinochoroiditis in the same eye.

Discussion.—Dr. Halloway stated that he agreed with Dr. Zentmayer that the present opacities were those sometimes seen in cases of severe uveitis. Since the publication of his previous report he has seen three cases of these snowball vitreous opacities, the details of which will be published later.

Congenital Ptosis. Motais Operation.

The case was reported to emphasize the value of the Shoemaker modification of Motais's operation. The child was aged five years, and the superior rectus so frail that the difficulties of the procedure would have been unsurmountable had not the open method been used. The result is not perfect but is very good.

Use of Ethylhydrocuprein.

The case presented had been one of severe pneumococcic traumatic ulcer, 7 mm. in diameter, with hypopion. Vision = L. P. The treatment consisted in the use of ethylhydrocuprein, ice compresses and atropin. The result was a corneal scar not as large as the original ulcer and vision = 3/60. Dr. Zentmayer's faith in ethylhydrocuprein strengthens with his experience. Any bactericidal agent to be effective must be, as far as practical, constantly in contact with the organisms. His method of using optochin is to have a 1 per cent solution dropped into the conjunctival cul-de-sac every two hours during the day and every three hours during the night, and to have the ulcer touched with 2 per cent twice daily. A local anesthetic should be used before each application.

Buphthalmos: Results of Posterior Sclerotomies and Optical Iridectomy.

Dr. Luther C. Peter exhibited P. V., aged seventeen months, who was shown at the section about a year ago. Briefly the history at that time was as follows:

The child had a condition of buphthalmos at birth. The corneæ were both very large, blue and the centers of the cornæ were occupied by marked white opacities and granulations. It was pebbly in appearance, with marked juvenile arcus. The anterior chambers were very deep and the iris indistinctly visible thru the cloudy corneæ; pupils dilated to about 4½ mm.; tension of the eyeballs about 35 mm. The scleras are bluish white in color.

Family History.—The parents are Italians, second cousins; one other child, an older brother, is suffering from the same disease and is totally blind, enucleation having been performed on one eye. There are five other healthy children.

Myotics were used the first six months without any apparent improvement. At this time posterior sclerotomy was performed on the right eye without any untoward symptoms and was followed by a marked clearing of the cornea. Subsequently at intervals of two months repeated posterior sclerotomies were performed, four on each eye, followed in each instance by marked clearing of the corneæ, which, however, had a tendency to relapse. By this series of tapping the posterior chamber the tension of the eyes has been kept at about 25 mm. of mercury. Because of the cloudy media the child was developing lateral nystagmus. Optical iridectomies were therefore decided upon and a small section of the iris was removed at the outer limbus in the right eye and the inner limbus in the left eye as the areas in the corneæ offering the best visual results. Very little reaction followed these operations, and the child now is able to see objects fairly small, and the nystagmus has practically disappeared.

The results obtained from this method of treating the patient are satisfactory up to the present time. (1) The corneal opacities were decidedly lessened after each posterior sclerotomy; (2) the tension of the eyeballs was held at about 25 mm. of mercury; (3) the optical iridectomies have decidedly improved central visual acuity and have practically removed the nystagmus which was rapidly developing. The child is kept under observation, and should the tension be in-

creased further, posterior sclerotomies will be performed. One cannot say what the ultimate prognosis will be in this case as the results of the surgical procedures, but the visual results and the general improvement at this time are very satisfactory.

Dr. Zentmayer thought that Dr. Peter was fortunate in the result obtained. From the opinion expressed by many of the ophthalmic surgeons of America it is evident that any operative procedure to be of value must be done early. He recalled that Dr. de Schweinitz had reported successes with posterior sclerotomy, and Dr. Zentmayer believed that, except in the very earliest stage of the disease, this was the only justifiable procedure.

Dr. Holloway stated that in examining this child he had noted that there occurred some reflex sneezing. In his experience this very frequently occurred, and he referred to two children at the Overbrook School for the Blind where this was present to a persistent and excessive degree upon the slightest attempts of the patients to open their eyes. There was intense photophobia in each case. He thought it worth while to comment upon this, not because he regarded it as peculiar to this particular affection, but simply because it is frequently associated with it.

Dr. de Schweinitz stated that his attention had been directed by Haab's recommendation to the value of repeated sclerotomies in the treatment of buphthalmos. He briefly referred to two cases treated by corneoscleral trephining, the operations having been performed not by himself. Certainly in these two cases apparently there was temporary benefit, but he was unable to relate the ultimate outcome of the operations.

Unusual Case of Perivasculitis.

Dr. Luther C. Peter showed Mrs. A. J., colored, aged sixty-one years, housekeeper, who complained that her sight began to fail about three years ago. Her present ocular condition is as follows:

Vision in the right eye is 20/200 and in the left 20/30. Arcus senilis is marked in both eyes; pupils 3 mm. equal in diameter; react to light and accommodation. Eye-grounds: Right eye pupil is oval, long axis, 90 degrees. There are a few fine lenticular opacities and a few floating masses in the vitreous. The disc is 16x18 mm.; long axis, 90 degrees, well defined, excepting at the upper and outer border; edges somewhat obscured. The veins are overfilled and tortuous; arteries are tortuous and light streaks are for the most part absent. The superior temporal branch of the central artery shows a marked perivasculitis. It consists of a broad ribbon-like perivascular tissue thru which a narrow column of blood is visible here and there. About 3 d. d. from the disk the vessel and its branches disappear in a retinal haze, but appear beyond in bifurcations, which are surrounded by narrow borders of white. The terminal branches are exceedingly narrow and tortuous and the macula branch, which is derived from the superior temporal artery, is also a solid mass of white tissue and is lost in a hazy macula area. This temporal vessel, including the macular twig, is at least twice the size of the other branches of the central artery in the neighborhood of the disc. Surrounding the macula is a beginning stellate figure which is regarded as diagnostic of the so-called "albuminuric retinitis." Beneath the macula are a few minute round hemorrhages. Other parts of the fundus show moderate retinal haze and edema and evidences of arteriosclerosis. There are no hemorrhages. The perivasculitis is distinctly confined to the superior temporal branch.

The left fundus is similar in appearance to that of the nasal half of the right retina, characteristic of the fundus usually found in chronic interstitial nephritis.

The fields in each eye show the characteristic contraction for form and color. In addition to this concentric contraction there is a quadrant area of blindness down and in. This quadrant is almost lost for form and totally lost for red, and in a small area to the nasal

side of the field the green test object is recognized as white.

The patient shows a generalized arteriosclerosis. The urine is of low specific gravity and contains an occasional cast and albumin. The blood Wassermann is negative. The clinical medical diagnosis is that of chronic interstitial nephritis, with marked cardiovascular changes.

The case is of unusual interest both because of the imitation of the perivasculitis, the superior temporal branch of the right eye, and also because of its very pronounced appearance and the abundance of the perivascular tissue. As to the immediate etiologic factor, embolic or thrombotic processes can be safely eliminated. The condition undoubtedly is a perivascular change, arteriosclerotic in origin and associated with chronic interstitial nephritis.

Dr. de Schweinitz agreed with Dr. Peter that the vascular changes in his patient were not the result of an embolic process, and thought they represented lesions in association with arteriosclerosis and nephritis. He assumed that the influence of syphilis had been eliminated. He described a case of extensive retinal vasculitis and perivasculitis in a colored man which he had reported, and which was almost certainly due to syphilis, and referred to the fact that it had seemed to him that such vascular changes were apt to be more pronounced in the colored than in the white race.

Sudden Loss of Vision from Acute Sphenoiditis, Recovery.

Dr. H. Maxwell Langdon presented the history of this case because of the three cases reported by Dr. D. T. Vail in the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY for February, under the title, "Monocular Retrobulbar Optic Neuritis from Hyperplasia of the Ethmoid Bone." Dr. Langdon's case was very similar to them except that the sphenoidal sinus was involved instead of the ethmoid. Mrs. M. B. W. was first seen on January 23, 1917, with the following history: She had had grip, with much pain around the right eye and brow for the preceding ten days. O. D. vision blurred the past two days.

Externally the right pupil was 4 mm.; no reaction to direct light, but a good consensual response. The left pupil was 2.5 mm.; good direct reaction; no consensual reaction. Each acted well to accommodation. The ocular rotations were full in all directions. O. D. vision. Fingers at one foot. O. S. vision 6/10. The media were clear; the right disc somewhat hyperemic with blurred nasal margins; the left disc was normal; there were no other fundus changes. The right field was gone except for an irregular light field, and the left field was normal except for a slight contraction for colors.

Dr. G. B. Wood examined the nose and found no evidence of sinus involvement except some slight congestion of the right middle turbinate; an X-ray investigation made by Dr. H. K. Pancoast was negative except for some clouding of the left antrum.

Later, Dr. Wood again examined the nose, and after applying cocain to the right ostium sphenoidale there was a sudden improvement in vision, the patient seeing the pattern on the floor covering. Dr. Wood then removed the posterior end of the right middle turbinate and drilled a small hole thru the front wall of the sphenoidal sinus without finding any pathologic secretion. The vision improved with washing of the sphenoid, until on the tenth day after the first operation the vision was 6/15, and with no treatment other than nasal. The disc hyperemia disappeared and there were no further complications, corrected vision being 6/5.

That this was an involvement of the optic nerve from a sphenoidal sinuitis seems beyond all doubt, and yet there was no pathologic secretion on tapping the sinus and no shadow on an X-ray plate from a cloudy content of the sinus. It seems there must be a form of involvement which gives a clear secretion, at least in the early stages, for this case was attacked as soon as the vision was disturbed. It opens up an interesting point as to

whether Dr. Vail did not have something of the kind involving the sphenoid rather than hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone.

Dr. de Schweinitz briefly discussed a case of acute retrobulbar neuritis which had been examined and described by Dr. W. R. Parker, where there had been sudden improvement in vision after the free use of adrenalin in the nasal chambers, which had apparently started drainage and thus relieved pressure on the optic nerve. He questioned whether negative X-ray examinations and investigation of the nasal chamber in the sense of failure to find purulent secretion were sufficient to exclude the presence of some types of ethmoiditis which might be the cause of optic nerve changes. He referred to the fact that unilateral intraocular as well as retrobulbar neuritis were strongly suggestive of sphenoidal or ethmoidal infection.

Hypopyon Ulcer of Cornea Treated by Chauffage.

Dr. H. Maxwell Langdon related the case of W. M., who was first seen February 2, 1919, with the history that on February 22, while digging a street excavation, a piece of asphalt struck him in the right eye, since which time the eye had been sore. The eye was slightly injected, and there was a corneal ulcer, about 3 mm. in diameter, slightly to the upper, outer side of the pupil. The ulcer was touched with carbolic and a bandage was applied, the pupil dilating readily with atropin. The ulcer spread slightly, but was checked by further carbolization, tho the center would not heal and there was steady increase of the hypopyon until the lower half of the anterior chamber was filled, and it was determined to try the effect of radiant heat. A galvanic cautery was heated until a thermometer held over it registered 145° F., and when held below the cautery registered 125°; as the eye was below the instrument, this is the temperature applied, the eye having been thoroly cocainized. It was held as close to the eye as possible, avoiding contact, for a minute, then away for three minutes, during which time the eye was irrigated with salt solution; the application was repeated twice at the same sitting. In twenty-four hours the hypopyon was beginning to absorb, the iris at the lower outer portion of the anterior chamber becoming visible. The improvement was uninterrupted until the hypopyon is now entirely absorbed and nothing remains but a moderately dense scar near the center of the cornea, due probably as much to the repeated use of carbolic acid as to the heat. Had the heat been used sooner it seems most likely that the scar would have been much less.

This heat was applied, of course, after the method described by Weekers, and not in the way Shahan advises, one of his thermophors not being available.

Dr. de Schweinitz, altho he had had no personal experience with Dr. Shahan's thermophor in ophthalmic practice, referred to reports he had received of its value in the treatment of infected corneal ulcers in the service of U. S. General Army Hospital No. 14, at the time of the report in charge of Dr. Meyer Wiener.

Dr. Holloway stated that he regarded Dr. Langdon's result with chauffage as excellent, but he felt that it was worth while emphasizing the important work which had been done in this country by Shahan in placing the application of heat to the eye upon a somewhat more scientific basis. Unfortunately, Shahan's instrument was not available at the present time, and until this could be secured it would be necessary to use some of the other methods, which while they doubtless give satisfactory results are by no means as accurate in determining the actual degree of heat applied.

J. Milton Griscom, M. D.,
Clerk.

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THE BELGIAN SOCIETY OF OPHTHALMOLOGY.

After more than five years intermission necessitated by enemy occupation, the Belgian Society of Ophthalmology held its reopening meeting on the 29th of June, 1919, with Professor J. Coppez as president.

In his address of welcome Professor Van Duyse, the general secretary, paid tribute to the members of the society, who on the one hand, devoted themselves to the cause of law and justice in the army, and on the other, rendered signal services in the occupied territory.

The following resolutions of the officers of the society were adopted:

"The bureau of the Belgian Society of Ophthalmology, reunited in the meeting of June, 1919, at Brussels, takes cognizance of the facts disclosed by a letter of the Academy of Science of Belgium, of the 20th of January, 1919, and by various documents, which give evidence that the German scientific and university world approved the deeds of the Central Powers, against us and against our allies. These deeds, contrary to all civilized usage, became familiar to the population of occupied territory during the world war, and they remain an ineffaceable stain upon conquered Germany.

Therefore the bureau of the Belgian Society of Ophthalmology engages that its members:

1. Withdraw from German and Austrian scientific societies and give up all collaboration with Germans and Austrians.

2. Exchange no publications and have no intercourse with the Central Powers.

3. Renew scientific intercourse with the enemy only when they prove by public declaration that they condemn the mentality of those who signed the manifesto of October, 1914."

Correlative to this order of the day, the assembly announced the removal of the names of German and Austrian honorary members and correspondents from its lists.

Professor Coppez received congratu-

lations upon the completion of fifty years of professional service. The secretary recalled to the society that Professor Coppez was the founder of the science of ophthalmology and its teaching in Belgium. Moved by the demonstration, Professor Coppez replied that it was to the French masters of the science, past and present, that such recognition was due.

M. Danis.

THE ETIOLOGY OF MYOPIA.

The relation of the sclera to the skeleton, which is mentioned in the paper by Ochi is suggestive of thought, and a subject for investigation that may have very practical results in improving the management of myopia. The bony skeleton is, of course, but a part of the general connective tissue frame work, which supports all parts of the body. The peculiarities of structure and the deposit of lime salts that characterize bone, easily arise in parts of this connective tissue framework that usually remain soft, as in anomalous sesamoid bones, or the "pully" of the superior oblique muscle.

The congenital anomaly manifest in "blue scleras and brittle bones," which association has occupied an important place in the recent literature of ophthalmology, seems to be an illustration of the close relation between the sclera and the bony skeleton as to essential conditions of nutrition. Other evidence of such a relation is worth looking for, and is likely to prove equally suggestive.

It is some 27 years since R. D. Batten suggested the hypothesis that the occurrence and development of progressive myopia depend on a nutritive defect in the sclera, which he associated with constitutional and especially cardio-vascular disease. The association is still worth considering.

Subsequently Batten wrote on the association of myopia with nasal disease. Risley has reported many cases illustrating the connection of myopia following ocular congestion produced by eyestrain, especially by the strain incident to eye work with uncorrected astigmia. There are extensive statistics connecting myopia with use of the eyes for near work.

The theory ascribing myopia to a peculiar form of the orbit by which oblique muscles, especially the superior, were made to exert especial compression on the eyeball; the compression of the posterior ciliary vessels in convergence; or of vortex veins by the inferior oblique muscle; the defective closure of the scleral fissure, the overdevelopment of the human cranium and consequent modification of the orbit have all been invoked as the predisposing causes of myopia.

There has been too much theoretic argument, and not enough careful, exact observation regarding this subject. The statistics need more careful sifting. The different hypotheses need the consideration of unbiased judges, not further exploitation by special pleaders.

The development of myopia needs to be considered broadly. Evidently it depends on a disturbed balance of nutritive forces. Every factor that bears upon those forces may be important in destroying their balance. All are worthy of consideration, and must be considered judicially before the true share of influence can be ascribed to any one of them.

If a school girl develops myopia, has she astigmia? Is she converging excessively? Is there a sclero-choroiditis present? Has she vascular or nasal disease? Is there evidence of defective nutrition in other directions, particularly of skeletal and connective tissue structures? When we can answer all these questions, we may be able to assign to each factor its proper share in the result. Meanwhile we must devote attention to all those remedial conditions that seem likely to be important factors in producing elongation of the eyeball.

E. J.

TO AVOID PROFESSIONAL RUTS.

Specialization, repetition, and habit make for accuracy, rapidity, and easy accomplishment. But they also have dangers in the way of narrowness, fixed routine, and unfitness to deal with new situations and overcome new difficulties.

The specialist has more need than his less differentiated colleague to keep a broad interest in the general field of medicine, and to have his everyday problems presented from new points of view.

Every practitioner of medicine needs to leave his daily round at times to see how others do their work, to learn that his own familiar problems can be approached from a different angle, and dealt with by different methods. To the specialist such escape from his daily routine is absolutely necessary, if he is to continue an intelligent, rational, up-to-date, practitioner of his specialty.

No matter how highly we may specialize, there remains some variety in our work. To the ophthalmologist, the many contacts of ophthalmology with general medicine and surgery are precious opportunities to get away from routine in our examinations; and to approach questions of disease from a more general point of view. Reading is another channel in which to get someone else's line of thought, even on the most common conditions we have to treat; and it is well thus to get into other branches of medicine, and consider their more important problems in pathology; while we welcome every opportunity to consider the most common diseases with which we have to deal from a new standpoint.

Another war may never bring the problems of alien labor companies. But Dr. Derby's account of how trachoma was dealt with among them under military emergencies contains valuable suggestions at to how men may be inspected, and watched in mines, large manufacturing plants, or construction works. The experience that made zinc sulphat solution the "universal drops" in that service, gives a hint of what may be possible in trachoma infested communities.

No reader of this JOURNAL may ever be called upon to organize an ophthalmic service for expeditionary forces; but the plan for the eye clinic, the list of equipment required, the experience of the relative importance of refraction work in a modern army, the essentials of diagnosis and treatment brought out and emphasized in the army circulars given last month, may be more helpful than a repetition of the requirements, and teaching in the offices or clinics we have actually worked in.

The accounts given by Duane and Howard of the exact visual requirements for the signalman, and the aviator should stimulate thought and prove suggestive as to the strains put upon the eyes of our patients, the needlewoman, the bookkeeper, the mechanic or the miner. It is the same organ that is required to give service in all these different directions. Each use of it has its own peculiar form of stress and danger, but all we can learn about it under one set of conditions is of possible value in helping to understand its dangers under other conditions.

Even the reading of crude and obviously injudicious methods of treatment, or poorly planned or unnecessary methods of operating, can help the thoughtful ophthalmologist to get a better appreciation of his own therapeutic methods and operative resources. Wherever we can find an intelligent, honest report of what has occurred in an eye placed under unusual conditions, it is worth reading and thinking about. The exigencies of war have presented familiar problems in a new light to those who entered military service; and thru their reports of their experience, to ophthalmologists everywhere. Our war literature will soon pass or cease to be current. Let us get the most out of it that we can while it lasts. It may take some thought to apply its lessons to our ordinary problems, but that kind of thinking is always a good exercise.

It is the aim of this JOURNAL to draw

its contents from the widest possible sources. On this account we welcome contributions from all parts of the world, from the laboratory worker or the physicist as well as from the master of the large ophthalmic clinic. Especially welcome is really good work on the part of a new writer. Each individual approaches our common questions and difficulties in a slightly different way that is more likely to be helpful than the repeated statements of an old teacher or a familiar writer.

The most efficient, resourceful, successful ophthalmologist will be he who keeps from forming ruts in his thinking and methods of practice, in which he would travel along contentedly until he lost the power of turning his thought in new directions. We therefore urge our readers to utilize the war papers now being published, and discussions, particularly those of the American Ophthalmological Society, to get this view of eyes and their shortcomings different from the one forced on our attention by our daily routine of practice.

E. J.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Trachoma on the Pacific Coast.

To the Editor:

Referring to an article under the above title in the June number of the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY, by H. V. W., I beg leave to amend the title by having it read, "The Relative Scarcity of Trachoma on the Pacific Coast *at the Present Time;*" also to call attention to the fact that thirty years ago conditions in the northwest were quite different from what is found at the present time; then there was no dearth of trachoma.

The Puyallup, Nisqually and other tribes of Indians were badly infected. Twenty-five years ago the Reservation School near Tacoma, now the Cushman Indian School, having as it does, children and youths from many tribes, even as far east as Montana, had a severe epidemic of trachoma. Dr. P. B. Swearingen, then resident physician, called the writer to his assistance to treat the cases and arrest the epidemic. We fought the disease for several years and very nearly stamped it out, both in the school and among the members of the Puyallup tribe. The number afflicted ran into the hundreds.

Thirty years ago trachoma was also prevalent among the white population of Tacoma and Puget Sound; many Swedes and Norwegians came from the Middle West and settled in the city and surrounding country. A large number of these people brought the disease with them and transmitted it to their children and grandchildren. The public school children of other families contracted the disease, and from 1890 up to 1910, there was a great deal of it. But after the rush of immigration was over those affected came under treatment, precautions were taken in the schools, common towels done away with in shops, lodging houses and homes, where there were sore eyes, and there began to be a falling off in the frequency of its occurrence. During the last ten years of my practice in Tacoma, it became rather an uncommon disease. Whether the climate had any influence over its control is a question.

East of the mountains the disease was never prevalent either among the Indians or white people, as it was formerly on Puget Sound. At the same time there has been among the Indians of Yakima less opportunity for proper care and treatment, owing to the distance from medical aid, and to a less degree of civilization. There is more dust and dirt and flies, but the Indians live in the tepee and open as much if not more than those of the coast country. I know little of the conditions east of the Rockies except such as I gained from children in the Cushman School, who came from Montana. I found none afflicted with trachoma.

Personally I am of the opinion that better treatment and care until complete recovery was assured, better sanitary conditions, better knowledge of the disease among the laity, have had more to do with its control in all walks of life, and among all nationalities in

the Northwest, than climate. The disease has gradually diminished during the last thirty years, as a result of care, sanitation and proper treatment.

Perhaps if H. V. W. returned to Milwaukee he would find the same results there, and not the conditions of thirty years ago.

P. B. WING.

San Diego, Cal.

An Improved System of Illumination for the Electric Ophthalmoscope.

To the Editor:

Under the above title the writer of this letter read a short paper at the Fifty-fourth Annual Meeting of the American Ophthalmological Society held at New London, 1918. He described the system, which had been constructed under his guidance by the well-known inventor of electrical and optical instruments, Mr. R. H. Wappler; he developed its theory and explained its advantages. In the discussion Dr. Walter E. Lambert asked him how this system of illumination differed from "Dr. May's Ophthalmoscope," to which he replied that the answer was easy. There was no difference whatever. This illuminating system had been "incorporated" into the "May Ophthalmoscope," without his knowledge and consent, and had gone forth into the world as the "May Ophthalmoscope."—For surely the essential part of an ophthalmoscope is the illumination, and not the disc or other nonessential parts.

In the May number of the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY appeared a lengthy letter by Dr. May, in which he denies the truth of my statement, and says: "I wish emphatically to state that I owe nothing to either Dr. Koller or to Mr. R. H. Wappler in connection with this instrument."

The following statement by Mr. R. H. Wappler, senior member and President of the Wappler Electric Company, the very concern which manufactures and sells "Dr. May's Electric Ophthalmoscope," will suffice to clear the fog and end this controversy.

New York, June 4, 1918.

I certify that Dr. Koller and myself have collaborated between 1910 and 1912 on the construction of an illuminating system for an electric ophthalmoscope, and that with his help and under his guidance I have constructed the system, which has been incorporated in the "May Ophthalmoscope," manufactured and sold by the Wappler Electric Company.

Signed. R. H. WAPPLER.

Witness: C. JOHNSON.

This clear and unequivocal statement leaves no room for any controversy, and shows that the essential part of "May's Electric Ophthalmoscope"—the illuminating and reflecting system—is not Dr. May's work.

CARL KOLLER.

New York, June, 1919.

(In medical literature priority of publication is the only priority that can be recognized. In closing this discussion it may be timely to remark that discussions as to the priority are always unsatisfactory and generally unprofitable.—Ed.)

BIOGRAPHIC SKETCHES.

THOMAS H. SHASTID,

SUPERIOR, WISCONSIN.

WILLIAM KNISELY CHERRYHOLMES. This well-known ophthalmologist of Hamilton, Ohio, died on March 31, 1919, of influenza. He was born at Millersburg, Ohio, in 1861, received the A. B. at the Ohio State University in 1882, and the M. D. at the Bellevue Hospital Medical College in 1884. For a time he practiced general medicine in partnership with his brother-in-law, Dr. Wise, at Millersburg. Later, he was special examiner in the Pension Bureau at Washington, D. C. He settled in Hamilton in 1892, specializing in ophthalmology and oto-laryngology, where he practiced until his death.

MORTIMER FRANK. This well-known ophthalmologist and medical historian died at his home in Chicago on April 21, 1919. He was born at Buffalo, N. Y., May 26, 1874, received the B. S. at

the Boston Institute of Technology, and the M. D. at the University of Illinois in 1901. Having practiced general medicine in Chicago for a year, he studied ophthalmology in Philadelphia, New York, Paris and Vienna.

Returning, he settled as ophthalmologist in Chicago. He was a Fellow of the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, ophthal-



Mortimer Frank, 1874-1919.

mologist to the Michael Reese and other hospitals, secretary of The Chicago Society of Medical History, and editor of the same society's "Bulletin." In medical history the Doctor was, in fact, an enthusiast, and his library of old and rare medical books and engravings numbered several thousand items.

Among the more important writings of Dr. Frank we may mention "John Taylor and Sir William Read" (1905); "The Resurrectionists" (1907); "Philip Syng Physick" (1914); "Caricature in Medicine" (1911); "Biographical Sketch of Some Representative Ophthalmic Surgeons" (in Wood's "A System of Ophthalmic Operations," 1911, I, p. 17); "Medicine in English Literature Before the Eighteenth Century" (1912); "Medical Instruction in the Seventeenth Century" (1915); "Discovery of the Secretory Glands" (1916), and an English translation of Choulant's "History of Anatomical Illustration" (forthcoming). Concerning the last named work, Dr. F. H. Garrison, of Washington, D. C., in a letter to "The Journal of the American Medical Association," May 24, 1919, p. 1562, says: "Dr. Frank's interest in the subject of medical illustration led him to undertake, in 1916, the translation of Choulant's 'History of Anatomical Illustration.' This book, published in 1852, is one of the classics of medical literature, a work of unsurpassed thoroness, a sort of *Gradus ad Parnassum* for those who would essay the difficult heights which Choulant has scaled, for the earlier history of anatomy, from Leonardo to the time of Bichat, is mainly in the manuscript illustrations and the illustrated text. In our days of distracting and dividing interests, no man could hope to know the approaches to anatomy in the older writings who had not mastered at least the essentials of this book. Few of us would have cared or dared to attempt such a translation. Choulant is a work of the highest scientific merit, but, in the original German it is not a readable book. Its author wrote in the time of Hegel, his bent was philosophic, his sentences of the sesquipedalian order, like the 'long rollers' in Gibbon or Swinburne, or the prosy periods voiced from the pulpit in the Georgian period. Dr. Frank cleverly overcame the almost insurmountable difficulties of rendition by bisecting the long Choulantian sentences or dissecting out their meaning, so that his translation now stands, in clean-cut intelligible English, as something viable and readable for modern students. To the original work, long since out of print, the translator added completed biographies and an exhaustive *compte rendu* of accumulated research work since the time of Choulant, a man-sized performance in itself. With new illustrations, this modernized Choulant, now in the hands of publishers, may be, in course of time, a

vade mecum for the professor of anatomy, the medical librarian and the art school."

Dr. Frank was a tall, lean man, smooth faced, of fair complexion and with light brown hair and blue eyes. He was quiet and deliberate in manner as a rule, but cordial to his friends and a "romp" among children. Nothing delighted him more than to exhibit his medico-historical library to those who loved such things, and the writer recalls with pleasure an all-too-short forenoon spent with Dr. Frank in his magnificent treasury of rare volumes. The Doctor was very public spirited, a Director of the Chicago Public Library, a liberal in politics, a member of the Jewish Reformed Church. He married on Oct. 4, 1905, Donie K. Frank, by whom he had two children—Katharine Jane and Mary Elizabeth.

We cannot do better than close with words of Dr. Garrison: "Dr. Frank was a sportsman and a gentleman, a thoroughly likable and lovable man, a very faithful and loyal friend. To those who knew him well it will always seem triste and unthinkable that he should have been cut down in his prime, just before the appearance of the book to which he had devoted so much of praiseworthy competence and such ardors of patient research."

Sayer Hasbrouck. A well-known homeopathic ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist. Born at Middletown, N. Y., June 3, 1860. He was a son of John W. Hasbrouck, a well-known journalist, and Lydia Hasbrouck, daughter of Benjamin Sayer, of Warwick, N. Y. Dr. Hasbrouck in 1875 entered Cook Academy, at Havana, N. Y., where he graduated in 1879. In the fall of that year he entered the Boston University School of Medicine, graduating in 1882.

For a time Dr. Hasbrouck was physician to the New York Homeopathic Insane Asylum at Middletown. Then he went to Dublin, Ireland, and entered the Rotunda Hospital, at the same time studying the eye, ear, nose and throat at St. Mark's Ophthalmic Hospital. Receiving the degree of L. M., he was for a short time house surgeon at St. Mark's. After this he studied the eye, ear, nose and throat at Belfast, Glasgow, Edinburgh and London. At the Royal London Ophthalmic Hospital (Moorfields) he was assistant to Sir George Lawson, and at Gray's Inn Throat and Ear Hospital, to Dr. Hamilton.

After a little study on the Continent he returned to America in 1884 and settled at Providence, R. I., as ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist. He was soon widely known in homeopathic circles.

Dr. Hasbrouck married, on September 25, 1889, Mary Owen Fiske, daughter of John T. Fiske, of Chepachet. She died on February 14, 1906, leaving a daughter, Miss Fannie Fiske Hasbrouck, who now lives in New York City. Dr. Hasbrouck later re-married, but the name of his second wife could not be learned by the present biographer.

Several years ago, Dr. Hasbrouck's health began to fail, and he removed to Hamilton, Bermuda. There he resided until his death, which occurred on March 24, 1919.

Newton C. Steele, professor of diseases of the eye, ear, nose and throat in the Chattanooga Medical College, died at his home, March 9, 1919, from pneumonia. Born at Athens, Ala., in 1850, he received the medical degree at the University of Nashville, Nashville, Tenn., in 1873. For a time he practiced at Corinth, Miss., but soon removed to Chattanooga. Here he practiced as ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist until his death—a period of more than thirty years. His only son, Dr. Willard Steele, was a partner with him for the last few years of his practice. Dr. Newton C. Steele is survived by a wife and two children, Dr. Willard Steele and Mrs. W. D. Carswell.

Frank Van Fleet. The world of ophthalmology was shocked to learn of the death of this distinguished ophthalmologist, who was found dead in his office at 17 East Thirty-eighth street, New York City, on April 5, 1919. Born in New York City on March 31, 1860, son of Henry S. and

Esther Flandreau Van Fleet, he received his medical degree at the Bellevue Hospital Medical College of New



Frank Van Fleet, 1860-1919.

York City, in 1881. Settling in New York as ophthalmologist, he soon had an extensive practice and a wide reputation.

He was executive surgeon to the Manhattan Eye, Ear and Throat Hospital for seventeen years, and at the time of his death was president of the Board of Surgeons of the same institution. He was a Fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine and of the American College of Surgeons, and was once President of the New York County Medical Society. He was also Treasurer of the New York State Medical Society and chairman of the legislative committee of that body for very many years. During the war he gave much time to the examination and treatment of soldiers whose eyes had been injured by poisonous gases. He wrote so many articles that they cannot here be listed.

Dr. Van Fleet was rather a stout man, 5 feet 6 inches high, of a fair complexion and with blue eyes and blonde hair. As a rule he wore a mustache. He was very quiet, but courteous and friendly. He was a Republican, a member of the Methodist Episcopal church, a hard student of the Bible, a very devout Christian.

The Doctor married in 1883 Carrie Blair Oakley, by whom he had three children — Harry, Raymond Oakley and James Flandreau. The latter is now a lieutenant in the Medical Corps of the Navy.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Andy Jackson Stewart, aged 46, a resident of Provo, Utah, died at his home, from pneumonia, on May 25.

Lord Reyleigh, scientist, of Essex, England, died June 30, aged 76 years.

PERSONALS.

Col. J. Herbert Parsons, London, has received the C. B. E.

J. Meller has succeeded S. Bernheimer in the Vienna Eye Clinic.

G. E. Burroughs has been appointed ophthalmic surgeon to the Liverpool Royal Infirmary.

Col. W. T. Lister has been appointed surgeon-oculist to the H. M. Household, and has received the K. C. M. G.

Dr. H. D. Lamb, St. Louis, passed thru Denver on his way home, after spending his vacation in the mountains.

Dr. Adolph Barkan has returned to San Francisco after an absence of eight years spent in Germany and Switzerland.

Dr. Francis Lane, of Chicago, who has been suffering from an attack of appendicitis, will go to Flagstaff, Arizona, for a month's vacation before resuming his practice.

Col. Walter B. Lancaster, of Boston, was in Denver a few days ago en route to California. It is always a pleasure to meet Dr. Lancaster anywhere, but especially in our "own home town."

Dr. José Joaquin has recently published a study of the prevalence of blindness and its distribution and causes in Mexico, which does credit to his ability to ferret out such matters.

MILITARY NOTES.

Dr. George E. Bellows has returned to civil practice, and is located at 1010 Rialto building, Kansas City, Missouri.

Capt. W. T. Brinton has just returned from overseas service to resume his practice at Cripple Creek, Colorado.

Dr. George S. Crampton, Lieut.-Col., M. C., U. S., Army, after fourteen months' service with the 28th Division overseas, has returned to his home in Philadelphia.

Capt. Frederick T. Clark, of Westfield, Massachusetts, who since last March has been chief of the ophthalmologic service at U. S. Army General Hospital No. 1, New York City, has been promoted to major and made chief of the combined ophthalmologic and oto-laryngologic services.

Major William Humes Roberts, who went to France as chief of the eye and ear service of Base Hospital 93, has been discharged from service and has reopened his offices at 461 East Colorado street, Pasadena, California. During the latter months of his stay in France, Dr. Roberts was eye consultant of the Justice Hospital Group in Toul.

SOCIETIES.

The American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology will meet at Cleveland, Ohio, October 16, 17 and 18.

The Sioux Valley Eye and Ear Academy met in Omaha July 22, 1919, at the Hotel Fontenelle. This society is composed of members from Iowa, Nebraska and South Dakota. They had a short, snappy program and the meeting was well attended.

At the completion of the summer course on ophthalmology, held in Denver August 4 and 5, under the auspices of the Medical Department of the University of Colorado, the Colorado Congress of Ophthalmology held its annual meeting. This year the oto-laryngologists participated in the program and contributed largely to the success of the meeting. Dr. Arnold Knapp of New York was present as the guest of honor. The last evening was devoted to a mountain auto trip and dinner at the Mountain Home of the Automobile Club.

Indiana Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology held its regular semi-annual meeting May 28 and 29, at Indianapolis. Officers elected: President, W. S. Tomlin, Indianapolis; vice-president, F. G. Hackelman, Rushville; second vice-president, Fred McK. Ruby, Union City; secretary-treasurer, B. J. Larkin, Indianapolis; councilors—for three years, E. J. Lent, South Bend, and J. W. Hadley, Frankfort; for one year, T. C. Hood, Indianapolis, and G. H. Smith, Newcastle. Six papers were listed on the program. The morning of the second day clinics were held at St. Vincent's Hospital. Thirty-two were present. Next meeting will be at South Bend.

The seventh annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmological Society was held in San Francisco August 4, 5, 6.

The scientific program was carried out each afternoon in the assembly room of the San

Francisco County Medical Society in the Medical building. Dr. Cullen F. Welty, president of the society, presided at all the sessions. The mornings were devoted to operations and clinical demonstrations by the local men in the leading hospitals of the city.

Dr. W. L. Clark of Philadelphia, who was expected to give demonstrations of his high-frequency treatment of malignant growths, was unable to be present.

The papers presented during the session were unusually good and afforded keen discussion generally.

The visitors were well entertained by luncheons daily at the leading places in San Francisco. A reception was given by Dr. Welty, the president, at his home on Monday evening, and a dinner dance was given at the Fairmont Hotel on Tuesday evening by the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the County Medical Society. A matinee party was given for the ladies at one of the leading theaters on Wednesday afternoon, which was followed by an automobile trip to the San Francisco Golf and Country Club, where the members and their wives had tea.

The 1920 meeting will be held in Portland, Oregon, and will be presided over by the new president, Dr. Wilson Johnston, with Dr. Frank B. Kistner as secretary-treasurer.

The society voted a sum of $250 to be put aside yearly towards the expenses of some man of international reputation who will appear before the society and give demonstrations, operative or otherwise.

The tenth annual meeting of the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress was held on July 10 and 11 last, in beautiful weather. Members were lodged in Keble College and the scientific proceedings took place in the Department of Human Anatomy of the University (kindly lent for the purpose by Professor Arthur Thomson), where technical and commercial museums were also arranged.

The program was opened on July 10 by an address of welcome by the master, Mr. Sydney Stephenson. Major Walter H. Kiep, R. A. M. C., read a paper on the "Ocular Complications of Dysentery," which was followed by a good discussion on the subject. Major Edgar H. Smith, R. A. M. C., read a communication dealing with "Quinin Amaurosis," well discussed by the members present. Dr. William McLean, of New York, described his further experimental studies in intraocular pressure and tonometry, and exhibited his latest model tonometer.

Preventive ophthalmology was introduced by Col. J. Herbert Parsons, C. B. E., consulting ophthalmic surgeon to the forces. Colonel Parsons pointed out that the scope of his subject dealt with the prevention of damage (a) to the individual, and (b) to others. (a) Included many subjects, such as prevention of damage to the eyes from accidents, defective illumination, deleterious rays and organisms, and the prevention of damage to health from headache, accident, fatigue, etc.; (b) included regulations for the prevention of the transference of contagious disease and rules for navy, army, air force, mercantile marine, railway, motor industry, cinemas, and so forth. The problems of preventive ophthalmology constituted a question of collective action, and were of particular value at the moment, when projects of reconstruction were to the fore. In connection with the prevention of accidents to the eyes in factories there is urgent need for a scale of awards for compensation founded upon scientific principles. The formulation of regulations for the public services demanded (1) a widening of the basis of education of ophthalmologists; (2) cooperation between ophthalmologists and other experts; and (3) improvement in the methods of examination of candidates and the selection of examiners.

After the discussion, the Doyne Memorial medal was presented to Colonel Parsons by the deputy master, Mr. Philip H. Adams. In the afternoon members and their friends were entertained at tea in the gardens of Trinity College by Mr. D. N. Nagel, M. A., and Miss Nagel. In the evening the annual dinner of the congress was held in the hall of Keble College, some seventy members and visitors being present. The toast list was commendably brief.

After dinner the annual general meeting of the congress was held in the junior common room at Keble College. Among other things, it was determined, on the motion of Mr. J. B. Story, to make representations to the General Medical Council in support of those recently referred to that body by the Council of British Ophthalmologists concerning the instruction and examination of medical students in eye work. Readers of the LANCET are aware that the recommendations in question have been rejected by the General Medical Council.

On July 11 the proceedings began with a paper by Dr. S. Lewis Zeigler of Philadelphia, on the "Problem of the Artificial Pupil; Knife Needle versus Scissors." Dr. P. Bailliart of Paris followed with a communication dealing with his dynamometer for determining the blood pressure in the branches of the central retinal artery. Mr. A. F. MacCallan (Cairo) read a paper on the "Seasonable Variations of Acute Conjunctivitis in Egypt." Col. A. H. Tubby entered a suggestive plea for investigation as to any possible connection between skeletal assymetry, on the one hand, and defects of the eye on the other.

A discussion upon employment for the blind was introduced by three blind speakers, namely, Mrs. Adolphus Duncombe, Capt. Peirson Webber and Captain Towse, V. C., and it is to be hoped that useful action will be undertaken by the congress in connection therewith.

In the afternoon the Ashhurst War Hospital at Littlemore, near Oxford, was thrown open to members by Lieut.-Col. T. S. Good, R. A. M. C.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Guibert. Subconjunctival Injections of Cow's Milk. Clin. Opht., v. 23, pp. 326-328.

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Barbieri, A. Paralysis of the Ocular Muscles. Semana Med. Buenos Aires, v. 25, p. 751.

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TUBERCULOSIS OF THE RETINAL VESSELS.

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TUBERCULOSIS OF THE RETINA

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This paper reports three cases of retinal tuberculosis with notes on two previously reported. Read before the American Ophthalmological Society, June 16th, 1919.

Not many cases of this condition will be seen by any one observer; and only a minority are well suited to ophthalmoscopic study. The only way to fill out the ophthalmoscopic picture of this important disease is by placing on record such cases as may from time to time prove available for prolonged ophthalmoscopic observation.

It is important, too, that such records be made to include both in description and in pictorial representation, so far as possible, the minute details that tend to throw farther light on the great field of ophthalmoscopic pathology. There is reason also to present additional evidence that the group of cases here referred to really represents an important form of ocular tuberculosis; and their study may help to a better understanding of the tuberculous process in general. Such considerations seem to justify this report.

Within the last twenty years, several articles have appeared on tuberculosis of the retinal vessels. Prior to that time, the etiology of retinal vasculitis or perivasculitis was unknown. It was not until after Koch[1] had published his articles in 1884, that the causative organism of tuberculosis was known; and in 1890 he called attention[2] to the value of tuberculin as a diagnostic and therapeutic agent. With tuberculin used for diagnostic purposes it was discovered that many obscure ocular conditions were of tuberculous origin, and could be improved or cured by the intelligent administration of tuberculin.

It is to von Hippel[3] that most credit is due for the standardization of the use of tuberculin for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes in diseases of the eyes. He relied on the results obtained from subcutaneous injections of old tuberculin (O. T.); and called attention to the necessity in some instances, where negative results are obtained with the first diagnostic injection, of repeating the test and increasing the dose. He was not satisfied with a negative reaction until five or six injections had been given, with the last dose as high as 5 mg. of the O. T. If neither constitutional nor local reaction was produced with the last injection, tuberculosis was excluded as an etiologic factor. In suspected chronic tuberculosis Verhoeff[4] injects 1 mg. of tuberculin at the first dose; and if the reaction is negative, follows it with an injection of 10 mg. in 48 hours. It would be hazardous to use doses of this size in tuberculosis of the retinal vessels because of the great danger of a severe reaction being produced and followed by a massive hemorrhage into the vitreous.

The following case is of value because a study of the early lesions of tuberculosis of the retinal vessels could be made and because the case has been followed over a period of two and one-half years, during which time the disease in the right eye progressed thru the various stages even with tuberculin treatment, while the condition in the left eye was held under control and apparently cured.

Case I. L. E. B., male, age 28 years (patient of W. C. F.), rancher by occupation. Had chicken pox when a child. When 12 years old had a severe attack of influenza. Since that time has enjoyed the best of health. Denies having had veneral diseases. Has not had a chronic cough or lost weight recently. Three years ago complained of symptoms of eye strain for which glasses were prescribed, which gave relief. Family history good. Sometime in October, 1916, his eyes became very red and painful, but with no marked photophobia or lacrimation. Noticed that when rising suddenly from stooping posture, saw yellow and gray spots to the periphery of the visual fields. There was no conjunctivitis at the time. This lasted about ten days, and gradually cleared up until he was apparently well. The eye was not treated at that time. Shortly after this attack he came to the city and was employed as a bookkeeper.

November 15, 1916, the eyes became painful and red. Photophobia and lacrimation became so severe that they interfered with his work. The symptoms rapidly increased in severity until it was only with the greatest effort that he was able to keep his eyes open.

He consulted me November 17th, complaining of severe photophobia, profuse lacrimation and ocular pain. V.: R. 6/6, L. 6/6. There was marked circumcorneal injection of both eyes. The right cornea had two deeply located fine, oval, grayish infiltrated areas in the upper temporal quadrant. They were 2 mm. from the limbus. The upper opacity was 1½ mm. in diameter and was the denser. The lower was 1 mm. in diameter, and was separated from its fellow by 1 mm. of clear cornea. The left cornea had two opacities in the lower temporal quadrant, which were larger than those in the right cornea, and two small ones, pin point in size, in the pupillary area. See Fig. 1. The infiltrates were grayish in color, and did not stain. No blood vessels were present in the cornea.

Pupils were dilated with atropin and the ophthalmoscope revealed the following: Right Eye. The margin of the optic nerve was ill-defined. Two oval patches, about one-fifth disc diameter in size, of grayish exudate, one covering the superior nasal vein and the other the superior nasal artery, were seen near the margin of the nerve head. (See Fig. 2.) Two similar patches could be seen covering the first upper branch of the superior temporal vein and were about one-half disc diameter apart. The intervening portion of the vein was slightly constricted. The vein was not markedly distended distally to the in-



Fig. 1. Case I. Right eye, showing corneal lesions which brought patient under observation.

filtrations. Because of the marked photophobia the examination was discontinued. Left fundus negative.

Atropin and 5% dionin to be used locally, and calomel internally were prescribed, and a subcutaneous injection of old tuberculin was given. A thoro physical examination was made and at this time nothing abnormal was found.

November 20th, pupils dilated and lacrimation less. No changes in corneal opacities. Fundus examination revealed in the right eye numerous small patches of exudate covering the retinal veins. The veins were somewhat distended and near several of the exudates they were irregular. All patches were to the temporal side and in the periphery. Report from dentist negative. Wassermann negative. Urine negative. X-ray of chest, teeth, and nasal sinuses negative.

November 22nd. R. No changes in

corneal opacities. Increase in number of retinal exudates and those that were formerly present have increased slightly in size. L. No change in cornea. There is a slight haziness over inferior temporal vein which is slightly irregular. These changes are apparently a focal reaction to the tuberculin which was given November 15th. There was also a local but no constitutional reaction to tuberculin.

November 26. Corneal opacities not as dense as when last seen. Fundus much the same.

December 2, V. = R. 6/12, L. 6/15. Corneal opacities showed slight improvement. The right fundus presented two large opacities on temporal side near equator. One was about two-thirds size of disc, was yellow and covered the vessels—the other was lower and was about one and one-half times as long as disc and one-half as broad, had irregular edges and was yellow. There were two new opacities about one-fifth disc diameter in size, covering the lower temporal vein. (Figs. 2-4.) In the left eye four small patches were found in the periphery of the fundus covering veins. The veins in the vicinity of the exudates were irregular.

The patient at that time recalled having a suspected tuberculous cow in his herd from which he received his milk. Thinking that there might be a possibility that this was the bovine type of tuberculosis, 1/2,000 mg. of bovine tuberculin was injected subcutaneously on Dec. 5.

December 8th, V. = R. 6/30, L. 6/30. In the right eye along the lower temporal vein, between the patches of exudate, a small hemorrhage was seen. There were several new patches of exudate in the left fundus, all far anterior. (See 3 of colored plate.) I believed these changes to be a reaction to the tuberculin which had been injected December 2.

December 10. Vision same as before. Another small hemorrhage near vein in upper part of right eye, corneal opacities were very much improved.

December 12. Fundus picture much the same.

December 16. V. = R. 6/30, L. 6/30. Corneal opacities were very much smaller and only seen with condensed light and corneal loupe. In the right eye the larger patches of exudate had disappeared and had been replaced by smaller hemorrhages. (See Plate XVI, 4 and 5.) There were other small hemorrhages in the region of the patches of exudate. There were no massive hemorrhages or vitreous haze. The left fundus showed little change from last examinations.

December 24. Two small pin point opacities were still present in the right cornea. For several days the vision had been more blurred in the morning, and cleared during the day. V. = R. 6/7.5—1. The right fundus remained about the same. V. = L. 6/10. The left cornea clear, no patches of exudate. To the nasal side of the fundus the lesions along the vessels had disappeared, but one large patch still remained on the temporal side far forward. Tuberculin 1/50,000 mg. was injected subcutaneously.

December 28. V. = R 6/12 + 3, L. 6/5. Three small opacities were still present in the right cornea. The right fundus showed marked changes. There were numerous new flame-shaped hemorrhages surrounding the veins distally to the opacities. The whole venous system was more congested and the vitreous was slightly hazy. In the left eye three small corneal opacities were again noted but the fundus showed no change since the former examination.

January 8, 1917. There were numerous flame-like hemorrhages scattered over the temporal side of the right fundus. In upper temporal region the hemorrhage had increased greatly in size, and obstructed a view of the vein. In the lower temporal area a whitish band could be seen which resembled the beginning of a retinitis proliferans. The left fundus showed changes also. The large patch of exudate that was seen at the former examination had disappeared. But on the lower temporal vein quite far forward several streaks of exudate had made their appearance. Tuberculin 1/300,000 mg. subcutaneously.

January 11. V. = R. 6/12, L. 6/6 +. Both corneas were clear, but fundus picture was about the same. No focal reaction from the tuberculin.

At this time the man who had been looking after the patient's ranch left him, and it was necessary for him to return to care for his cattle. He took his tuberculin with him, and had his local physician administer it, and said that he would consult an oculist who was located nearer to his home, from time to time. I did not see him again until April 7, 1917.

During his absence a supposedly abscessed tooth was removed, and the nasal sinuses were opened by operation with the hope of removing focal areas of infection. After the operations the vision seemed gradually to improve until April 6, when he noticed that there was a dark line in his lower temporal field, which increased in size during the day and finally included the lower nasal field also. Early in the day he noticed a small stellate black spot in the center of the visual field which was rapidly replaced by a uniform central haze. He had not been doing any unusually strenuous work just prior to these changes. We could find no external cause for it. His tuberculin had not been given regularly during his absence.

On April 7, I saw him again, with V. = R. 5/15, L. 5/5. There was a small oval infiltration in the pupillary area of the right cornea, similar to those that were present earlier in the disease.

A large subhyaloid hemorrhage was present in the upper one-fourth of the fundus. Another large hemorrhage was present in the region of the disc and two smaller ones to the nasal side of it. These were best seen with a + 7 D. lens. The disc was not visible, the view of it being obscured by the hemorrhages and the hazy vitreous.

The left cornea was clear and the only change in the left fundus was a slight variation in the caliber of the lower nasal vein. 1/300,000 mg. tuberculin was given and was not followed by a reaction. The large hemorrhage seen at the last examination was almost entirely absorbed.

May 5th. V. = R. 5/20, L. 5/5 +. A few strands of connective tissue could be seen in the lower temporal side of the right fundus, which is the first sign of a retinitis proliferans, the vit. ous was not so hazy and the disc outline could be faintly seen.

In the left vitreous a small mossy floater was seen, and on the extreme anterior portion of one of the branches of the upper nasal vein some patches of exudate were present. The nerve was red and its edges were hazy. 1/250,000 mg. of tuberculin was given subcutaneously.

May 7th. V. = R. 5/30, L. 5/5—2. No other change in fundus.

May 19th. Tuberculin 1/200,000 mg. subcutaneously. V. = R. 5/60, L. 5/5+. Righ eye hazy to temporal side of fundus. More strands of connective tissue below. Left fundus no pathologic changes seen.

May 21st. No changes since May 19.

Patient was again seen June 4, V. = R. 3/60, L. 5/3. There was no marked change from when last observed. 1/175,000 mg. of tuberculin given.

The patient was seen by me July 9th, 1917, a few weeks prior to my entering the military service, and at that time he showed the following: V. = R. 5/60 +, L. 5/4. The strands of connective tissue below and to the temporal field were getting whiter, but no other changes were observed.

During my absence Dr. Jackson noted the following:

September 24, 1917. V. = R. 0.08, L. 1/4. R. some fundus reflex in all directions. General haziness of vitreous. No fresh hemorrhages. Large masses of connective tissue getting white, avascular, below and to the disc.

March 8, 1918. Cleared up until two weeks ago when image seemed distorted and since has become clouded. Caused by pitching hay.

September 14, 1918. One hemorrhage the last of July, which has cleared up again. V. = R. 0.2+, L. 1.4. Right vision best eccentric, looking to right (Temporal field.).



FIG. 2.—RIGHT FUNDUS, DECEMBER 2, 1916. THE 4 AND 5 INDICATE PORTIONS SHOWN IN DETAIL AT A LATER DATE ON COLORED PLATE XVI.

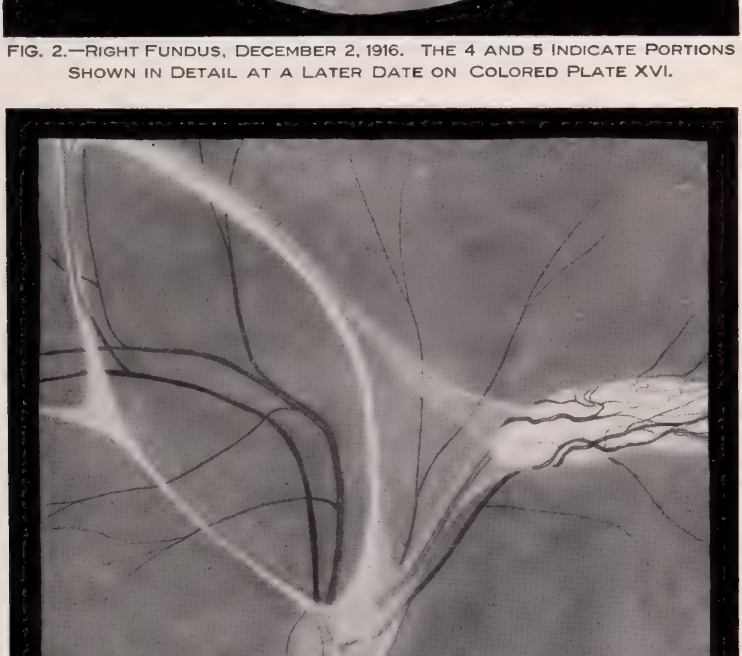


FIG. 6.—BANDS OF RETINITIS PROLIFERANS IN RIGHT EYE, AS SEEN TWO AND ONE-HALF YEARS AFTER ONSET OF THE DISEASE.

Ophthalmoscope. Right. Strands of white tissue and haze in lower nasal quadrant. Upper temporal almost normal to periphery. Disc or macula not seen. Some opacity far forward, chiefly on nasal side.

June 20, 1919. V. = R. 0.33, L. 1.4. The ophthalmoscope showed in the right eye the appearances of retinitis proliferans, as shown in Fig. 6.

Comment. In this case tuberculosis of the retinal vessels would not have been detected, until after hemorrhages were present and vision materially lowered, if it had not been for the corneal involvement which caused the photophobia and called the patient's attention to his eyes. Doubtless many of the cases of massive hemorrhage into the vitreous have the same lesions of the retinal vessels, but attention is not attracted to the eyes until the vision is disturbed.

With the history of the patient's drinking milk that was obtained from a tuberculous cow, and with the marked focal reaction after the administration of bovine tuberculin, it seems probable that the condition was the result of an infection with bovine tubercle bacilli.

The retinal involvement began as a perivasculitis and with only one exception (Fig. 2) the areas of infiltration were confined to the perivascular spaces of the veins; but, as the disease progressed in the right eye, the walls of the vessels became involved and a true phlebitis occurred. (Plate XVI, Fig. 4).

The necessity of using very small doses of tuberculin both for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes is illustrated in this case, for with as small a therapeutic dose as 1/50,000 mg. a marked focal reaction apparently took place, and caused the changes which were seen in the right eye, Dec. 28, 1916. The following dose was decreased to 1/300,000 mg. and the subsequent doses were very cautiously increased with no farther serious reactions. Tuberculin apparently had a beneficial action on the left eye in this case, for it was started when the retinal lesions had first manifested themselves in that eye and they disappeared shortly after their appearance. It is also possible that it had a detrimental influence on the right eye.

Case II. R. B. T. Clergyman (patient of E. J.), aged 33, when he came in 1906, for a change of the glasses he had been wearing for six years. For four years he had noticed distant vision growing indistinct, and his lenses were found insufficient to correct his M. As. He required R.—2.50 ⌒ +1.50 cyl. Ax. 67° V. = 1.1. L.—2.50 ⌒ + 1.75 cyl. Ax. 95° V.= 1.1. Both 1.2.

1911. 9.27. His vision had again grown indistinct from a slight increase of the myopic astigmatism, and change in its meridians. His new correcting lenses again gave V.= 1.2.

1916. 1.25. He had lost much sleep lately, and noticed muscae, and lids felt "granulated." There was some venous hyperemia and papillary roughening of the palpebral conjunctiva. V.= 1.1 in each eye. Ointment of yellow oxide of mercury 1:180, and rest from reading, gave relief.

1916. 12.5. He had lately noticed muscae before left eye and required a slight change of the left lens, which again gave relief. L.—3 ⌒ +2 cyl. Ax. 100° = 1.1. His accommodation was 5 D.

He had come to Colorado in 1900, had suffered from obscure pulmonary symptoms, poor general health and tuberculosis of the testes, which latter were removed three years later.

1917. 2.19. A spot before the left eye has been growing worse. His corrected vision is only 0.5. Ophthalmoscope, L. Pupil dilated with homatropin. Media clear. The macula shows 20 or more rather faint grayish white spots, arranged in lines radiating from the fovea. The retinal veins are all somewhat dilated and tortuous; but esespecially the upper temporal and its branches. In the upper temporal retina are many small flame-shaped hemorrhages. These begin two disc diameters from the disc, and extend up and forward to the periphery of the visible fundus. He was referred to Dr. C. N. Meader, who found slight roughening of the respiratory sounds and dullness at the apices, which he took to be evi-

dence of an old lesion; but no other evidence of active tuberculosis.

2.19. He received 1/10 mg. of old tuberculin. This caused a distinct general reaction including disturbance of blood pressure and nausea, which was taken to indicate an adrenal lesion. But there was no objective evidence of a focal reaction in the eye. Vision was unchanged, except that he complained that a distortion of objects seen with L. seemed slightly increased.

3.5. Began use of 1/100,000 mg. bacillus emulsion once a week gradually increasing the dose.

3.16. About 22 hours after an increased dose of tuberculin, the optic discs looked slightly redder, and he noticed more distortion of objects with this eye than before the dose was given.

4.3. After receiving tuberculin yesterday, he noticed more distortion. "Things looked drunk and compressed laterally." V.= 0.5.

4.12. V. =0.7. The white spots in the macula are much more distinct than they were two months ago. There are remains of several hemorrhages in the upper retina, the region directly above the disc being more involved than at first. Some of the veins are obscured at the crossings.

5.3. V.= 0.6, but was worse after the last dose of tuberculin, 9 days ago.

7.2. V. = 0.8. He thinks it was better two weeks ago. Since then he got over-tired, driving his car on a trip of about 500 miles thru the mountains.

7.23. V. = 0.7. Could not rest so much as he wished lately. Vision "confused" since he had two tuberculin injections with only a week interval. After this two weeks' intervals were allowed.

At this time the white spots in and about the macula were most numerous 50 or 60 and very sharp and distinct. Small hemorrhages still occurred, but they were getting less numerous. The upper temporal retina was hazy. But other portions remained normal. After this all the appearances of retinal disease gradually diminished.

1918. 12.3. 1/10 mg. gave pain in elbow for last 2 months.

1918. 1.28. There are still about 15 small white spots in the upper nasal quadrant of the macula, none of them as large as the largest retinal artery in diameter. The upper veins are still large and tortuous. The haziness of the retina has almost or quite cleared up. There are no hemorrhages.

10.23. The retina above the disc was hazy and swollen and two small indefinite flame-shaped hemorrhages were found. The veins of this region were rather large and slightly tortuous. The macula appeared quite normal. V. = 1.?

11.22. The retina above the disc has cleared up. The vessels all appear normal. R. — 2.25 ⌒ + 1.25 Cyl. ax. 80° = 1.1. L. —3. ⌒ + 2.50 Cyl. ax. 103° = 1.

The left eye has continued normal. The right eye has not been affected at any time. At no time was the patient's general health much impaired. Apart from the tuberculin re[illegible] there was no fever, and while [illegible]r treatment he gained 11 pounds in weight. He continued the whole time walking and riding thru the mountains, leading an active rather strenuous outdoor life, in the care of his large mountain parish between 6,000 and 8,000 feet above the sea level.

Case III. Male aged 25, while studying hard for the Priesthood two years before and in poor health, lost the sight of his left eye from vitreous hemorrhage. In February, 2 months later, his eye was well again. In March the right eye became blind from the same cause, but it had recovered in August. In September the hemorrhages started again. He saw Dr. Arnold Knapp of New York City, and in June last he had been put upon the use of tuberculin, and his sight in both eyes had cleared so that he could read again. Then the right rapidly grew worse, and he was sent from Eastern New York to Colorado.

1917. 12.19. Vision R. moving fingers at one foot in the extreme temporal field. L. = + 0.25 Cyl. ax. 170° = 1.1.

Ophthalmoscope. R. under atropin, cornea and lens clear, vitreous clouded, no fundus details visible. There is a grayish red reflex in all directions and floating masses, which in the lower temporal vitreous look almost like detached

retina, but no vessels are found. Left eye slight haziness of vitreous. Choroid rather patchy and "moth eaten," but optic disc and retinal vessels normal.

Locally hot stupes and atropin were employed for the right eye, and he was referred to Dr. C. N. Meader, who found infiltration of apices of the lungs, especially the right; and put him on general treatment and regimen for tuberculosis. But without tuberculin treatment.

1918. 1.18. The right eye shows a yellowish gray reflex without details over the whole fundus, except the anterior nasal portion which is dark. He has gained 3 pounds in weight.

2.1. The anterior nasal portion is clearing. V. R. = 1/500.

2.15. A fresh hemorrhage occurred in the lower portion of the vitreous, noticed as a black mass in the upper field of vision and increased haziness.

4.5. There was another fresh hemorrhage seen as a black mass in the lower vitreous.

5.3. There were some whitish masses in the vitreous up and out, and fainter red reflex in other directions. No vessels visible on the masses. His general condition is better, and he can walk five miles without feeling the worse for it.

June 6, R. V. = 0.002. A whitish mass in vitreous, seen with a 12.D. lens, shows fine vessels; and masses of vitreous opacity are seen toward the periphery of the fundus.

8.15. R. V. = 0.004. Ophthalmoscopic findings about as before.

1919. 1.29. R. There is a dense general haze of the vitreous, permitting a moderate reflex. But no fresh hemorrhages since last noted. V. = 0.05.

Left, V. = 1.2. Fundus normal but one distinct linear opacity in vitreous to nasal side of center.

Earlier Cases. Regarding the cases previously reported it is of interest to note that the patient whose fundus condition was illustrated in plate facing p. 579, vol. 14, of the Transactions of this Society[5] has remained in good health, with practically no change in the retinal condition since that time, corrected vision 0.8 when last examined.

Mrs. W. R. L., whose case was alluded to in the same paper (detailed report elsewhere[6]), after months of recurring hemorrhages had recovered, V. R. = 0.06, L. 0.4. She seemed in good health for 3 months after the birth of her child, but gradually lost weight, and felt less well.

1916. 3.6. Her vision was R. 0.06, L. 0.4. Six weeks later she noticed some disturbance of vision.

4.28. V. R. = 0.06 L. 0.15. The ophthalmoscope showed decidedly increased clouding of the vitreous, but no fresh hemorrhage.

5.1. A fresh hemorrhage occurred the evening of April 29th, in the left eye. Vision is reduced to perception of hand movements. The hemorrhage is located in the temporal part of the vitreous. To the nasal side the fundus reflex is good and there are whitish masses well forward: (25 to 35 D. H.)

5.15. L. Has gradually improved, vitreous clearing. V. = 0.07.

5.22. Two days ago a fresh hemorrhage occurred in the right eye, which shows general haze of the vitreous and V. = moving shadows.

5.29. V. = L. 0.2. It was worse again six days ago, so that she had to be led around.

6.20. Sight was better until 8 days ago, then worse, since then clearing. Now V. R. 0.002, L. 0.1.

7.27. Feels the heat, appetite depressed. Sight beginning to improve after fresh hemorrhage 3 days ago.

8.25. V. R. = 0.012, L. 0.05.

9.25. Fresh clouding 3 weeks ago. Improving since. V. R. = 0.012, L. = .005.

10.13. She was sent from the city to her old home on a farm in South Dakota.

1917. 2.13. She has lived out of doors, gained weight and strength. V. R. = 0.06, L. 0.35.

3.8. V. has dropped to 0.1 in L., the better eye, with fresh clouding.

3.31. V. = R. 0.12, L. 0.003.

5.23. Sight has steadily improved. R. = 0.12, L. 0.25.

11.27. There was a new hemorrhage in July and after that steady improvement. V. = R. 0.14, L. 0.4.

1918. 1.8. Had some disturbance of vision 3 weeks ago, but no evidence of fresh hemorrhage. V. = R. 0.01, L. 0.04.

1.18. Sight seems worse. V. = R. 0.01, L. 0.4. She was again put on tuberculin which had been discontinued for 15 months.

2.16. There has been aching about her right ear, and a fresh hemorrhage into the vitreous in the left. V. R. = 0.012, L. moving objects.

3.11. She again returned to South Dakota.

For about two years the discs and most of the fundus have been invisible. When the vitreous was most clear, masses of white retinitis proliferans could be seen thru it.

Conclusions: From the cases now reported it appears that:

Retinal tuberculosis begins by the appearance of white infiltrates in front of certain retinal vessels, most frequently the veins. Later these particular vessels show all the signs of perivasculitis and the affected portions of the veins may be greatly altered in caliber. At this stage hemorrhages occur and the patient is likely to first come under observation for impairment of vision.

The hemorrhages may be comparatively small and confined to the retina throughout the course of the disease; clearing up in the end, so as to leave no trace visible with the ophthalmoscope, and good restoration of vision. In other cases the hemorrhages are massive, pushing off the vitreous or bursting into it, and followed by the well known picture of retinitis proliferans and great permanent impairment of vision.

In many cases in which the eye-ground remains visible thruout, white dots resembling those seen in renal retinitis are formed in the macula; causing impairment of vision, but less than their appearance would lead us to expect, and subsequently clearing up entirely.

Often both eyes are affected in the beginning, but one may remain only slightly involved, and recover completely, while the other is greatly and permanently damaged by hemorrhage.

The course of retinal tuberculosis is more protracted than that of other diseases likely to cause some of the same ophthalmoscopic symptoms.

Cases not attended with pyrexia, or extensive tuberculous lesions in other parts of the body, do well on small doses of tuberculin given at intervals of at least one week; and all cases require the general regimen and treatment for combating tuberculosis.

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THE TREATMENT OF DACRYOCYSTITIS BY CURETTAGE. (THOMPSON): SUPPLEMENTED BY IMMEDIATE RAPID DILATATION OF THE LACRIMONASAL DUCT

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This paper discusses the reasons for using this method of treatment, describes it, reports a series of cases treated by it, and proposes certain instruments for use in such operations. Read before the Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, June, 1919.

In dealing surgically with any diseased organ the method of choice should be that which respects, as far as possible, the anatomic integrity of the organ and its physiologic function. It is, of course, not always possible to attain this ideal. Conservative, or what, in this connection, might be better termed "preservative" surgery, may err in attempting to save an organ which can never function normally, and which may, if retained, be a source of continued trouble.

Interference with the free drainage of any of the mucous membrane lined cavities having an outlet is inevitably followed by infection and inflammation,—e. g., cystitis consecutive to enlarged prostate, and dacryocystitis following occlusion of the nasal duct. In cases of this character the surgical method of choice should, if possible, be that which respects the integrity of the organ and seeks to reestablish permanent drainage thru the outlet designed by nature for that purpose.

The assumption that, as a prerequisite to the treatment of dacryocystitis, it was necessary to secure adequate and permanent drainage led to the use of inflexible probes shaped to conform to the course and supposed caliber of the nasal duct. One of the earliest to advocate and practice this method was Bowman, who also suggested an incision of the canaliculus for the purpose of permitting the entrance of larger probes.

It cannot be gainsaid that occasionally this method led to the reestablishment of patency, with resultant diminution or abolition of the discharge from the sac. But the failures far outnumbered the successes; the treatment was painful, the probing had to be kept up for months or years and even then there was no assurance that the opening so laboriously secured would remain open permanently. One reason for failure lay in the inadequate size of Bowman's probes—his largest (No. 6) being only 1.5 mm. in diameter, whereas, as has been shown by Theobald[1] the average diameter of the lacrimonasal canal is something over 4 mm. Many who practiced Bowman's method in their early professional career eventually became convinced of its futility and abandoned probes altogether, contenting themselves with frequent syringing of the sac thru the slit canaliculus. Others pinned their faith to styles worn permanently. Still others resorted to the the use of large probes (Theobald and Ziegler) or adopted excision or destruction of the sac.

With improvement in the technic of sac removal or sac destruction, the most annoying and potentially dangerous feature of this disease—accumulation of pus in the sac—was immediately done away with. Equally striking would be the improvement or cure of the attendant lacrimal conjunctivitis, so that life again became bearable to the individual who had, possibly for years, carried about a purulent, watery eye. This operation, improvement as it was over older methods and very widely adopted, had two serious drawbacks,—it necessarily destroyed the drainage apparatus and left the eye more or less watery. The amount of moisture in the eye after operation varied from practically no increase in the surface film normal to the eye with drainage apparatus intact, to a suffusion of the eye with tears which constantly over-

flowed and produced a moist eczema of the skin quite as annoying to the patient as the former purulent accumulation in the sac. In an effort to lessen this annoying epiphora the palpebral portion of the lacrimal gland was sometimes removed. The continuance of pus formation after operation was not altogether rare and indicated failure to remove or destroy all the mucosa of the sac.

It is difficult to determine just what percentage of extirpations of the sac are successful. The majority of these cases occur in dispensary patients who are notoriously apt to pass from observation before the interested surgeon has a chance to determine the final result of his operation. As far as dispensary patients are concerned, it is probable that the report made to Mosher by his ophthalmic house officers[2] that "a third of the results were satisfactory" is not far wide of the mark. If this figure approximates the percentage of successful results, it is not surprising that many sac extirpators have sought other methods which might conceivably produce a higher percentage of successes. I suspect, too, that many who are willing to resort to extirpation of the sac as a last resort, rebel against a method which destroys an organ and hence its physiologic function, and will seek first to secure some form of permanent drainage of the suppurating sac, whether that be thru the natural opening or by an opening artificially made directly from the nose to the sac. The endonasal operation on the lacrimal sac has in recent years engaged the attention of rhinologists, and a variety of more or less closely related procedures have been proposed. This subject was thoroly discussed before this section in 1917 by Chamberlain.[3]

As the aim of any intranasal operation is to create a permanent pathway for the tears and secretions from the sac, and if that permanent pathway is not secured the operation must be accounted a failure, it is interesting to note the opinions of some of the expert rhinologists who have devoted special attention to this operation. Chamberlain says: "Whether or not the physiologic pathway for the tears into the nose can be maintained permanently, in a sufficient percentage of cases at the hands of the average rhinologist, is a question which time alone can answer." Mosher, in discussion, remarked that "all intranasal methods must face the danger of reclosure of the canal," and that "every form of intranasal operation on the lacrimal sac and the nasal duct is only a temporary success unless supplemented with frequent probing or the prolonged wearing of a style."

In view of the foregoing, it can hardly be affirmed that an impeccable surgical method for dacryocystitis has yet been evolved. It behooves us all, therefore, to take cognizance of, and put into practice, any new proposal which conceivably can aid in overcoming this intractable disease. Such a proposal was recently put forward by W. R. Thompson.[4] Before describing his method of treatment, Thompson presents some reasons in contravention of the generally accepted belief that disease of the lacrimal duct is of nasal origin and in support of his theory that solid foreign material carried by the tears thru the punctum and sac finally lodges on a fold of mucous membrane in the bony duct there to form the nucleus of an obstruction, which shall eventually block the canal. Thompson says:

"It is the function of the lacrimal canals, sac and nasal duct to convey not only liquids to the nasal cavity from the conjunctival sac, but also such solid matter as passes thru the canaliculi. The nasal duct is lined with mucous membrane continuous with the conjunctiva, which contains numerous folds resembling valves. It not only seems possible, but it is very probable, that some of these foreign bodies may lodge and become fixed in these folds . . . It requires only a short time for a fixed foreign body to create irritation and erosion of the surrounding structures as in the case of a foreign body in the nares. When sufficient time has elapsed these foreign

bodies increase in size by the deposition of salts from the tears and serum.

"The clinical history of stricture of the nasal duct from its earliest manifestations (the stage of epiphora) to the time of complete closure with extensive pus formation or mucocele, is exactly what would be expected as the result of the presence of a foreign body in the duct with its irresistible tendencies to inflammation, ulceration and accretion."

It is a well known fact that obstructions of the canaliculi may occur thru the entrance of foreign bodies from the conjunctival sac. It would indeed be surprising if, occasionally, these minute bodies which in one manner or another find their way into the eyes, should not, if they fail to find a fixed position on the cornea, bulbar or palpebral conjunctiva, be swept into the puncta, especially the lower one. Cilia, broken off or shed, not rarely find their way into the punctum and cause much irritation until extracted. I have on two occasions removed short hairs (not over 2 mm. long) from the puncta. The signs of irritation began shortly after a haircut so that it is reasonable to suppose that the extracted hair was a fragment of the scalp hair and not a cilium. A foreign body carried deeper into the canaliculus would in all probability form the nucleus of a dacryolith by the deposition of lime salts. It is well known, too, as noted by Weeks[5], that occasionally fungoid masses due to the presence of penicillium, leptothrix, streptothrix or actinomyces, may remain in the canaliculus for years, causing slight disturbance and a small amount of mucopurulent secretion. Theobald notes that bits of the beards of wheat and barley have been found lodged in the canaliculi. Polypi, too, have been met with in the lacrimal sac and by obstructing the passage of tears into the nose, gave rise to symptoms resembling those of stenosis of the duct.

The lacrimal drainage apparatus is a continuous mucous-membrane-lined canal of varying caliber extending from the puncta to the nasal orifice of the bony duct. Once a foreign body has lodged in the canaliculus, it may, of course, remain there and form the nucleus of a dacryolith. On the other hand, there are no natural barriers to its passage into the sac and down into the duct. In the duct its progress might very well be interrupted by one of the folds or rugae into which the mucous membrane of the duct is thrown. Assuming that such lodgment occurs, what is to prevent the foreign body forming at this site the nucleus of a lime salt deposit? Whether or not such a mass grows sufficiently large actually to occlude the lumen, the simple fact that it remains in prolonged contact with the mucous membrane would lead to inflammation, ulceration and eventually to the formation of granulation tissue. That such granulation tissue does occur in the bony duct is affirmed by Ziegler.[6]

Even if we reject Dr. Thompson's very plausible theory, we must assume that the mucous membrane lining the sac and the duct is chronically inflamed. It may even be, as stated by Fergus,[7] that the essence of dacryocystitis is a septic mucous membrane and not a stricture. Surgical methods hitherto have not been directed against the diseased mucosa, a fact which may account for many failures in treatment.

If, then, we are dealing with a mucous membrane which presents polypi, areas of ulceration, and granulation tissue, it is essential that such products of inflammation should be gotten rid of preparatory to topical treatment of the mucous membrane. And this is precisely the rationale of Dr. Thompson's method. The steps of his operation are as follows:

The canaliculus is freely slit in order to permit the entrance of a large size Buck's flexible ear curette. In the presence of pus in the sac the walls are gently curetted. In the absence of sac infection, the small size curette is entered in the duct the same as a probe. When the obstruction is reached gentle pressure is made in connection with an augur-like motion until the curette finds its way into the nasal cavity. The instrument should be manipulated until it passes easily thru the stricture and the entire duct. The next larger

size is to be used in the same manner and so on until a curette practically the size of the duct will pass easily into the nose and all sensation of roughness at the site of the stricture has been removed. The operation is completed by applying tr. iodin lightly to the walls of the sac and duct.

A general anesthetic has been found necessary for children and some nervous adults. For others a preliminary hypodermic injection of morphin, 0.5 per cent cocain in the conjunctival and lacrimal sacs, and a subcutaneous injection of one-half per cent cocain in the vicinity of the sac has given sufficient anesthesia.

Although curettage of the sac and duct as an auxiliary method of treating dacryocystitis is not altogether new, Dr. Thompson should be credited with applying it as the principal feature of an operative measure. Landolt and Gygax[8] advocate curettage of the sac and duct "with a small curved sharp fenestrated spoon" when syringing and probing fail to relieve or when "the patient has but a few days to spare for treatment." Ziegler[9], whose advocacy of rapid dilatation of the nasal duct is so well known, pictures a lacrimal curette the use of which he thus describes: "If proliferation occurs in the lumen of the duct I employ a lacrimal curette to remove the granulomata. . . . . The procedure is simple and the result will often prove most gratifying." It is very evident that Ziegler did not consider curettage an essential feature of his operation, but useful only as an adjuvant in exceptional cases.

As will be noted from the case reports a number of my patients operated on according to the technic of Dr. Thompson, presented themselves weeks or months later with recurrences. Unquestionably curettage causes a good deal of primary postoperative reaction with serous exudate and swelling of the mucosa, which may be sufficient to block the canal. Undrained fluid accumulating in the sac forms an excellent culture medium for the propagation of whatever organisms remain, and hence pus in expressible quantities may occur. Reasoning thus, it seemed to me that if curettage were supplemented by immediate rapid dilatation of the bony duct, there would be less likelihood of temporary occlusion; and thus drainage would at all times be sufficiently free to prevent accumulation in the sac. In this connection it is interesting to note that rapid dilatation to insure adequate drainage has recently been practiced by Verhoeff[10] with gratifying results in connection with his revival of Agnew's operation in acute phlegmon of the sac.

My present procedure is as follows: After slightly dilating the punctum with a conical probe the sac is irrigated with $HgCl_2$ 1/5000 and a few drops of cocain 5% with epinephrin injected. The lower canaliculus is then freely slit. The medium sized curette is passed to the sac and the surface gently curetted. A moderate sized probe, Theobald 5 or 6, is then introduced and passed to the nostril. The purpose of this preliminary probing is twofold, (1) to insure that the curette shall find its way into the lumen of the duct and avoid the possibility of a false passage. (Dr. Thompson, in a personal communication, states that, in his opinion, there is no necessity for this precaution); and (2) to create an opening sufficient to permit an anesthetic solution to come in contact with the mucous membrane. On withdrawing the probe I inject a few drops of a 10 per cent solution of cocain (with epinephrin) and repeat twice at two-minute intervals. During the injection the patient is instructed to bend his head forward so that the strong cocain solution shall emerge from the nostril. By this method I have obtained adequate anesthesia for the subsequent steps and have not found it necessary to give a hypodermic of morphin or to inject cocain subcutaneously in the region of the sac. The curettage is then carried out according to the technic described by Thompson.

The diameter of the curetting ring of Buck's largest curette is 3 mm., so that it is obvious that a slightly smaller probe can now be readily passed to the nostril. Beginning with a probe of this size (T.11), I introduce one after another,

12, 13 and 14, and in several cases T. 15 and 16. It goes without saying that very firm pressure must be exerted in introducing these large probes and one sometimes hears a crackling sound which, no doubt, indicates slight fracture of the bony walls of the duct. This has been noted by both Theobald and Ziegler as a necessary concomitant in passing large probes, and they agree—and I concur in the opinion—that "nothing more serious than ecchymosis has followed." An applicator formed by wrapping absorbent cotton tightly around the ring of the smallest sized curette is used to apply Tr. iodin lightly to the walls of the sac and duct.

As a rule, the postoperative reaction is exceedingly slight. There is dull aching pain, lasting several hours, but never, in my experience, so severe as to require a narcotic. Occasionally there is considerable edema of the lids and cheek adjacent. Iced applications, a boric acid wash and a bland ointment suffice for the immediate after treatment. For about a week following the operation the region of the sac remains sensitive to pressure.

The immediate and gratifying effect of the operation—and this has been true of every case—is the prompt cessation of pus formation in the sac. To be strictly within the bounds of truth, one should say, rather, that no pus can be pressed out of the sac into the conjunctival sac. If there be any secretion, whether of a purulent, mucoid or serous nature, it is evidently efficiently drained thru the dilated bony duct. If I am able to keep the patient under observation, I am in the habit of passing a moderate sized probe, say Theobald 10, about once in three weeks for the double purpose of keeping the slit canaliculus stretched and of ensuring an adequate lumen to the bony duct.

A probe of this size passes readily and after cocainization, almost painlessly. Many of these cases give evidence at the operation of denuded bone. Subsequent probings give the impression of the probe being in contact with normal mucous membrane.

Since May 26, 1918, I have performed curettage, or curettage with rapid dilatation, on all patients with dacryocystitis, in dispensary or private practice. The following is a summary of these cases.

CASE REPORTS

1. Miss L. H., age 38. L. dacryocystitis. Both canaliculi had been freely slit and small probes used by another surgeon. Much mucus expressible. May 26, Thompson curettage with dilatation to T. 13. Seen September 7. Mucus no longer formed and the passage to the nostril was free, but there remained annoying stillicidium. Patient refused further treatment.

2. Mrs. E. B., age 71. Seen first March 11, 1918, with a severe hypopyon ulcer (pneumococcal) which promptly yielded to thermophore treatment. Found to have bilateral dacryocystitis. May 31, 1918, preliminary dilatation to T. 11 then curettage, with application of Tr. iodin (left). Perfect result February 21, 1919 (9 months after operation).

3. Mrs. F. E., age 67. R. dacryocystitis of several years duration. Has been treated for one year in clinic with probes, and syringing, without improvement. Typical Thompson performed June 1st. Seen last September 14th. Perfect result (no pus, no stillicidium, fluid passes freely to nostril).

4. Mrs. C. H., age 45. Thompson curettage June 6th. Immediate cessation of pus. During my absence from the city the patient returned to the clinic (August 17th) with recurrence. Nothing was done and she has not been seen since.

5. R. sac of Mrs. E. B. (Case 2). Thompson curettage June 6, 1918. Recurrence of pus June 17th. Repetition of curettage with dilatation to T. 8. Mucus can still be pressed out February 21, 1919.

6. Miss F. H., age 16. Seen first June 7, 1918. R. dacryocystitis of seven years' duration. No treatment. Thompson's curettage without dilatation. Immediate improvement. In September, small amount of mucus could be pressed out of sac. Rapid dilatation up to T. 10 with application to the sac and duct of Tr. iodin. Seen March 8, 1919, perfect result. (No pus, no stillicidium, injected fluid passes freely to nostril.)

7. Mrs. M. W., age 77. L. dacryocystitis of five years' duration. Thompson's operation without dilatation performed June 25, 1918. December 30th pus formation. Repeated Thompson and rapidly dilated up to T. 15, encountering some denuded bone. Tr. iodin applied. January 30, 1919, no pus. T. 10 passes freely. Duct smooth thruout.

8. Mrs. M. B., age 60. R. eye has watered for years, R. pus expressible. June 25, 1918, Thompson's operation. November 9th, slight recurrence of pus formation. Repeated Thompson with rapid dilatation up to T. 13. Tr. iodin applied. December 20th, no pus, eye in fine condition. Passed T. 15 to nostril easily. Last seen January 28th. T. 12 passes easily. Duct lining smooth thruout.

13. F. L., male, age 72. Has lid scars of old trachoma with partial entropion of left lower lid. R. dacryocystitis. Curettage of sac and duct. Rapid dilata-



Fig. 1. Lacrimal sac bur (Green).

Last seen January 2, 1919. Passed T. 7 easily. No pus. A little overflow of tears when patient goes out into the wind.

9. B. B., male, age 63. Bilateral dacryocystitis of many years' duration. Lost vision of left eye from serpent ulcer. Thompson's operation on L. sac September 11, 1918, without dilatation. Seen March 10, 1919. No pus. Fluid passes freely to nostril.

10. R. sac of B. B. (Case 9.) Operated September 13, 1918, by Thompson's method, without dilatation. Seen March 10, 1919. Perfect result. Fluid passes to nostril.

tion up to T. 10 (October 14, 1918). Seen December 15, 1918. No pus expressible. Passed T. 8 easily.

14. M. H., female, age 10. L. dilated sac with purulent contents. Under general anesthesia, Thompson's curettage, rapid dilatation up to T. 10. October 23, 1918. Last seen November 30th. No pus. Fluid passes to nostril. Did not attempt to probe. (Letter from grandmother states that pus has recurred. March 10, 1919).

15. D. L., male, age 13. A half-witted child. Bilateral dacryocystitis beginning at age of 4. Right sac had been

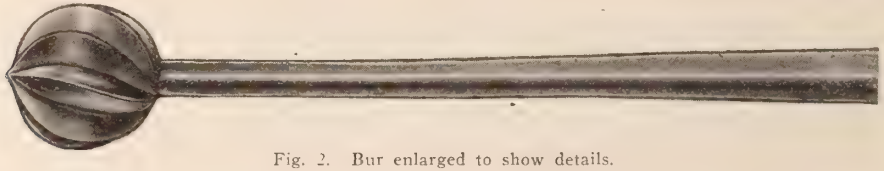


Fig. 2. Bur enlarged to show details.

11. Mrs. H. F. G., age 67. L. dacryocystitis two months' duration. September 27, 1918, Thompson's curettage. Denuded bone felt in the upper third of the nasal duct. Sac remained free from pus to November 5th, on which date a small amount could be expressed. Repeated curettage, dilated to T. 12 and applied Tr. iodin. Seen March 4th. Sac free from pus; passed T. 8 readily.

12. Mrs. J. F., age 59. R. dacryocystitis of many years' duration. Pus expressible. October 4, 1918, Thompson's operation thru upper canaliculus, using only smaller and middle sized curette. Small probe encountered denuded bone lower half of bony duct. extirpated by another surgeon. Left duct had been probed, with no improvement. Greatly dilated left sac containing large quantity of pus. November 14th, Thompson's curettage with rapid dilatation up to T. 14. Denuded bone felt. November 25th, pus not expressible. Permitted to return to home in country. Four weeks later recurrence of pus. Father, given the choice of repetition of curettage and destruction of the sac by Gifford's method, chose the latter. January 7th. Seen March 10, 1919. Good result, but considerable overflow of tears.

16. Mrs. E. H., aged 64. Seen November 21, 1918. History, left eye watering many years. Pus expressible.

Thompson's operation without dilatation. December 14th, slight recurrence of pus. Used dichloramine-T ½%. December 26th, pus continues. Theobald 8 passed, encountering denuded bone. Repeated Thompson, rapidly dilated up to T. 16 and applied Tr. iodin. January 2, 1919, no pus. T. 10 passed easily to nostril. February 7th, no pus. T. 10 easily passed duct smooth thruout.

Of these sixteen cases, ten yielded first class results(no discharge, free drainage and moderate stillicidium or none). Three were improved (no pus but a small amount of mucus expressible), and three were failures. It is interesting to note that of the latter two were children.

The operation is not proposed for tuberculosis or syphilitic disease of the tear sac. In these cases, nothing less than complete extirpation with appropriate general treatment will suffice. I have had no opportunity of trying curettage in trachoma of the sac. The efficacy of various abrasive methods in palpebral trachoma would lead one to infer that a method similar in principle should be useful in ridding the sac of trachomatous granulations. Objection has been raised to curettage on the assumption that it destroys the mucosa and hence must lead sooner or later to cicatricial atresia of the duct, and the comparison has been made between curettage of the nasal end of the Eustachian tube and the procedure under discussion. But the analogy is not perfect: in the former case the curettage is deep and vigorous in order to destroy the mucosa and insure cicatricial stenosis of the nasal end of the tube: in the latter, the curettage is superficial and as gentle as possible. All evidence points to a regeneration rather than a destruction of mucosa.

The only drawbacks that I have observed are (1) a tendency of the canaliculus to become narrow at its junction with the sac—readily overcome by dilatation—and (2) a moderate stillicidium in cold and wind. This was present in about one-third of my cases and should be ascribed to the interference with capillarity due to the slit canaliculus and not to the curettage.



Fig. 3. Lacrimal sac reamer (Green).

Conclusions: The combined operation of curettage followed by immediate rapid dilatation possesses many advantages.

1. It removes any foreign material that may have lodged in the canaliculi, lacrimal sac and bony duct.

2. If polypi or granulation tissue are present in any part of the lacrimonasal duct, they are effectually removed.

3. Thus prepared, the duct readily admits large probes (T. 11 or 12) and can be dilated up to T. 13, 14, 15 or 16 at the first sitting, thus insuring adequate primary and secondary drainage.

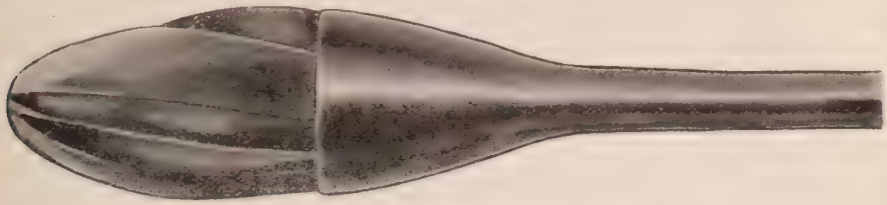


Fig. 4. Reamer enlarged to show details.

4. The application of Tr. iodin to the mucous surface sterilizes it and stimulates it to normal activity and regeneration.

5. If pus should reform, the operation can be readily repeated.

6. It is an "office" or "outpatient" operation and is often successful even when the patient cannot return for subsequent observation and probing.

7. Should this method fail, the sac can be extirpated or destroyed as readily as if no operation had been performed.

8. In my opinion, this operation will give relief in many cases of dacryocysti-

tis which have hitherto been condemned to extirpation of the sac. As it offers the chance of efficient drainage thru the natural passage, it should be preferred to any endonasal operation.

Since this paper was written, I have had V. Mueller & Co., Chicago, make, according to original designs, a set of lacrimal burs and reamers. The purpose of these instruments is to remove any foreign material or inflammatory products from the sac and duct, with a minimum of damage to the diseased mucosa. The set consists of four instruments:

1. Lacrimal sac bur. Fig. 1, and Fig. 2.

A small round boss bearing curved ridges after the manner of a dental bur is mounted on a slightly flexible shaft. The boss is 2.3 mm. in diameter (No. 7 French scale). After introduction through the slit canaliculus, the handle is twirled in the fingers, thus causing the bur to rotate in contact with the mucous membrane. The direction of the handle is altered to insure that all portions of the sac shall be curetted.

The instrument may also be used in the bony duct after the manner of the lacrimal duct reamer.

2. Lacrimal sac and duct applicator.

This instrument is similar in all respects to No. 1, but is made of hard oxidized silver. It will hold a wisp of tightly wound cotton securely, and, being made of silver, will not rust when brought into contact with Tr. Iodin.

3. Lacrimal sac reamer. Fig. 3, and Fig 4.

This instrument is similar to a dental reamer, but is made shorter and with a rounded blunt end. It is mounted on a slightly flexible shaft. It has five curved ridges so sloped that when the handle is rotated, the forward passage of the instrument is facilitated. Its action is similar to that of a corkscrew. The diameter of the reamer proper is 3 mm. corresponding to No. 9 French Scale.

4. Is similar in all respects to No. 3, but is 3.2 mm. in diameter, corresponding to No. 11 French Scale. The reamers are used in a manner precisely similar to the use of Buck's curettes as described in the text.

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RECURRENT SPONTANEOUS RETINAL HEMORRHAGE OF PROBABLE TUBERCULAR ORIGIN

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This paper discusses a disease entity occurring in the young, with definite symptomatology and clinical course and generally unfavorable prognosis; and reports a typical case in which hemorrhage in the left eye was followed by retinitis proliferans, new blood vessel formation in the vitreous, complete detachment of the retina, and total blindness. In spite of repeated hemorrhages, the right eye still retains 20/15 central vision but with much restricted visual fields and a few vitreous opacities, more than a year after the recurrence of the last hemorrhage.

A perusal of the literature on the subject of vitreous hemorrhages impels one to recognize that among all these cases of varying etiology, there are quite a number evidently due to tubercular involvement of the retinal vessels, more especially the veins, which have a definite symptom complex in common; and it is to the consideration of this group of cases I mean to confine this article

Among predisposing causes may be mentioned sudden changes of temperature, exposure to cold and wet, malnutrition, hereditary diseases and tendencies, anemia, vascular disease, premature development, menstrual disturbances, and undue sexual excitement and abuse. (Gehrung 1.) To these may be added constipation, indigestion, worry, great mental effort, and hereditary tubercular tendency.

Tuberculosis has never been absolutely demonstrated to be the etiologic factor in these cases, however, the observations and investigations of numerous ophthalmologists furnish very convincing evidence of the probable presence of tuberculous germs and toxins in the many cases reported in the literature.

The attention of the profession was first directed to tuberculosis as a probable etiologic element in vitreous hemorrhage in an article by Manz (2) published in 1890. These observations were supported in 1897 in an article by Weeks (3). Following this the literature contains many articles and case reports on the subject, among which are those by Noll (4), Kyrieleis (5), Knies (6), Axenfeld (7), Knapp (8), Cords (9), Igersheimer (10), Fleischer (11), Oloff (12), Friedenwald (13), Otori (14), Jackson (15), Davis (16), Agricola and Thies (17), Mayou (18), Spencer (19), Fuchs: Duane (20), de Schweinitz (21), Roemer (22), Collins and Mayou (23), Parsons (24) and F. Park Lewis (25).

Spencer in his article reports thirty-two cases in which diagnosis of tuberculosis was made, in most instances by the tuberculin reaction. This number includes three of his own, in one of which the patient also had pulmonary tuberculosis.

In two cases reported by Igersheimer the patients were also afflicted with pulmonary tuberculosis, while one of Axenfeld's cases had numerous tubercular lesions in other parts of the body.

In a case of Fleischer's in which enucleation was performed, "the retinal veins were found filled with tuberculous debris."

The reports of two cases by Otori, are of unusual interest in that in each case the eye was later enucleated because of inflammatory conditions of the iris. Pathologic examinations revealed extensive destruction of the retina, and in each case he was able to positively demonstrate tubercular germs in the retinal tissue. He considered the one case a primary tubercular retinitis and the other secondary to tubercular involvement of the nerve head.

According to the observations of Fuchs, Schoeffels and others, the beginning process is a perivasculitis along the course of the veins, which microscopically shows a round, giant and epithelial cell infiltration.

Owing to the fact that the condition primarily involves the perivascular tissue rather than the vessels themselves, it would seem that the bacilli do not gain access thru the blood-vessels, and

Mayou is of the opinion that the infection travels along the nerve-sheaths. This opinion is also concurred in by Parsons who believes that the infection travels along the lymph stream within the nerve sheath.

Later, as the vessel walls become eroded, hemorrhages occur into the vitreous, or between the retina and the hyaloid, producing the so-called subhyaloid hemorrhages. Organization of the clots results in the formation of dense fibrous masses which become adherent to the retina and produce a condition known as retinitis proliferans.

Contraction of these fibrous bands results in a detachment of the retina, and the subretinal space fills with a thin straw-colored fluid. There is also new blood vessel formation in the vitreous and the retina shows areas of necrosis and degeneration.

Epistaxis is often a forerunner of the disturbance and it has been noted in several instances that cessation of the epistaxis marked the occurrence of hemorrhage into the vitreous. For this reason Kyrieleis recommended venesection and even ligation of the carotid on the affected side.

Systemic symptoms are usually absent altho as noted, in some instances, tubercular lesions were found to coexist in other parts of the body. Blood-pressure and coagulation time are usually normal.

The patient presents himself complaining of spots before the eyes, sometimes merely black specks and at others spots of a reddish color. Generally within a few days hemorrhages occur into the vitreous or between the retina and hyaloid. These hemorrhages may be brought on by a fit of coughing or sneezing, by blowing the nose violently or following violent exercise such as playing games, dancing or laborious effort. They may, however, occur spontaneously and in spite of all precautions. The occurrence of hemorrhage is accompanied by peculiar sensations within the eye, hardly severe enough to be designated as pain, but the patient is cognizant of some unusual sensation within the eye-ball. Simultaneously there is a dimming of vision or a limitation of the visual field, and if the hemorrhage is large, the vision may be completely obscured.

In the early stages the central vision is usually not reduced, as the affection is prone to follow the course of the vessels and hence the macula is spared. If opacities are very abundant or if the hemorrhage intercepts the visual axis, there is, per se, a corresponding diminution of the central vision.

Scotomata corresponding to the affected areas of the retina are found even early in the disease and are of considerable diagnostic importance. As the degeneration advances, the visual fields diminish concentrically, the color fields for green and red showing even more rapid reduction than the general field.

External examination may or may not reveal evidences of the trouble within, depending upon the secondary involvement of these parts. Early in the course of the disease there is not likely to be any external evidence of the retinal disturbance but as the condition advances a slight circumcorneal and ciliary injection may be noted, especially just preceding and following the occurrence of hemorrhage. The tension remains normal until hemorrhage occurs when, if the hemorrhage is large, it is slightly higher.

The ophthalmoscope reveals the presence of flaky opacities in the vitreous. The disk may be sharply outlined or present a fuzzy appearance around its margins. The vessels are normal in size and proportions, but the veins are paralleled by broad white bands. As the condition progresses, small hemorrhages proceeding from the veins are observed either subhyaloid, in which case they present a sheet-like appearance, or directly into the vitreous. While the first hemorrhages are usually small, this condition does not always obtain; and in some cases the first rupture of the vessel walls may result in a very extensive outpouring of blood, even to the extent of completely obscuring the view of the fundus.

A subhyaloid hemorrhage of any great extent presents a characteristic picture in that the upper border forms a straight line across the fundus.

A striking characteristic of this disease and one that might be considered almost

pathognomonic is the rapidity with which even quite extensive extravasations of blood are absorbed, in contradistinction to that of other intraocular hemorrhages which is discouragingly slow. The absorbtion is often complete, or so nearly so that only a small whitish opacity remains.

The retina shows white patches of degeneration especially along the course of the vessels and there is more or less retinal edema. The macular region remains remarkably free from the disturbance.

When the hemorrhage has been of considerable size, the resultant clot gradually loses its pigment, becoming whitish and assuming the appearance of a fibrous band extending across the fundus, the ends of which are attached to the retina by a fan-shaped structure of fine fibrous strands, leading one to believe that the entire structure was primarily an outgrowth of the retina; hence, no doubt, the name retinitis proliferans, which has been given to this condition.

As this band usually crosses the center of the vitreous, the macula and disc are often obscured. New blood-vessel formation is seen in the vitreous altho the mass itself has but a poor blood supply.

Contraction of this band of fibrous material may eventually result in detachment of the retina, the process beginning at the point of attachment of the band to the retina and extending quite rapidly until the detachment is complete from the disc margins to the ora serrata.

The accompanying epistaxis is to be taken into consideration in making a diagnosis and the marked tendency to recurrence and the rapidity with which the hemorrhage resorbs are characteristic.

Vitreous opacities and scotomata which, as the condition progresses, result in limitation of the visual fields and total blindness are added diagnostic features.

The diagnosis of tubercular infection rests practically wholly on the tuberculin reaction and this has proven positive in many of the cases reported. The test can be considered merely confirmatory, however, as coexistent tubercular localizations in other parts of the body may render the test positive; it is in itself too far from infallible to be relied upon.

As the patient is not likely to appreciate the connection between indiscretions of a general nature and the local condition in the eye, a careful history is of prime importance to ascertain the predisposing causes. The importance of the correction of such elements and the establishment of a proper hygienic regimen should be thoroly impressed upon the patient at the outset and he is to be made to understand that there can be no relaxation of these precautionary measures. Residence in the country with moderate outdoor exercise and nourishing food, especially eggs and milk, will prove of great benefit.

Injections of normal horse serum and of human serum have been tried, but the results have not been such as to warrant placing much confidence in them. However, they should be tried, especially on the occurrence of a hemorrhage.

Since the tuberculin reaction is found to be positive, the use of tuberculin for its therapeutic effect is indicated, and in fact it is probably the most potent single therapeutic measure so far available. Calcium lactate, adrenalin chloride and gelatin have all been used and may have some therapeutic value.

When hemorrhage occurs the patient should be confined to bed in an absolutely quiet darkened room. The head should be raised and cold applications made to the eyes and head. Injections of serum at this time may be of some value. Catharsis should be instituted and sweating produced by the hot bath, hot pack or pilocarpin.

To promote the resorption of the clot, pilocarpin sweats, Turkish baths, and potassium iodid and sodium salicylat may be used. Locally the condition should be treated with atropin and dionin.

The prognosis of the trouble is decidedly unfavorable, altho under careful observation and treatment the vision may be preserved for some time, especially if the patient can be placed in ideal surroundings with a close observance of proper hygienic regimen.

When retinitis proliferans supervenes, the condition is not amenable to further treatment and may progress to complete

retinal detachment and consequent total blindness.

Case: T. M. C., age 21, single, salesman. Came under my care April 6th, 1917, complaining of loss of vision in the left eye and floaters before the right.

Family history: Father 64, mother 50, two sisters and one brother all in good health. No eye or specific trouble in the family. Mother's two sisters and one brother died of tuberculosis.

Personal history: Ordinary diseases of childhood, also pneumonia at six years of age. Tonsillitis for six years, tonsillectomy being performed in 1915 in hope of relieving trouble in left eye. At the same time turbinectomy was performed on both sides; and some teeth extracted after x-ray had revealed the presence of abscess. Denies having had specific venereal trouble. Does not drink alcoholics and uses tobacco only moderately. He is, however, given to excessive sexual indulgence and this may have been an important etiologic factor.

He states that in August, 1915, he awoke one morning with a peculiar sensation in his left eye. He went to an oculist who pronounced the trouble neuroretinitis. Two days later he had an intraocular hemorrhage which resulted in practically total loss of vision. About two weeks later, hemorrhages recurred and eventually became organized so that he never again regained his vision.

In spite of several negative blood Wassermanns and lack of luetic history either of inherited or acquired syphilis, he was put on antispecific treatment without beneficial results.

Physical examination: Weight 145 lbs. Height 5 ft. 8 in. General appearance, fairly well nourished, nervous temperament, but not manifestly so.

Chest: Lungs, rales in lower left lobe.

Heart: Rate 65, tones regular.

Blood-pressure: Systolic 102 mm. Hg. Diastolic 82 mm. Hg.

Blood-examination: Coagulation normal. Hemoglobin 78 per cent. Erythrocytes 4,387,000. Leucocytes 8,850.

Spinal fluid was taken but technic of Wassermann test was faulty so that no reliance could be placed in the finding.

April 6, 1917. Ocular examination. V. R. E. 20/30, 20/20 with plus .75 cyl. axis 90. V. L. E. Light perception. Fields normal for right eye. Tension normal. No conjunctival reaction.

Ophthalmoscope. R. E. Dust-like opacities in the vitreous with perivasculitis along course of large superior and inferior temporal veins.

L. E. Typical picture of retinitis proliferans, a broad bluish-white band extending diagonally across the fundus from the superior nasal to the inferior temporal quadrant, and practically completely covering the disc. The central portion was dense and fibrous while the ends were spread out fan-shaped and were thinner and granular in appearance. No blood-vessels were visible in the mass, but the retinal vessels could be distinctly seen running under it.

On April 15, 1917, the patient was brought to the office with only light perception in each eye. The ophthalmoscope revealed a large hemorrhage in the vitreous of the right eye, apparently coming from the superior temporal vein.

He was given an injection of coagulose at once, which was repeated a few days later, and ordered to take large quantities of gelatin, five grains each t. i. d. of calcium chlorid and potassium iodid, and a daily sweat by means of a Turkish bath.

Tuberculin injections were begun and were kept up with increasing dosage and lengthened interval for the next six months.

Within a week the eye had cleared markedly and on April 28, two weeks after the occurrence of the hemorrhage, the vision was again 20/25 in the right eye altho a large black clot was plainly visible floating freely in the vitreous.

The same night a second hemorrhage occurred, again reducing the vision to light perception. The vitreous now contained a large clot completely obscuring the fundus. The same treatment was used and in about two weeks the vision was again 20/25.

In July, 1917, another hemorrhage of less severity occurred and the same treatment was repeated with equally gratifying results, so that in about one

month the vision had again returned to 20/25.

At this time the patient was in rather poor health and was coughing a good deal, hence another pulmonary examination was made which, however, did not reveal anything definite, altho tuberculosis was suspected.

He was advised to seek out-of-door employment and severely admonished regarding sexual indulgences. Following this advice he soon regained his former health and his general appearance and weight improved.

In October, 1917, examination of the left or blind eye revealed detachment of the retina which had been progressing gradually for several weeks, and the fibrous band seemed to have broken up into numerous small pieces which were scattered thruout the vitreous.

On May 1, 1918, the vision in the right eye was 20/15 with a plus 0.75 cyl. axis 90°. He has had no new hemorrhages since July, 1917, about ten months, opacities are still present in the vitreous including the remnants of the large hemorrhages which are to be seen in the lower part of the globe. The vessels of the superior temporal quadrant and those just below the disc, still show scars of the perivasculitis and retinitis.

The visual field is limited to 30 degrees above and below, 20 degrees to the nasal side and 60 degrees to the temporal side. The fields for red and green are limited to ten degrees in all directions.

The left eye is totally blind, there is complete detachment of the retina, and and the vitreous is filled with organized material containing new blood-vessel formations.

E. A. Davis (16) gives a report of a case which bears a remarkable similarity to my own, in which he used a very similar line of treatment but with rather discouraging results. The ultimate outcome of his case was complete blindness in the right eye and only fingers at 10 ft. in the left. I only recently found this report hence my treatment was worked out entirely independently, so that I was unable to avail myself of much of his valuable experience.

At the present time, Oct. 18, 1919, patient has 20/25 vision with a very cloudy vitreous.

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CAUSES OF BLINDNESS IN EGYPT

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These statistical tables based upon official hospital reports give the most accurate idea of the prevalence of blindness in Egypt, and its common causes.

During the year 1918 we examined nearly nine thousand (8969) patients who were blind in one eye and more than four thousand (4261) who were blind in both eyes. (Table I.) This means that more than four and a half (4.7) per cent of all the patients were blind in both eyes and ten per cent (9.9) in one eye.

Of course we depend on the hearty coöperation of all surgeons but especially of the principal medical officers in recording all cases of blindness.

Table I. Blindness.

Year	Total No. of patients examined	One Eye No.	One Eye %	Both Eyes No.	Both Eyes %	One Eye and Both Eyes No.	One Eye and Both Eyes %
1906	40,103	1,297	3.2	633	1.6	1,960	4.9
1907	24,416	1,450	5.9	697	2.8	2,147	8.7
1908	19,614	1,189	6.0	852	4.3	2,041	10.4
1909	22,373	2,116	9.4	1,385	6.1	3,501	15.6
1910	25,506	2,438	9.5	2,010	7.8	4,448	17.4
1911	31,274	3,196	10.2	2,811	8.9	6,007	19.2
1912	43,668	4,115	9.4	2,824	6.4	6,939	15.8
1913	62,233	5,360	8.6	3,878	6.2	9,238	14.8
1914	75,398	6,425	8.5	3,591	4.7	10,016	13.2
1915	71,930	5,637	7.8	2,992	4.2	8,629	12.0
1916	94,447	7,042	7.4	3,504	3.7	10,546	11.2
1917	100,410	9,385	9.3	4,611	4.6	13,996	13.9
1918	90,668	8,969	9.9	4,261	4.7	13,230	14.6
Total..	702,040	58,619	8.3	34,079	4.9	92,698	13.2

The definition of blindness adopted at the Egyptian Ophthalmic Hospitals is inability to count fingers held up at a distance of one metre from the patient.

In the following table are shown the percentage of cases examined who are blind in one or both eyes at the various hospitals. (Table II.)

This percentage is seen to vary from twenty per cent at Minia (20.6) and Assiut (20.2) to seven per cent at Faraskur (7.2). There is no doubt that the higher rate is significant of great care and industry on the part of the principal medical officer.

The age at which patients became blind is of great importance for any study of the prophylaxis of blindness and of the diseases which lead to it.

Of patients under one year of age only about one and a half per cent (1.42) were found to be blind of one eye; from one year to five years, three and a quarter per cent (3.29); from six to ten years, four and a quarter per cent (4.33); from eleven to fifteen years, five and a half per cent (5.56);

Table II. Total Percentage of Blindness in One or Both Eyes.

	1914 %	1915 %	1916 %	1917 %	1918 %
Permanent Hospitals:					
Tanta	11.	8.1	5.3	9.2	8.8
Assiut	14.2	10.1	11.7	18.4	20.2
Mansura	18.6	15.3	16.6	13.2	13.9
Beni Suef	16.7	16.3	13.2	16.0	16.9
Zagazig	15.9	11.1	9.3	15.0	15.9
Damanhûr	16.8	11.4	11.8	13.5	12.9
Shebin El Kôm	18.5	11.9	11.8	10.2	12.3
Sohag	19.7	15.3	14.3	14.03	14.7
Minia	...	22.06	20.7	30.7	20.6
Fayûm	...	...	11.06	13.0	18.2
Mahalla El Kubra	13.6	16.4	17.03	12.2	12.3
Kafr El Zayat	7.8	10.5	8.3	12.6	10.1
Santa	...	...	10.06	13.7	14.2
Traveling Hospitals:					
No. I. Camp—					
Shebin El Kanatir	21.7	11.8	...	...	...
Min a El Qamh	15.0	...	...	...	...
Kafr El Dauwâr	...	...	12.7	11.9	...
Qena	...	...	...	20.5	18.3
Benha	...	...	...	10.7	...
Alexandria	...	...	...	...	15.0
Aswân	...	...	...	...	12.8
No. II. Camp—					
Maghagha	22.9	...	...	...	...
Damietta	9.6	...	...	...	...
Barrage	...	5.8	...	...	...
Giza	...	...	10.5	12.6	11.1
Rosetta	...	...	...	15.7	...
Fûa	...	...	...	12.6	...
Embaba	...	...	...	...	15.6
No. III. Camp—					
Barrage	...	...	...	...	15.6
Assiût P. C.—					
Manfalût	5.3	6.7	...	8.9	14.7
Manfalût	8.3	...	...	...	...
Deirût	7.4	...	...	6.4	12.3
Mallawi	5.6	...	6.1	8.2	...
Abnûb	...	...	4.1	...	...
Abu Tig	...	...	...	9.6	...
Daqahlia P. C.—					
Mit Ghamr	16.5	4.7	7.9	...	8.2
Mataria	8.6	...	...	...	...
Dekernes	11.2	...	...	10.6	...
Faraskûr	...	...	7.1	...	7.2
Aga	...	...	...	22.3	14.2
Simbellawein	...	...	...	10.7	...

Table III. Blindness in One or Both Eyes per Age During 1918.

Hospitals	Under 1 year	From 1 to 5	From 6 to 10	From 11 to 15	From 16 to 20	From 21 to 40	Over 40 years	Total
No. 1 Camp	3	23	54	65	50	361	630	1,186
No. 2 Camp	5	37	41	59	78	476	329	1,025
No. 3 Camp	1	3	8	8	8	57	57	142
Tanta	19	35	43	31	40	231	237	636
Assiut	26	43	68	47	78	526	553	1,341
Mansura	4	59	33	64	35	331	246	772
Beni Suef	5	20	25	76	81	352	319	878
Zagazig	4	22	28	61	55	360	269	799
Damanhour	9	29	26	16	38	317	183	618
Shebin El Kom	13	22	28	42	65	268	208	646
Sohag	2	27	28	35	45	230	253	620
Minia	12	21	28	40	53	533	362	1,049
Faywa	35	23	42	43	66	391	493	1,093
Mahalla Kubra	10	19	11	20	20	124	176	380
Kafr El Zayat	9	14	13	12	12	189	53	302
Santa	12	8	13	19	17	147	194	410
Assiut P. C.	17	17	48	75	25	366	411	959
Daqahlia P. C.	3	14	36	23	28	113	147	374
Total	189	436	573	736	804	5,372	5,120	13,230

from sixteen to twenty years, six per cent (6.07); from twenty-one to forty years, forty and a half per cent (40.6); over forty years, thirty-eight and a half per cent (38.7). It is therefore a fact either that the majority of the blindness occurs after the age of twenty-one years or that the blind among the younger patients are not brought to the hospitals.

Table IV. Percentage of Blindness in One or Both Eyes per Age During 1918.

	Per cent of total examined.	Per cent of total blind.	Per cent of patients of this age.
Under 1 year	.21	1.42	2.93
From 1 to 5 years	.48	3.29	5.06
From 6 to 10 years	.63	4.33	6.21
From 11 to 15 years	.81	5.56	8.57
From 16 to 20 years	.88	6.07	11.77
From 21 to 40 years	5.92	40.60	19.96
Over 40 years	5.64	38.70	32.30

The average blindness being thirteen per cent (13.2), the small amount of blindness found among the patients up to the age of fifteen years (three to eight per cent) is remarkable. It is not until after the age of twenty-one years that the incidence rises sufficiently to produce the average of thirteen per cent.

The deduction to be drawn from this apparently is that the danger of blindness is vastly increased with the onset of years, and that this increases progressively from birth onwards. Incidentally it may be noted that ophthalmia neonatorum is extremely rare among Egyptians.

The ages of all patients treated may be of interest and these are given in the following table:

From an examination of the ages of all the patients treated we find that about eight per cent were under one year, ten and a half per cent from one to five years, eleven per cent from six to ten years, ten per cent from eleven to fifteen years, eight per cent from sixteen to twenty years, thirty-two and a half per cent between twenty-one and forty years and nineteen per cent over forty years. It is therefore evident that some children are brought to the hospital.

Table V. Patients Treated per Age During 1918.

	No.	Per cent
Under 1 year	6,434	7.81
From 1 to 5 years	8,607	10.45
From 6 to 10 years	9,213	11.19
From 11 to 15 years	8,483	10.30
From 16 to 20 years	6,826	8.29
From 21 to 40 years	26,904	32.68
Over 40 years	15,849	19.25
Total	82,316	

To determine the cause of the increased liability to blindness with advancing age requires a study of the prime pathologic causes of blindness which are noted below.

From this it is seen that altho cataract (7.72 per cent) and glaucoma (10.96 per cent) account for a considerable amount of blindness found, the main cause is conjunctivitis (73.39 per cent) of all kinds, resulting in total corneal opacity, shrunken globe, secondary glaucoma and various other conditions unspecified in the statistics.

We come back to acute conjunctivitis as the most important cause of blindness. Trachomatous conjunctivitis is as you are well aware a chronic disease and does not frequently of itself produce blindness.

The amount of blindness due to glaucoma is noteworthy, more than one and a half per cent (1.62 per cent) of all the patients who seek treatment at the ophthalmic hospitals being blind from this disease.

Table VI. Causes of Blindness.

	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	Total	%
Congenital	11	12	10	7	3	4	8	55	.06
Acquired:									
Conjunctivitis resulting in:									
a. Total corneal opacity	2,109	2,553	3,170	2,759	2,861	3,665	3,569	20,686	24.15
b. Shrunken globe	1,933	2,647	2,857	2,317	3,109	3.923	3,713	20,499	23.93
c. Secondary glaucoma	1,630	2,070	1,977	1,815	2,022	2,498	2,480	14,502	16.93
d. Other conditions	635	787	1,094	745	859	1,577	1.483	7,180	8.38
Fundus:									
Optic atrophy	151	100	119	90	145	178	195	978	1.14
Retinitis pigmentosa	20	29	19	12	23	22	24	149	.17
Various	203	305	184	182	152	254	194	1,474	1.72
Glaucoma absolutum:									
Monocular	536	553	638	657	695	893	751	4,724	5.51
Binocular	562	651	513	650	673	903	720	4,672	5.45
Cataract	486	930	862	797	1,053	1,201	1,287	6,616	7.72
Injury	47	63	47	70	56	148	92	523	.61
Operation	25	23	19	17	32	52	34	202	.23
Infectious diseases	4	27	19	19	2	32	11	114	.13
Iritis endogenous	184	224	165	94	160	277	209	1,313	1.53
Various	67	387	262	230	241	422	331	1,940	2.26
Total	8,603	11,361	11,955	10,461	12,097	16,049	15,101	85,627	

A NEW OPERATION FOR THE RELIEF OF CONICAL CORNEA

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This paper was presented at the meeting of the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June 1919. It is published here thru the courtesy of the Journal, A. M. A.

In a previous communication concerning the history and evolution of the treatment of conical cornea,[1] I emphasized my lack of confidence in the surgical treatment of the condition as then practiced, and expressed a preference for the use of variously shaped and sized opaque disks pasted on the surface of correcting lenses worn by the patient. These were in effect artificial pupils. The later work of Dr. Meyer Wiener in regeneration of the cornea and his subsequent operation for the relief of keratoconus,[2] together with my own gratifying results in transplantation of the cornea, encouraged me in the belief in the great reparative powers of the cornea and inspired me in the experimentation along the line of surgical treatment for conical cornea. As a consequence, I have evolved a surgical procedure that has given me results far beyond my original hopes and expectations, and I present it herewith for your serious consideration.

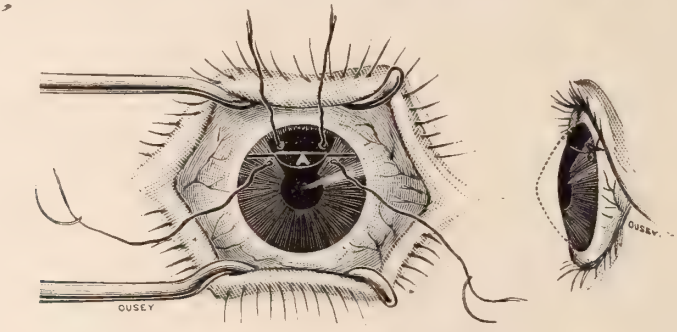


Fig. 1. Excised cornea; stitch in situ.

After preparation of the patient and the field of operation in the usual manner, the eyelids and the area surrounding the eye being thoroughly cleansed with a neutral soap, followed by a bath of benzin and alcohol, a 0.5 per cent. solution of tincture of iodin is applied, and the cocain anesthesia is produced, freshly made cocain solution being used. The eye is again irrigated with a 1:2,000 mercuric chlorid solution. Just before beginning the operation, 1 drop of atropin solution (4 grains to 1 ounce) is instilled. An eye speculum is then introduced. The conjunctiva is grasped a trifle below the inferior corneoscleral margin, slightly to the nasal side, and a Graefe knife is introduced into the cornea about 3 mm. above its horizontal meridian with the cutting edge inclined directly forward so as to bisect the cornea straight across, parallel with the horizontal meridian but above it. This requires considerable care and the exercising of good judgment, otherwise the pupillary area will be obscured by the final effects of the operation. It is better to be too high than too low. The inferior segment of the cornea is then depressed gently by the iris forceps, which are then inserted beneath the superior corneal segment so as to grasp a portion of the iris. This is then withdrawn and cut off by the de Wecker scissors. The upper margin of the inferior corneal segment is then grasped by specially constructed, small, straight, rather smooth forceps, turned slightly outward, and a semilunar strip of cornea is removed from the edge by means of small, strong scissors curved on the flat

(also specially devised for this procedure, after the model of Lagrange). This strip of corneal tissue is about 2 or 3 mm. wide at its thickest portion, from 5 to 7 mm. long, and involves the entire thickness of the cornea. A fine silk suture is introduced through the adjacent edges of the original incision and does not regain its conical shape as convalescence progresses. There is a certain amount of scarring.

My results in ten cases from this operation have been most gratifying; in fact, the best I have ever obtained from any form of treatment for this annoying condition.



Fig. 2. Forceps for grasping cornea.

on either side of the pupil and then tied in the following manner: Specially constructed forceps, with an incomplete fenestrum at the end of either blade, are used to grasp the margin of the upper segment of the cornea which is thereby everted. While it is everted the needle carrying the suture is passed

There is nothing new under the sun, and just here I take the liberty of quoting from my article on this subject,[1] in which I show the operative treatment as followed out by M. Desmarres, Bull, von Graefe, and Bader:

M. Desmarres advocated puncture of the cornea, after which light but long

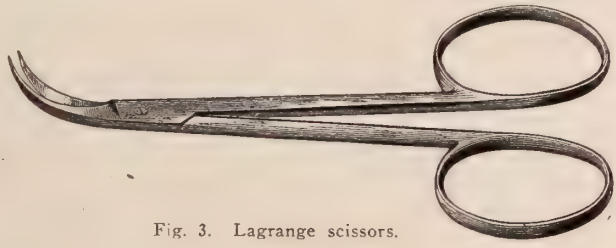


Fig. 3. Lagrange scissors.

through the fenestra and the corneal tissue. The forceps are released, the suture being disengaged by slipping through the break in the incomplete ring at the distant extremity of the forceps. This is repeated on the other side of the pupillary area in the upper margin of the corneal incision. The

continued pressure should be applied. Shortly afterward Mackenzie published the statement that evacuation of the aqueous humor was of no value whatever in this condition. Division of the recti muscles in conical cornea had been suggested some time prior to 1854, but was not seriously considered. G. J. Bull's



Fig. 4. Forceps with incomplete fenestrum at end of each blade.

sutures are then introduced in the lower segment of the cornea in a similar manner and tied. Atropin is instilled. The eye is irrigated and the usual dressing applied. There is very little reaction, as a rule, and the corneal sutures are removed at the end of eight days.

At the conclusion of the operation, the cornea is found to be materially flattened

recently reported case of astigmatism, in which a cure was effected by a complete subconjunctival tenotomy of the external rectus, indicates the possibility of relief in conical cornea by this means. Fario, an Italian surgeon, produced drainage of the aqueous humor by excision of three small portions of the cornea. Vision was improved by this procedure.

Von Graefe, in an interesting case of

conical cornea, produced ulceration of the apex of the cone and subsequent contraction and flattening of the cicatrix. His operation consisted in passing a very small cataract knife (von Graefe model) into the middle layers of the cornea just at the apex of the cone to the extent of about one line, after which it is withdrawn; a small superficial flap is thus formed, which is seized with a very fine pair of forceps and snipped off at its base with a pair of curved scissors in order that a superficial gap may be left at this point. Great care should be exercised in

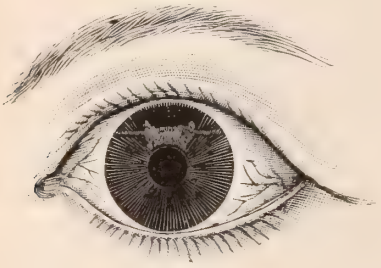


Fig. 5. Cornea after three months.

entering the knife to prevent its penetration of the entire thickness of the cornea; should this occur, the operation should be postponed for a few days until the perforation closes. On the day following the operation, a finely pointed stick of mitigated silver nitrate is lightly applied to the floor of the gap and immediately neutralized by a saline solution. The application is repeated at intervals of from three to six days until a slight, faintly yellowish infiltration is formed. Atropin should be instilled and a bandage applied to guard the eye from exposure. Improvement becomes manifest only after the infiltrate undergoes contraction, and this usually requires about five or six weeks.

Bader reported nine cases in which a more or less flat cornea was produced by the following method of treatment: A delicate curved needle, carrying fine silk or silver wire, is passed through the cornea in its horizontal diameter close to the point of the cornea to be removed. The point of the needle is then carried horizontally across the anterior chamber and is thrust through a point of the cornea opposite to the point of entrance and close to the portion of the cornea to be removed. The needle is left in the cornea until the top of the cone has been removed, as it serves to protect the lens. The head of the needle is held in one hand and the lower half of the cone is divided with a Beer's knife, the needle is then released, the small flap seized with iris forceps, and the rest of the cone removed with scissors. The needle is then drawn completely through the cornea and the ends of the thread tied so as to unite the edges of the wound.

I wish to state that the operation I have been carrying out has improved the vision from 3/200 to 20/30 in one case; and the average vision, under the proper correction of 20/70. Then, too, I have found that as time goes on the vision continues to improve, owing, evidently, to the contraction of the cicatricial tissue, giving the cornea a more spherical shape. I shall not give my final findings until the expiration of a year or a year and a half, thus to enable the cornea to flatten as much as possible. By the end of that time the operation will be thoroughly tried out.

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EXPERIMENTS ON RABBITS WITH SALVARSAN—THERAPEUTIC AND TOXIC DOSES

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These experiments are reported from Camp Lewis, American Lake, Washington. Authority to publish granted, Board of Publication, S. G. O.

Several cases of syphilis with eye symptons examined in the Eye Section of this Base Hospital and several that were seen in the repeated examination and surveys of those under luetic treatment stated that the loss of vision of which they complained dated from the administration of salvarsan. At the suggestion and under the direction of Major Harry Vanderbilt Würdemann, chief of the eye, ear, nose and throat sections, and with the collaboration of the laboratory, the writer secured a number of rabbits and subjected them to large doses of salvarsan during the period of three months. The results of this follow:

Twelve rabbits were injected with a 1-10 salvarsan; the weight ranged 1100 Gm. to 1650 Gm. with one exception 980 Gm. The rabbits were given 1 decigram of salvarsan to a dose, excepting the three largest rabbits which were given 1.4 decigram for two doses. The salvarsan was injected into the veins of the ears.

Three of the rabbits died from the first salvarsan injection after three days. These eyegrounds were frequently examined but no changes were found. There was no postmortem examination made of these. The weight of these rabbits was 980 Gm., and 1410 Gm.

The fourth rabbit, weight 1100 Gm., died while it was getting its fifth salvarsan injection, twenty-nine days following its first injection and five days after the fourth. There had been no change in the eyegrounds noted. This rabbit was examined postmortem. The liver showed a large number of small hemorrhages, the other organs seemed normal. The brain, spinal cord, and urine were tested for arsenic and the laboratory failed to find even a trace.

The fifth rabbit, weight 1120 Gm., white, received six doses of salvarsan in thirty-four days, and then after a period of thirty-four days, it was given a final dose. The night following the second injection of salvarsan, while this rabbit was very listless, the guinea pigs ate nearly half of its right ear. The shock came very nearly proving fatal. Autopsy was held two days following final injection of salvarsan; findings were as follows: A very thin rabbit, liver showed numerous small hemorrhages, other organs were apparently normal. Urine was straw color.

The following seven rabbits, weight from 1140 Gm. to 1650 Gm., received ten injections of salvarsan in seven weeks, then they rested a month before getting the final dose. They were posted two, three, four and five days later. All the rabbits lost weight while they were given the salvarsan. During their rest period they gained a little. Rabbit No. 7 had an abscess on the back over the right kidney. Slides were made, the laboratory reported organism resembling streptococcus. Frequent examination failed to show any changes of the eyegrounds. This was corroborated by repeated ophthalmoscopic examinations by Major Würdemann.

Postmortem findings:

Liver showed more or less small hemorrhages, other organs seemed normal; the urine was a milky gray.

Following is the laboratory report by Francis B. D. Brown, 2nd Lt., M. C., U. S. A.:

Urine samples were all negative for albumin. A small amount from each sample was heated in a small size test tube until sample boiled gently. Addition of acetic acid cleared every tube showing absence of albumin.

The procedure used for arsenic is as follows:

From three to five grams of each sample was ground with a little concentrated hydrochloric acid in a porcelain mortar until pasty. More acid was added, making in all about ten to fifteen c.c. The resulting thin paste was transferred to a marked 250 c.c. Erlemeyer flask, about 3 g. of potassium chlorat, $KC10_3$, solid was added. After shaking well and standing until the foam subsided, the flask was placed on a boiling water bath and heated about twenty minutes. At intervals of about five minutes, small additions of potassium chlorat, 2 to 3 g. were made until no further change of color was observed.

After cooling, the liquid in the flask was added to a test tube containing free zinc to which a drop of copper sulphat solution had been added. A loose plug of cotton was placed in the neck of the tube to absorb any foam or splashing from the action of the acid on the zinc. A small piece of filter paper was placed over the tube and a drop of concentrated silver nitrat solution placed in the center. The presence of the arsenic is shown by the development of a lemon yellow spot on the silver nitrat paper after ten to twenty minutes. A drop of water turns the yellow spot black.

This is the Gutzeit test for arsenic and is one of the most delicate tests for this substance. It was found by separate test that .01 mg. of arsenious oxide, as 203 gave a marked yellow coloration turning dark when water was added.

Conclusions: These experiments, altho limited in number, show that these rabbits were thoroly impregnated with arsenic by the salvarsan injections. The dose of one decigram was lethal to but three; the others lived thruout the treatment and the postmortem examination showed a recovery of arsenic in the tissues examination. In none of the twelve rabbits was an optic neuritis produced. These experiments, taken in connection with the fourteen cases of optic neuritis discovered during the survey of patients before or during the treatment of syphilis in which the optic nerve lesions disappeared rapidly under salvarsan treatment, show that in these cases at least, arsenic has had no influence upon the development of an inflammation of the optic nerve; rather contrawise where neuritis had already developed, the specific treatment caused speedy resolution; thus it seems that the fear of production of blindness by therapeutic doses of salvarsan is unwarranted.

Table

	2 days after sal-varsan	2 days after in-jection	3 days after sal-varsan	3 days after in-jection	4 days after sal-varsan	4 days after in-jection	5 days after sal-varsan	5 days after in-jection
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Blood	++	++	+	+	+		+	±
Brain	+	+	+	++	++	++	++	++
Spinal Cord				+	+	++		+
Urine	+	++	++	+++	++	++	+	+

Trace of arsenic (less than .01 mg.) +++. Faint trace, ++. Very faint trace, +.

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

SPONTANEOUS RUPTURE OF MORGAGNIAN CATARACT

Jose de Jesus Gonzalez, M. D.

Leon Gto., Mexico.

This report was presented to the Section on Ophthalmology of the Fifth Medical Congress of Mexico.

The extreme rarity of spontaneous rupture of hypermature soft cataract makes this case of such interest to the observer that it is worth while to relate it.

Mrs. V. G., age 75, whom I have known for more than 30 years (the dates that I relate have been verified by myself) underwent, in 1898, an operation for cataract of the right eye, with complete success. The extraction was without iridectomy and without the least operative complication. The pupil stayed round and was contractile, and the visual acuity equally normal for distance and for reading.

As she was exceedingly nervous and timid, the good result obtained in the operation made her refuse operation on the left eye, whose cataract was complete and ripe at this time.

The years went by, the nonoperated cataract underwent the regressive modification which softened the superficial layers of the crystalline lens. The color had turned to bluish white; and this color, which varied with the change of position of the patient, made one think that a hardened nucleus existed.

One morning in the year 1912, fourteen years after she was operated for cataract in the right eye, without the eye receiving any jolt, or without the patient making any hasty movement or great physical effort, she experienced a sudden and acute pain in the left eye, accompanied by intense temporal and supraorbital pain, and a sensation of vertigo, followed by nausea and vomiting.

Next day she was brought to my office. There was intense pain and photophobia, which compelled the patient to cover the operated eye. The eye showed nothing abnormal except the operative aphakia. The left eye presented severe ecchymosis and conjunctival hyperemia. The anterior chamber was completely filled with a milk-white liquid. The cornea was transparent, but with the epithelium slightly dull, as seen in an attack of acute glaucoma. The tension was much higher than normal. Of the iris nothing could be seen. The eye was painful on pressure.

The diagnosis proved not difficult: A Morgagnian cataract which had formed in the left eye had unexpectedly and without apparent reason ruptured and had emptied its contents into the anterior chamber, causing an acute glaucoma.

If we remember the investigations on the pathogenesis of glaucoma by Dr. Uribe Troncoso (1) who has found an increase of albumin in the aqueous humor in glaucomatous eyes, making the filtration difficult through the canal of Schlemm, and causing the retention of liquid and hypertension, we shall not be astonished that the sudden and abundant outpour into the anterior chamber of thick liquid, heavily albuminous, may have caused a violent attack of glaucoma.

What caused the rupture? Probably the regressive action of the crystalline layers had invaded the capsule itself and by thinning it had caused it to give way.

The natural therapeutic indication would be the extraction of the liquid, by making a straight incision large enough to facilitate extraction of the nucleus, which, according to my belief, still was present. But the timidity of the patient, the advanced age (75 years), and her excessive nervousness, and not consenting to an operation, led me to prescribe instillations of eserin and applications of dionin 5%, until an intense lymphocytosis was pro-

duced; and steaming for fifteen minutes.

The pain ceased, the tension diminished, the absorption of the liquid was more noticeable from day to day, and within two weeks the anterior chamber became free from debris; the cornea remained transparent, the iris had regained its normal appearance and the pupil its form and its reaction. But the hardened nucleus still persisted, probably the capsular rupture cicatrized, and the pupil remained obstructed, opaque as before. The light sense was preserved and she could appreciate the difference in intensity of light and its direction.

I observed the patient five years from the date of the accident until her death, which occurred this year, and she suffered no return of glaucomatous attacks; but the nucleus did not absorb.

The only case similar to the one I have just described, which I find in the ophthalmic literature, is that of Rollet and Genet, (Rev. Generale d'Ophtalm, January, 1913), under the title, "Soft Cataract ruptured spontaneously into the anterior chamber." A blacksmith, 67 years of age, whose left eye had been operated for cataract seventeen years ago, the 27th of September, 1912, suddenly developed violent headaches, accompanied by vertigo and nausea, and localized on the right side. The right eye was much injected and where formerly he could see the light, he had lost all vision. Four days after this Rollet and Genet had him under observation at the hospital of Lyons; a light liquid filled the anterior chamber of the right eye with hypertension and pain. Eserin was instilled and the eye regained slowly its normal appearance, and in a month and a half the cornea was transparent, the anterior chamber normal, the pupil myotic, due to the eserin. The ophthalmoscope showed the ocular media transparent, the iris tremulous and absence of the lens. This patient, much happier than ours, recovered his vision after the accident.

My observation has the advantage that I knew the patient and had observed her cataract, while Rollet and Genet supposed the existence of the Morgagnian cataract which ruptured.

A CASE OF TRAUMATIC PULSATING EXOPHTHALMOS

R. S. Magee, M. D.

TOPEKA, KANSAS

The following history of a case is presented to you because of its rarity and its unusual cause, also, because I saw it soon after its beginning, and was able to follow it thru to its completion, noting its progress as it developed.

R. C., married, aged 24, was first seen by his physician, Dr. J. S. Stewart, Summerfield, Kansas, November 20, 1917. Family history negative; always been healthy; well nourished; farmer; active and cheerful.

Went out in the evening, November 18, 1917, to do the chores. While feeding the hogs and standing near a fence, stooped over to pick up an ear of corn and in so doing was struck on the left eye by a wire which stood up straight, the other end being fastened to the ground. He was stunned, became sick and vomited, followed by headache, with a queer feeling in his head for some time afterwards, when the eye began to swell. On November 28, 1917, ten days afterward, he was brought to my office by his physician.

Examination showed no marks of an injury to the eyelids or the eyeball by the wire. Ptosis, ecchymosis of the orbital and palpebral conjunctiva; and proptosis with immobilization of the eyeball, and some dilatation of the pupil. The muscles supplied by the 3rd, 4th and 6th nerves involved. The eyeball was fixed, looking straight ahead, vision undisturbed, practically $\frac{20}{xx}$. Complained of sensitiveness to light. Potassium iodid was prescribed and the patient sent home.

Three weeks later he returned. Double vision was present, the orbital tightness had increased. Proptosis more marked, intense rigidity of all muscular movements. Increasing headache. Bulbar and palpebral conjunctival congestion had increased, extending down into the lower culdesac. Ophthalmoscopic examination showed media clear. The disc and retina showed no apparent changes. Pupil showed some dilatation, not marked, unchanged by light. The veins in the skin of the upper lid were distended and tortuous.

The color of the overlying skin had assumed a dark cyanotic hue. At this time he began to complain of whistling or blowing noises over the left temple, asking me to listen to hear the noise. Said his wife could hear it.

Did not see him again until February 12, 1918. In the interim he had gone to Omaha to see Dr. Gifford. This time when he came back he had a pressure bandage over the left common carotid (making pressure) and trying to wear it. Said the discomfort was very great. The noises in his head had increased—blowing sounds he called them. Proptosis had increased to the extent that the lids failed to cover the globe. Immobilization complete. Vision reduced to one-half or less. Photophobia had increased. Pulsation of eyeball, synchronous with the heartbeat. A distinct bruit over the globe extending to the left temporal region could be heard. A marked chemosis of the lower half of the eyeball. The cornea showed a beginning haziness and blurring.

Under general anesthesia an examination was made of the postbulbar region by separating the conjunctiva and introducing the finger and passing it well back towards the apex of the orbit. Nothing was found. The pulsation, exaggerated, could be felt with the finger in the apex of the orbit. With the assistance of Doctors W. F. Bowen and H. O. Clark, the left common carotid was exposed, and the internal carotid was ligated just above the bifurcation. Immediately the pulsation ceased. Previous to the ligation the eyeball was removed. The opening in the anterior lacerated fissure seemed greatly enlarged, admitting the face of the finger readily, showing pressure absorption, likely because of pressure of the venous channels on the walls of the bony fissure.

A critical condition followed for two weeks. He remained in the hospital for four weeks. Partial right sided hemiplegia existed for some time. Difficulty in speech continued all the time during his stay in the hospital.

He could not be raised up in bed, would swoon away and lose consciousness, and once the nurse phoned that he was dying.

At the end of four weeks he was discharged from the hospital. Two weeks after going home, wrote that he still occasionally heard the noises, but several months later said that they had disappeared entirely. The edema of the orbital tissue was very slow in disappearing, in fact, did not disappear entirely, and still interferes with the perfect fitting of the artificial eye. At times patient says that the pulsating movement is still noticeable, when the artificial eye is being worn.

The excuse for enucleation was that the integrity of the globe was endangered by the beginning keratitis, also greatly hazarded by cutting off the blood supply following ligation of the internal carotid, and the prospective blindness resulting from atrophy due to pressure, which had already taken place and would likely continue; and the doubt of the globe returning back into the orbit to resume its proper location, should the swelling subside.

I cannot give the location of the aneurysm within the brain—I do not know—only I believe that it was in or near the cavernous sinus, making pressure there on the return blood from the orbit My patient carried an accident insurance policy and had difficulty in making settlement, due to the fact of a doubt in the minds of the company as to the cause of the trouble, whether it was due to direct violence or not.

In looking up the literature I find the report of a much similar case by Bedell[1] in 1918. The patient was

down in a cellar stooping over, and quickly straightened up, struck her head in the right parietal region against a beam. The injury caused pain and dizziness for several days. The globe moved, but the internal carotid was ligated. The eye became permanently blind, the proptosis slow in recovering.

Mayou[2] reports a case caused by a fragment of shrapnel entering behind the right mastoid process. A bruit could be heard over the orbit and head and marked proptosis, with no improvement by ligation of the carotid.

Caillaud[3] reports a case of bilateral pulsating exophthalmos, due to injury from shrapnel, passing thru the maxillary sinus. Marked proptosis. Bruit could be heard on auscultation over the globe.

Augstein[4] reports a case of pulsating exophthalmos due to injury to the lower jaw. Marked proptosis. The exophthalmos and pulsation subsided following ligation of the carotids.

Key[5] reports a case of pulsating exophthalmos due to a severe blow on the side of the head. Five days after the injury first noticed a slight protrusion of the eyeball. A well defined bruit and pulsation could be heard.

Dodd[6] reports a case coming on one month after a severe blow on the side of the head. Marked proptosis.

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FOREIGN BODY IN EYE NEARLY TWENTY-NINE YEARS

J. H. Buckley, M. D.

FORT SMITH, ARKANSAS

J. M., miner, sixty-two years old, consulted me July 30th, 1919, in reference to a painful eye. Tension was normal, iris appeared muddy, pupil small, pear shaped, large end toward nasal side. Hypopyon measuring four mm. across top surface and two mm. vertically through center. Scar through limbus temporal side running transversely three mm. long, one and one-half mm. in cornea, balance in sclera. Ciliary zone in neighborhood of scar slightly pink. Absolute absence of light perception in all parts of field, also absence of pupillary light reflex. I advised patient to have the eye removed; that if he did not do so, and that if he lived long enough he would lose vision in the other eye. He said, "That is what Dr. ——— told me twenty-nine years ago." I sent him to Spark's Memorial Hospital and removed the eye that day.

On September 7th, 1890, while using a hammer cutting a rail for a railroad company in Virginia, a sliver from the steel cleaver he was striking struck him in the eye. He experienced pain at interrupted intervals until after Christmas, at which time the eye became quiet, and remained reasonably so until April, 1919, when it began paining him and continued to do so until I removed it. Upon opening and inverting the enucleated eye I found imbedded in the upper anterior quadrant of the choroid a piece of steel three mm. long, one and one-half mm. wide and three-fourths mm. thick, one end being only one mm. from ciliary body. It is quite interesting and I think unusual that a foreign body remained twenty-nine years, less five weeks and three days, within an eye, without causing more pain and reaction than this did. No history of sympathetic irritation obtainable.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

NETHERLANDS OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

FIFTY-THIRD MEETING

Utrecht, June 9th, 1918.

Translated from the Nederlandische Tijdschrift v. Geneeskunde, October 26th, 1918, by E. E. Blaauw, M. D.

Demonstration of Cases.

Prof. H. Snellen demonstrated a case of *Traumatic Aniridia* after injury with a tobacco box; a severe form of *Choroidal Tuberculosis,* a patient with *Optic Neuritis,* or perhaps rather *Pseudoneuritis.* Specimens were shown of an eye, which clinically had appeared as a *sarcoma,* that had proliferated from within outward, while the pathologico-anatomic examination showed an ectasia consequent on *Intraocular Tuberculosis.*

Discussion.—Nicolai had seen in a patient, with headache, a monolateral typical papillitis with normal vision, which remained unchanged during 4 years; he presumed that this was not a true papillitis.

Rochat asked about the adaptation, which perhaps may show some disturbances, after Behr's investigations.

Snellen replied he had not had time for complete examination.

Dr. L. H. Van Romunde demonstrated *Ophthalmoscopy* with *red free light,* after the method recommended by Vogt.

Heterochromia and Melanosis.

Dr. J. P. Waardenburg found since his publication in 1915 (Ophthalmology, Vol. XII, p. 106), 3 more cases, which gives 0,085 per cent of his patients. Augstein found 0,050 per cent; 6 patients in 12,000.

Case 1. Lady 43 years old, with about symmetric, nearly vertical pigment streaks at the posterior surface of the cornea. They were broadest and pigmented the thickest just below the corneal center, 2 to 2.5 mm. Towards the periphery the individual particles are well recognizable. The color of the eye was gray with some yellow pigment in the small iris circle.

Case 2. Lady 38 years old. V. = 5/5. O. D. no changes. O. S. in the pupillary space shows pigment spots against the lens capsule, while a horizontal fine pigmented streak is seen against the posterior wall of the cornea. This streak is dark brown, sharply circumscribed, has the length of about one-third of the cornea, and is ½ mm. broad. The iris is built of coarse trabeculae and brown.

Case 3. Lady 54 years old. V. after correction 5/10 with a slight Ast. No changes with the exception of a very slight peripheral lens opacity. Against the posterior surfaces of both corneas small pigment streaks are seen, in V form, a little below the center, of about half the length of the cornea. The principal direction is horizontal, the sides of the V are slightly bent. The iris is brown.

Case 4. Lady 40 years old. V. with correction for each of cyl. —3.5 = 5/10. The corneas have a diameter of hardly 10 mm. They are astigmatic with a horizontal curve of 46 D. and vertical of 50.6 D. The left cornea shows a few oblique, very fine, deep opacities, in between more clear spaces; while a small central part looks as a dull window, covered with extremely fine lightly pigmented points. In O. D., the fine pigmented opacities are much more numerous; they cover the paracentral and nasal side of the cornea entirely. The iris is blue gray with orange yellow pigment in small vascular circle.

Waardenburg believes that these 4 cases have a similar cause: *Congenital Melanosis,* the result of later pigmentation of the pupillary membrane after having grown together with the cornea, after formation of the anterior chamber; because all other affections are absent, the color particles are the densest centrally; and the condition is in both eyes, while other congenital deformities, corneal opacities, microcornea and astigmatism are present.

Melanosis corneae is derived from the stroma pigment, which is morphologically, and chemically different from and is formed much later than the ectodermal iris pigment. The gray and bluish eyes should then not be included in the eyes with melanosis. All data point in that direction. According to this conception the tissue elements, which remain in contact with the cornea, have genetically the same value as the iris cells and would have the same power of becoming pigmented about or after birth.

It seems that we have not to deal with true melanosis; viz. a hyperpigmentation exceeding the normal, but rather with a displacement of pigment. It seems to have only slight influence on the vision. The heredity could not be investigated. Slow and insufficient absorption of the *membrana pupillaris* seems hereditary. (This paper appeared as separate article in Tydschr. v. Gen. November 30, 1918).

Waardenburg refers to 3 cases of *melanosis iridis*. This condition appears mostly one sided, characterized by a diffuse dark brown to black brown coloring of the iris, with a change in the relief. Instead of a trabecular design one sees small warts intersprinkled with some larger papilloma-like enlargements. A reproduction of such a case shows, R. of a 15 years old girl with typical melanosis. The eye with the melanotic iris has some brown violet spots in the sclera, and a metal glossy fundus without visible intervascular spaces, on account of a dark tapetum.

The second case is that of a 13 years old girl with brown eyes, L. being temporally melanotic, with 7 large verrucae and nasally a jet black spot in the minor circle, while the nasal part is dark brown with green, not entirely melanotic—a case of partial melanosis in one eye with exceptionally black coloring of a part. This eye shows a slight corectopia and a white spot on the anterior lens capsule a remnant of pupillary membrane.

The third case is a 15 years old girl with marked corectopia R. up and L. down, luxation of lens in opposite direction, a diffusely colored iris without verrucae and without trabecular pattern. These eyes show pigmented spots at the posterior lens capsule where strings adhere, which connect the lenses with the ciliary region and seem to be stretched fibers of the zonule of Zinn. The last 2 cases do not show melanosis of sclera and fundus.

This condition of melanosis, which is an excess of pigmentation of one or more parts of the eye, and goes over in a fifth of the cases into melanosarcoma, must be sharply separated from heterochromia.

Waardenburg shows 3 typical cases of *Heterochromia*. Here the light eye is the sick one contrary to the melanosis. The prognosis of this light, sick, eye is favorable in so far that the secondary cataract can be extracted well and the cyclitis and vitreous opacities seem not to have a disturbing influence. A section of an excised piece of the iris shows as only sign of chronic inflammation, a large number of mononuclear cells with eosinophil granules in the iris stroma. Waardenburg did not observe Descemet spots in his 16 cases. He found now and then vitreous opacities. He found in 6 cases cataract, 4 cases were a true lusus naturae without any complication, one in a woman-sufferer of tabes and anisocoria, one with persistent hyaloid artery, one with sympathetic paralysis and 3 with congenital coloboma of iris, one of which showed marked remnants of pupillary membrane and anterior capsular cataract with coloboma of the choroid.

These last cases may not be classed with the typical heterochromia (Fuchs). On the contrary these eyes with congenital defects, showing the greatest deviations and the strongest pigmentation, without speaking of melanosis, must point to another explanation. In any case they cannot favor Fuchs' opinion, that the heterochromia is the result of pigment hypoplasia. Waardenburg wishes to consider it in connection with normal pigment disposition; his investigation of iris bicolor made it clear to him that

here not a complicated hereditary process can be alone considered.

Discussion.— Faber saw years ago, in a 78 years old man with very brown irides and one sided cataract, brown excresences at the pupil margin, reminding one of ectropium uveae of horses. During the operation much pigment came free. He asks if this has been melanosis. He also saw once in a dog after a serious corneal inflammation much pigment appear in the cornea and conjunctiva.

Van der Hoeve had observed a number of cases of heterochromia with cataract but hardly ever missed symptoms of cyclitis with the corneal microscope; heterochromia with sympathetic paralysis is seen in young people, not in those where it originates in old age. The distinction between melanosis and heterochromia seems a little arbitrary. In a patient with original one sided melanosis, the other eye developed later vitreous opacities and cataract, pointing in the direction of heterochromia, so that here probably both conditions were present at the same time.

Waardenburg stated that cataract formation in the strongest melanotic eye seems to be rare. He insists upon the distinction of melanosis and heterochromia. It is however necessary to know the normal degrees of iris pigmentation.

Instrument for Examination of Hemianopic Pupillary Reaction, to be Attached to a Corneal Microscope.

H. Weve has deviated from Hess' principle by having the light sources form their foci rather far out in the pupillomotoric zone. This made it unnecessary to verify for R. and L. separately. Weve has been able to verify his findings in a case of hemianopsia through hypophysis tumor with positive, and case of cerebral cortex affection (thrombosis) with negative hemikinetic reaction.

Senile Macular Changes and Senile Lens Opacities.

Van der Hoeve found during 1914 to 1918 in the Groningen Policlinic among 14,042 patients, of whom 1,336 are above the age of 60, in 329 eyes of 173 patients senile macular changes; increasing with age:

from 61-70 years in 6.125 per cent;
from 70-80 years in 23.04 per cent,
above the 80 years in 30 per cent.

The vision suffers very much. It is remarkable that senile lens changes were found so seldom and in so slight degree. If the macular change was very pronounced lens opacity was absent or very little. Is the lens opacity pronounced, then usually the macula deviation is absent. It follows that both changes cannot be due alone to old age.

Van der Hoeve admits an influence of light rich in *ultraviolet rays* on the appearance of senile lens opacities. He accepts as cause an affection of the ciliary body, which becomes affected thru diffuse dispersion in the lens, which he has demonstrated in 1911. The diffuse dispersion in the lens makes that a part of the incident light, and especially the ultraviolet rays deviate in all directions. The ciliary body becomes affected in its least resistant part—the secreting epithelium. This changes in the course of years the secretion of the nourishing fluids for the lens so that the lens begins to become opaque.

This diffuse dispersion protects the retina against a too large quantity of ultraviolet rays, and the speaker thinks that the senile macular changes may be explained thru excess of ultraviolet rays. As a preventive against these senile changes the modern yellow-green lenses are recommended.

Discussion—Blok asked if many macular changes have been found in aphakics.

Snellen was sceptical as regards the ultraviolet light; the glassblower, who stands with his back to the fire, which even then contains less violet rays than the daylight, while a helper gives him the fluid glass mass from the fire, cannot get his cataract from the ultraviolet rays, rather heat must be influential. The quicker ripening of the cataracts in India and the prevalence among farmers could be accounted for by the

heat. Possibly the influence of heat on the body has greater significance than on the eye itself. It would be interesting to compare florists and movers, both equally exposed to light, the first doing light, the last heavy body-work.

Mulock Houwer thought that from the anatomic standpoint objections could be raised; as the degeneration does not remain limited to the center of the retina, but often extends widely. At the center the retina thru its thickness would have a protecting influence.

Rochat referred to the observation of Lindberg, who often saw the cataract preceded by a disappearance of the pigment of the posterior surface of the iris in the lower nasal quadrant, which was ascribed to the same rays.

Platenga observed an earlier presbyopia in the inhabitants of the tropics. He asked the speaker's opinion, if this also depends on the same influences.

Weve thought that euphos glass would be necessary, as common glass has the same protective influence. The question rises if cataract happens more rarely in myopes, who have worn their correction from youth on.

Nicolai asked the explanation of the fact, that some old people do not have any macular or lens changes, and how to explain the distinct tendency to familial affection sometimes found.

Van der Hoeve in his reply mentioned that naturally numerous influences exist, which can produce cataract, that his theory will not embrace all cases. He is willing to accept the possibility that families exist, where the dispersion in the lens is rather stronger, with a greater consequent production of cataract. He saw some macular changes in aphakic eyes, but one should not forget that probably more ten-year periods are necessary before the changes become manifest and that the aphakic eyes are protected by strong lenses. He agrees with Weve that common glass protects the eye, altho not absolutely. He called attention to Elliot's observation of retinal changes with cataracta nigra (that is with transparent lens), and that chorioiditis should so often be found in Eskimos. He does not blame the ultraviolet rays for the glassblowers' cataract, he rather suspects the ultrared rays, with Crookes and Vogt: This cataract begins in the pupillary space, and must therefore be of entirely different character. As to the ophthalmoscopic picture—the functional disturbance is more limited to the fovea, so that perhaps the more peripheric fundus changes are situated in the more internal retinal layers and then could be attributed to the stronger absorption in the thicker part.

Visual Acuity as Measure of Function of the Retina.

H. Snellen mentioned that the visual angle under which objects can still be recognized, is dependent on the clearness of the retinal images, the size of these images and the function of the retina. The last factor can only be determined by exclusion of all the other influences.

We have no trustworthy means to find out with opacities of the refracting media how much the acuity is diminished thru these, and how much thru a possible simultaneous retinal affection.

But even with exclusion of all other factors and acuity of 6/6, it is dubious if the retinal function is entirely normal. When the function of the retina has not fallen beneath a certain value the acuity is determined exclusively by the anatomic relations of the retina, namely the size and situation of the cones and rods.

Snellen wishes to explain in this way the asthenopia from anemia. As a rule they have a normal visual angle and a large accomodative power. Still they cannot read or work at a short distance, or cannot continue it. If they receive a slight help (a lens of + 0.5 D. is often sufficient) they are able to do so. One might think of a suggestive influence. Snellen thinks that another explanation should be given, namely; a slight neuroretinitis or insufficient nutrition of optic nerve and retina, which has diminished the function even if the visual angle is normal. The stimulus becomes weakened, is perhaps too weakly

propagated for automatic reflex production of the necessary accommodation. If the patient is helped with a weak positive lens the stimulus becomes enforced and the right amount of accommodation is produced, which otherwise can be gotten only with the most intense exertion.

An accidental observation confirmed that the retinal function even with full visual angle can be inferior to the normal. A patient cured of strabismus after tenotomy, examined for binocular vision by the Snellen Sr. method of the colored letters, while he had normal V. with both eyes, and with each eye separately could read the red or green letters, while using both eyes together, read with one eye all corresponding colored letters, and with the other only the largest. One might think that the patient on account of his strabismus suppressed the image of one eye. But Snellen found this also in patients who had never squinted. On the contrary he does not believe that the poorer function of the retina is caused by the squint, but that the formation of squint is favored thru the absence of a strong stimulus for fusion. Snellen also explains the fact, also mentioned by Straub, that with hyperopes, especially anisometropic hyperopes, in the weaker eye the hyperopia largely is manifest, in the other largely latent. The stimulus for the last eye is then strong enough to provoke immediately the right accommodation in the first eye, which lags thru insufficiency of the stimulus.

Discussion—Nicolai does not agree that the accommodation in the one eye may be provoked differently from the other.

Snellen not seldom found a quick reflex action from the good eye, and from the poor eye not such a quick response, and supposed that weakness of the retinal stimulus caused this. So a retinal disturbance can be supposed in anemic asthenopia, that the stimulus for reflex focussing is insufficiently strong, and only is reached after full attention; weak glasses may be sufficient to make the image so much stronger, that it produces a sufficient stimulus.

Roelofs mentioned the importance of distinguishing the observation-circle and the space sense and the significance of contrast. His visual acuity is 2 in clear weather, but distinctly less on dark days. The true light sense must be separated from adaptation; the first depends in high degree on contrast, the last one surely not.

Visser said that the difference in visual acuity between the two eyes becomes greater with the red green letters than with simple determination of vision. The function seems to increase during exclusion of the other eye.

Van Moll had, after extraction of the lens, important disturbance of his adaptation.

De Kleijn thought that a lower tone of the ciliary muscle could explain the less powerful action of the stimulus.

Snellen said that this might be possible, but that then the cause of the weak tone must be explained. It is probable that the tone does not develop on account of the two weak stimulus. Adaptative disturbance in aphakics was not rare formerly, caused, perhaps, by the too large iridectomy. A psychical exclusion, as Visser supposed, he did not think probable, as during reading each eye separately had the full attention.

H. Weve reported a case of Tertiary Lues of the Antrum of Highmore and the Orbit.

(Already published)

Discussion — Rochat demonstrated some slides of orbital gumma. He had received for examination the entire contents of the orbit of a man of some 40 years, where evisceration was done for tumor, with blindness and pain of the prolapsed eye. Lues was not suspected. A gummatous mass with caseation and endarteritis obliterans was found within the muscular funnel, which had partly grown around, partly infiltrated the nerves and bloodvessels. The recti muscles appeared much infiltrated, and caseous gummata were found in them. The paralyses were caused as well by diseased muscles as

by destroyed nerves. After this diagnosis a Wassermann was made and found positive.

Wibaut asks if sporotrichosis should not be considered.

De Kleijn considers the X-ray plate not typical for tumor, rather is against it, as the bony walls are not affected and the ethmoid could be involved. He is interested in the age of the patient as this condition seems mostly to affect old people. He observed it in a man of 48 years old, with symptoms of hereditary lues.

Weve states that in the literature no cases are reported of sporotrichosis with this picture. It could not be found in the specimen; also a secondary infection would not have remained absent. He remains of the opinion that a tumor gives a stronger shadow than an empyema. The affection seems to appear at all ages, sometimes with acquired lues 22 years after infection, sometimes in sufferers of hereditary lues at an age of 50-60 years.

Struggle of the Visual Fields (With Demonstration).

Prof. Dr. W. P. C. Zeeman reported for himself and Dr. O. Roelofs, extending their former investigations, which showed that if different shades of gray are offered to each eye, one receives an impression between these monocular impressions. But if the difference is very great such a combination is not always possible, and it can come to suppression of one image or to alternating suppression, to struggle. The course of these oscillations was registered with the kymographion, which showed that the share of each eye was about alike, when the eyes were equal; that thru one sided diminution of contrast the share of one eye could be diminished. This was also studied in the periphery of the visual field. The presence of contours on one side did not exercise a demonstrable influence on the course of the struggle, even if these contours were in the same direction with the lines of the experimental object.

The influence of the ocular movements was more striking, and could mostly be explained by changes in distinctness of images and contrast, caused by these motions. The lines which are followed by the fovea, win over the lines on the other side, which are received on more peripheral parts of the retina.

These investigations also produced important data regarding the attention. This struggle registration in anisometropes demonstrates the different parts of either eye in observation, and the influence of the correction. It makes more understandable, why a one sided amblyopia is often found with hyperopia and very rare with myopia. Here both eyes are always directed at one point in the real world, and they can force their images with equal potency. In hyperopia on the contrary one eye is always adapted for a virtual far point, and the constantly blurred impression of this eye will remain inferior in the struggle. A more detailed account of these investigations will be published in the Archives Neerl. de Physiologie.

AMERICAN OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Fifty-fifth Annual Meeting

Atlantic City, June 14-17, 1919

President, Dr. Lucien Howe, of Buffalo

(Continued from Page 691.)

Ocular Complications of Typhoid Inoculations.

Dr. F. Phinizy Calhoun, Atlanta, Ga., called attention to the fact that our French confreres in ophthalmology have recorded such complications, notably herpes corneae with ulceration, retinal exudates, and hemorrhages following renal complications. The author reports five cases of uveal inflammations which immediately followed the first or second inoculation against typhoid fever. All had iritis. One had suffered from a previous gonococcus infection, and one gave a plus Wassermann; but the other three gave negative Wassermanns. All the cases recovered.

It has been suggested that eyes which had old lesions, such as corneal scars or iritis or choroiditis, are rendered more susceptible to the toxic actions of a foreign protein.

Discussion: Dr. George H. Bell, New York, thought the cases very rare. He had seen only one, which he showed at the New York Ophthalmological Society, and also at the Academy of Medicine in New York. His patient, before he entered the Army, had a vision of 20/20 in each eye. He was inoculated with antityphoid vaccine twice. The first injection was followed by no complications. The second injection, which was given one week later, was followed by a chill, headache, malaise and rise of temperature. His eyes became inflamed. He could not keep his eyes open, and suffered greatly from the light. Both eyes became inflamed at the same time. He was treated in the Army Hospital for ten months. His vision when I first saw him was 5/200. He had a deep keratitis. The pupils reacted to light and the eyes were quiet. There were some gray opacities in the deep layers of the cornea. Seen with the naked eye, the opacities seemed uniformly gray; while with the magnifying glass, these opacities might be resolved into dots.

This patient has now been discharged from the army, and receives a pension from the Government. I have had him under observation since September 19, 1918; and there has been no improvement in his vision. I would also state that he has had two Wassermanns and a spinal puncture, all of which were negative. He has also had three injections of the old tuberculin, which were given in increasing doses without any reaction.

I think that all lesions that may occur after antityphoid inoculation and can be regarded as due to it, should be so regarded. No lesion should be ascribed to the inoculation that does not arise during or very shortly after the series of injections, until after a thoro investigation.

Dr. Walter B. Lancaster, Boston: I have seen no case of uveal inflammation that I recognized, but I have recognized a considerable number of cases of neuropathic keratitis. The first was so characteristic that it could not be easily overlooked. The patient was the commanding general of our camp. He had had the typhoid inoculation, which had made him rather sick. When I first saw him, he had herpes, cold sores on his face. Lesions on the cornea were, therefore, easily recognized. That was early in the establishment of the camp, so we had occasion to watch for these cases as the recruits came in and received inoculations. We saw, certainly, over a thousand; and probably over twenty cases my assistant made record of, and will perhaps make a report on this condition. The condition was not strictly ophthalmic, but neuropathic, and probably in the ganglia.

Vision of Aviators.

Dr. W. H. Wilmer, Washington, D.C., reported his further experience regarding the ocular function of aviators.

In selecting fliers, it is absolutely necessary to see that the eyes are entirely normal, for affections that are merely inconvenient on the ground, may be serious in the air. There are different types of fliers, and normality is more important in some of these than it is in others. When, in the course of training, errors of refraction become manifest, these should be corrected by means of appropriate lenses. There is a close correlation between successful flying and good stereoscopic vision. In case of weakness of the eye muscles, general rest and ocular exercises should be prescribed. A successful combat pilot, with trained air vision, who loses an eye may, in the exigencies of war, be seriously considered for return, under certain conditions, to a flying status.

In the classification of aviators, a cycloplegic should be used, and the fields for color and form should be recorded. Frequent reexaminations of flying officers are necessary. A short simple reaction time is of great value to the combat pilot, but only if associated with calm determination and well coördinated muscular action. No

quick, accurate method of testing ability for night flying has been discovered; and there are still many problems concerning the eyes in aviation remaining to be solved.

Discussion. Dr. Alexander Duane, New York: Dr. Wilmer's paper brings to my mind one point that I tried to emphasize this morning; and that is, that we must always consider whether the tests that we make actually show what we wish to determine, i. e., a man's real availability for the work that he has to perform. In other words, are the man's eyes, when tested, functionating under the same conditions as they do in actual practice? If they are not, then our tests, unless we make allowance for their fallibility, give us false ideas. To particularize,— Our ordinary visual test is one of sharp contrasts, i.e., of black letters on a well illuminated white ground, or *vice versa.* Never, in actual practice, has an aviator to deal with contrasts of this sort. On the contrary, he is all the time concerned either with objects (flags, semaphore signals, ordinary lights, moving bodies of men, roads, etc.) whose contrast with their surroundings is extremely slight, or else with those (e. g., search-light signals) in which the contrast is extremely vivid. Our laboratory tests should be used only as a preliminary examination, to eliminate the obviously unfit; the ultimate decision as to fitness resting upon examinations made under service conditions, and with objects in their service relations.

Capt. Harvey J. Howard, M. C., Mineola, L. I.: I have been working on recommendations of tests to be applied to aviators. We have recommended very strongly the use of a cycloplegic and the taking of the color fields, especially the peripheral color vision.

Dr. T. Passmore Berens, New York: In the American Expeditionary Forces, nothing had been prepared for research work, and it was so cold that it was actually impossible for us to handle the instruments.

About the time the Armistice was signed, we got into our regular place and had a well equipped room for the laboratory. It is to be hoped that the Mineola research place will be continued, so that it will not again be necessary to try to do such work under war conditions.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: I cannot let this occasion go by without calling attention to the wonderful work that Colonel Wilmer has performed for American aviation.

Dr. Nelson M. Black, Milwaukee: Office tests are not comparable to field tests. The objection to field tests has been that they consume too much time; and weather conditions are a factor in determining when and how they shall be made. But in every instance, the fact that office tests do not bring out the visual acuity of the men, especially for railway service, has been forcibly brought to our notice. The necessity arises for uniform methods of testing vision in these various conditions, so that the test shall be in conformity with the conditions under which the men will have to use their vision. Tests in accordance with the conditions under which the men fly are necessary in aviation examinations. They are also necessary for naval signalling, as well as distinguishing railway signals.

Dr. Lucien Howe, Buffalo: For the casual visitor to the laboratory at Mineola, it was interesting in the extreme to see the methods and their scientific accuracy. It was my privilege to go there frequently. At first, I went merely from curiosity; but I went afterwards as a student. I want to pay my tribute, also to the very great talent of those doing the work, and the high value of the work being done.

Dr. W. H. Wilmer, Washington: With regard to what Dr. Duane has said, I must acknowledge that he is always practical, as well as scientific. The very fact he brought out, that the laboratory or office test does not give a true estimate of visual acuity, we realized more and more. We did use Snellen's type, but we also employed Ives' test, in which wires are put apart, and then together more and more, until they make an acute angle, and then an angle no longer recog-

nized by the retina. That is a very good clinical test. I know that in the Ophthalmological Department they often took a man and made him stereoscope objects, just as he would have to do on landing with the wires, buildings, and trees. Just the things that they had to avoid. We tried to make the examination practical. We realized that a man might be physically perfect and perfect in pathologic reaction, and yet not be a good fighter or flyer; and, the reverse of this, we recognized that a man might not be in the best physical condition, but possess an aggressive spirit, a spirit of service, which would make him excel a man far superior to himself in these other respects. In this connection, I cannot refrain from mentioning G—, who had never been able to go a consecutive year to school. He was told then that he was, as some would say, nervously unstable. He was a good shot, but physically weak. When he became an aviator, he was shot down eight times and had innumerable accidents; but that wonderful spirit of his conquered all obstacles, and he was soon up and back again. On one occasion, he had just been shot down, and was supposed to be at home recuperating; but he slipped away to a neighboring airdrome, and went up without a machine gun and exposed himself to a German fighter until the latter had fired five rounds at him. Then he came back. When rebuked for his foolishness, he said: "It was not so foolish as you think. I have been told that a man who is shot down loses his nerve; and I wanted to see whether I had lost mine. I have not." The physical test is important, and the reaction time is; but if, on living with a man, you find that aggressive spirit, you have a man who is fit to fly.

Research Work of the Air Service.

Dr. Walter B. Lancaster read a paper on Research Work in Ophthalmology at the Medical Research Laboratory of the Air Service Division of the Surgeon General's Office, and its Bearing on the Teaching of Ophthalmology in America. He gave reasons for selection of the subjects chosen for investigation, and spoke of the work previously done at the laboratory. There was difficulty in getting research workers in ophthalmology. Most of the work on physiology of vision in recent years has been done by psychologists and physicists. Very little research on the physiology of vision is being done by ophthalmologists in medical laboratories, and some of that not very creditable, because of lack of training. On the other hand, the teaching of ophthalmology is inadequate because it lacks the stimulating influence of research.

A Test for the Judgment of Distance.

Captain Harvey J. Howard, whose paper was published in full in this Journal, p. 656, expressed regret that his attention had not, until today, been called to the valuable paper of Dr. Blaauw upon this subject.

Discussion—Dr. Alexander Duane, New York: I had the opportunity of visiting the laboratory and inspecting the apparatus that Captain Howard has described, and I derived three impressions from it: The first was the extreme precision of the test. In fact, as Captain Howard says, a very slight variation in the distance between two objects seen at a distance of six meters is instantly perceptible to the observer. The apparatus seemed very simple; and the test very satisfactory, accurate and precise.

The second impression that I gathered was the convincing evidence it gave that monocular vision gives us no perception of depth, in the proper sense of the word. That is supposed to be a truism, yet it has been denied recently, and it is satisfactory to see the convincing proof that we get. On closing one eye, that delicate perception of depth that we had before immediately vanished; and we could not tell where the rods were.

The third impression that I obtained was the most satisfactory of all. It was the impression of stimulation and inspiration to be derived from visiting an institution of that kind, and seeing what the men were doing there, the spirit in which the investigation was

conducted by all the men, the wholeheartedness and unselfishness with which they went into it, and the stimulation that came to the onlookers to go and do likewise. I wish that more had seen it. If they had, they would join in the wish that this work might be continued.

Dr. E. E. Blaauw, Buffalo: I wish to give expression to my great satisfaction with regard to this work. I should like to suggest that the instrument should be entirely black, without this shading, so that you do not get any reflection. In the third, I think that the two images used should not be those which give at six meters an impression of solidity. At the New York meeting of the A. M. A. there was expressed the opinion that binocular vision is of very little value. If the war has done nothing else, it has stimulated the belief that physiology is of great importance. I am grateful for this proof of it. This little instrument of Brooksbank James is not only of value in aviation, but also in determining the loss of the power of binocular function in accidents.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: I just want to call Dr. Howard's attention to a little instrument devised by Dr. Spearman of London. Instead of two posts, there are three. The third is on a movable carrier that you can set from beside the man you are examining. You cannot tell with one eye whether this middle post is between the others or not; but with two eyes, you can. If you have something that the patient can turn, the man who is being examined can make it possible for you to measure his binocular fixation and judgment of distance very well.

Dr. W. H. Wilmer, Washington: The description of Spearman's apparatus was in the part of the paper that I did not read. That is, I described Spearman's original apparatus, which is better than his last. The last has a milk-glass slide; but the light is of variable intensity at the back. Professor Spearman finds that his good fliers practically all qualify well, and that those who fly badly nearly all fail to judge well by this test. Its practical use has been of great value.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus, O.: I was greatly impressed with the suggestion that there may be a permanent school for the study of these subjects. It occurs to me that as this is a thing largely a matter of measurements and standardization, we might appeal to the Bureau of Standards, who might be induced to take it up.

Dr. T. Passmore Berens, New York: When I first started to work at Mineola, we were all, of course, terribly interested in getting distances. Finally, we thought that there might be something in how quickly the man could react. We found that some men who had lost one eye could still make judgment of distance accurately and quickly; and that something that would record reaction time would be valuable. We also thought that it would be well to change the lighting. It is, of course, more difficult to fly at night than in the daytime. It is a question of putting the thing down to the conditions that the man would meet.

Another question was getting motion in the test. In an airplane a man has to make judgments of distance from his moving airplane.

Professor Spearman also thought that it would be fine to put motion into his own test. He had three bars, all movable; and all would be recorded on the chart at once; so that all during the test, while the man was trying to keep this bar in accord with the other to be recorded on the drum, you could see his judgment and fatigue all during the examination.

Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston: It is doubtful whether Dr. Howard has determined really the minimal binocular parallax. It seems to me that it is questionable whether this test will decide the ability of the man to judge of distance. We want to know with what accuracy he judges distance, and not the slightest distance that he can judge, which is what this test shows. It is the same objection that Dr. Lancaster has pointed out, and other people. Whether these scientific tests are going to be the final standard, is a ques-

tion; because what you really want to know is whether a man can make a proper estimate of the distance between two objects. No one, so far as I know, has ever attacked that problem from the standpoint of binocular vision. Years ago, I thought of it, but was unable to devise an accurate method of making the test. There are really some objections to this method of testing the minimal binocular parallax.

Dr. David W. Wells, Boston: Is it possible that this smaller angle of stereoscopic acuity may be due to some monocular estimation of depth, from some shadow which might be inherent in the black rod on the white ground? It seems to me that Dr. Clark's instrument, which does away with the rod altogether, and substitutes this simple light, which is movable in the anteroposterior direction, theoretically is a more exact piece of apparatus.

Capt. Howard: In regard to what Dr. Blaauw mentioned, I would state that I did use dead black on the apparatus, and painted the rods black so that the only white surface seen was the background, on which the light fell and came on the rods from behind.

As for the apparatus of Dr. Spearman, I have not had an opportunity to see a description of it. Three posts are mentioned, two side ones and another middle one. I wish I had time to show the advantage of two posts over three. It was posible to show that the man would project one rod nearer than the other, while the other was really the nearer. There were twenty-three who did it. If we had used three rods, that would have been impossible. There is no reason for one man's projecting one rod nearer than the other, while another does not. It is largely due to a difference in visual acuity. I found that there was a difference in this respect between the two eyes. In my opinion, it would be better to have 20/20 vision in each eye than 20/20 in one and 20/10 in the other; because I found that a man with a difference in acuity between the two eyes is a poor judge of distance in using the binocular parallax test. Of course, when it comes to the motion parallax, as Dr. Blaauw mentioned, that is a thing that is extraneous to the individual. The motion parallax helps us all alike on the outside.

As to taking time exposures or methods of recording time, to see how quickly they could do it, I would say that in a new apparatus that I tried to design, and which Bausch and Lomb are making, I have included a shutter for the purpose of recording the time. I might mention that the value of the shutter in the simple apparatus, I found, was so great that I decided that the reaction time ought to be gone into and some results obtained on that. In regard to what Dr. Verhoeff has said about the visual angle and judgment of distance: I tried ten men in two different ways with both eyes open, and with only one open; and I found that the difference between the two rods varied from thirteen millimeters when both eyes were open to over two hundred millimeters when only one eye was open.

Regarding Dr. Clark's apparatus, I would say that it has been impossible for me, in this paper, to go into the bibliography and discuss what I had read. My paper would have been too long. I hope at some time in the future to take up that side. I was interested in seeing Dr. Clark's apparatus, a few months ago. My principal criticisms, which I told him at the time, were that the test objects were superimposed. I proved that you cannot determine the difference of superimposed objects, unless you get into the realms of the visual angle.

The Maddox Rod Screen Test.

Captain Percival Dolman read a paper on the Maddox Rod Screen Test. This investigation of the Maddox rod test was undertaken at the Medical Research Laboratory because of the variable and inaccurate results obtained with it, in examining the eyes of aviators.

A review of the literature reveals many criticisms of the test which support the conclusions of the laboratory. These criticisms are based on (1) The inability of some patients to see the

line of light; (2) the tendency of the line and the light to fuse; (3) the instability of the lateral distance between the line and the light; and (4) the tendency of the test to show excessive esophoria.

These phenomena were analyzed and their influence on the accuracy of the test explained. The Maddox rod combined with the screen test, the rapid covering and exposing of the eye while using the Maddox rod, overcome these imperfections. It is, in addition, a simple test of great delicacy and accuracy.

Discussion: Dr. Alexander Duane, New York: I have found the cover test useful in this way, combined with the Maddox Rod test, and put the red glass in front of the eye before the prism is put on, and then suddenly take it off, and see whether the images coincide; and if not, repeat this test with another prism behind the screen, until they do.

Dr. John E. Weeks, New York: In regard to the eye before which the Maddox rod should be placed, we are dealing in special practice with eyes that are defective in vision. Frequently one sees less distinctly with one eye than with the other, and it has been my practice to use the Maddox rod over the eye with the more distinct vision; obtaining in that way the results in the quickest possible time.

Capt. Percival Dolman: There is no objection that I can see to coloring the light (that is, to placing the red glass) before the eye that sees the light. Dr. Maddox himself has advocated that procedure in making the test—that the glass be placed over one eye, and the intensity of the light modified in this way. It seems that in the experiments that I have made with the screen over the patient's eye, the color of the light has lost its importance; the only thing necessary being to have it of such intensity that it will not irritate the eye.

As to the choice of the eye before which the rod is placed, I am not prepared to go into that; but I might say that invariably the eye that has the better vision, if there is a wide difference between the visual acuity of the two eyes, would better be covered by the Maddox rod.

The Study of Dark-Adaptation.

Captain Percy W. Cobb, M. C., Mineola, L. I., N. Y., read by invitation a paper on this subject. Tests of retinal sensitivity made under daylight conditions would appear to be of little value to the aviator who is to undertake night flying. The increase in light sensitivity that takes place in the dark has been the subject of numerous studies in the past, while the rate of recovery after exposure to light has had less particular consideration.

It is found that individuals vary widely as to their ultimate sensitivity, and also with respect to the rate at which they recover. These two factors are not, however, interrelated. The individual whose ultimate sensitivity is high is as often of as slow recovery as the night blind, and vice versa. The rate being as three to one in the two cases, where the exposures were respectively fifteen seconds' and five minutes' duration. Some improve rapidly for a time, then stop and afterward go on again.

Second Day

To secure a room suitable for the exhibition of lantern slides a session of the Society was held on Sunday afternoon.

Migration of Eye in Flounders.

Dr. Lucien Howe, Buffalo, N.Y., exhibited specimens of the young flounder and diagrams showing how, soon after its hatching, it swims like other fishes, and has one eye on each side of the head. As it develops, one eye moves around to the other side of the head, or in some species seems to pass directly thru. This brings both eyes on the upper side when the fish comes to swim with one side up and the other directed down.

Aviation.

Dr. W. H. Wilmer, Washington, D. C., demonstrated a series of the U. S. Army air medical films, showing the training of aviators, the conditions

of flight and movements required for attack and escape, together with the appearance of objects seen from the airplane in different positions.

War Injuries of Lids and Plastic Operations.

Capt. John M. Wheeler, M. C., Ft. McHenry, Md., demonstrated certain types of these injuries and the procedures required for their repair, including notching of the lid associated with laceration thru the tarsus, which should generally be prevented by careful apposition of the parts immediately after injury. Laceration of the lower lid from the inner canthus downward and outward requires thoro removal of the scar, advancement sutures, anchorage of angle of flap in slight overcorrection, drainage, and thoro relaxation of the connecting parts. Laceration of the lower lid near the inner canthus requires the use of minute flaps carefully adjusted and anchored in the connection. The bevel notch reducing overlapping of the flaps is of especial value for coloboma at the outer canthus. Subcutaneous grafts are used with anchorage of the conjunctiva and skin at the outer canthus for loss of upper lid. He showed outlines of operations of reconstruction of the lid and lid margin, dermic grafts were used for cicatricial ectropion. The danger of pedicle grafts is that they are liable to contract, causing increase of the deformity.

Multiple Vaccination of Eyelids.

Dr. Arthur J. Bedell, Albany, N. Y., read a paper to be published in full in this Journal.

Discussion. Dr. Lewis S. Taylor, Wilkes-Barre: When we consider the lack of care given by many people to the vaccinated arm, and the liability of children to scratch the sore and then rub their eyes with the unwashed hands, it is surprising that more cases of vaccination in the eyes have not occurred.

In a somewhat large experience, extending over many years, I have seen but one case of this trouble. A number of years ago, I was called in consultation to see a child of about five years of age, with what we believed to be a genuine case of revaccination. He had a very much swollen and irritated lower lid, with some discharge; and inflammation involving the lower part of the cornea was present. He was sleeping in the same bed with his sister, and both children had been vaccinated, some time before. The boy, either from his own sore or from that of his sister, had been vaccinated on the eyelid; and there appeared this typical sore on the lower lid; the general condition being the same as Dr. Bedell has described. The case ran a typical course, and the child recovered without any ill effects.

If this condition had been in an adult, we might have thought at once of an initial lesion; as it resembled a chancre. But, there was the history of vaccination, with the still unrecovered sore; and I think that there was no doubt about the diagnosis.

Keratitis Profunda (Or Disciformis?), With Microscopic Examination.

Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston, presented this as the first case of keratitis profunda reported in which the entire eye has been examined microscopically, and the second case of neuropathic keratitis of any kind, uncomplicated by infection, in which such examination has been made.

He concluded that disciform keratitis may be produced by a variety of causes, and from an etiologic standpoint is therefore not an entity. Certain cases of disciform keratitis are of the same nature as keratitis profunda.

The corneal changes in keratitis profunda are due to the action of diffusible toxic substances arising at or near the anterior surface. The changes consist in alteration of the epithelium, destruction of the corneal corpuscles, and injury to the stroma in the anterior layers of the cornea, and proliferation of the corneal corpuscles behind and around the injured area. In addition, there is injury to, or destruction of, the endothelium, and in severe cases deposition of fibrin and leukocytes on Descemet's membrane behind the af-

fected area. Leukocytic infiltration of the corneal stroma is conspicuously absent.

The microscopic findings in the present case strongly indicated a neuropathic origin for keratitis profunda.

Discussion. Dr. William Zentmayer, Philadelphia: I just want to speak of one point. My recollection is that Dr. Blaauw exhibited a case that had been historically studied, and in which the experimental work had been done by a Dutch clinician. The case was published, about a year ago, in the American Journal of Ophthalmology. (v. 1, p. 267). It was similar to Dr. Verhoeff's in histologic findings on the posterior surface of the cornea. There was secondary infection in the case, and the original eye could not be studied to find the original pathology of disciform keratitis; but the experimental work showed very much the same conditions.

Dr. E. V. L. Brown, Chicago: This may very well be on a neuropathic basis, but the picture here recalls the picture that we have in ring abscess, in which there is an equally characteristic zone of necrosis, which may be produced by the injection of organisms into any part of the anterior chamber. That is on a strictly bacteriologic basis; and altho this may be on a neuropathic basis, I do not see why we should assume it from the findings.

Dr. John E. Weeks: I want to ask Dr. Verhoeff if he would give to all reported cases the same classification? I should also like to ask whether the white dots that we see deep in the cornea in disciform keratitis were present in this case? I have seen many cases of herpes zoster with affections of the cornea, but I have never seen disciform keratitis associated with herpes zoster.

The neuropathic findings in many of these conditions cannot, it seems to me, obtain in those cases in which, by means of aseptic measures, the condition is corrected, or recovery takes place rapidly; as in certain cases, at least, of disciform keratitis. This was brought out in discussion, a year or so ago, when I presented a paper before the Ophthalmic Section of the American Medical Association.

Dr. Ryuzo Nodama, Tokaku, Japan, called attention to a paper he had written on experiments concerning the transmission of iodin into the aqueous chamber following the intravenous injection of potassium iodid, in which similar lesions were presented.

Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston: In regard to Dr. Brown's suggestion as to an analogy between the condition I have described and ring abscess, I would say that there was not any in this case. In ring abscess the trouble is evidently due to toxins coming from behind; and as the term indicates, the condition is an abscess. The ring is due to a dense collection of pus cells, and it is evident that the toxins come from behind; because the injury is from behind, while in this condition the injury is in front. The tissues were destroyed in front. The toxins were not able to kill the cells; but they were working from the anterior layer of the cornea, and not from behind.

In regard to the cases that Dr. Nodama speaks of, I would say that I did not run across that. I should like to have seen it. I am interested to find that such conditions could be produced experimentally.

In connection with what Dr. Weeks said, I would state that in speaking of these different conditions of disciform opacity, I did not mean to imply that all these cases would come under what Fuchs calls disciform keratitis; but simply to indicate that they had the appearance, which makes it likely that the picture that Fuchs described could be subdivided still further.

In regard to herpes zoster, Fuchs noted that it is followed by keratitis profunda and disciformis. I have seen disciform keratitis follow herpes zoster.

Ophthalmic Zoster, Retrobulbar Neuritis, Acute Glaucoma.

Dr. Clarence A. Veasey, Spokane, Wash., reported two cases of herpes zoster ophthalmicus with unusual complications.

Case 1. A woman with right ophthalmic zoster, on the seventh day of the attack lost the vision of her right eye except a small part of the upper field. The blindness had spread from the center of the field, and the next day the whole field was abolished without ophthalmoscopic changes. The cornea was not involved. A month later the peripheral field was restored. V.= fingers at two feet. But the optic nerve was now pale and atrophic, and later all vision was lost.

Case 2. A man, aged 30, came with a history of an herpetic attack on the right forehead two weeks before. V. =R. 1/45, L. 6/5. The cornea was hazy, pupil dilated and immobile. Tension 35 mm. The tension became normal in a few days under pilocarpin, hot compresses and a purge; and the patient disappeared.

Discussion. Dr. Arnold Knapp, New York. The association of glaucoma and herpes is interesting, and leads to speculation as to the possible function of the ciliary ganglia. During the past winter, I observed a case that explained the condition as a variety of cyclitis. A woman of fifty-five years developed high tension after herpes zoster—a tension of between fifty and sixty. Under the use of pilocarpin, this tension was reduced; and the attack passed off. During the next six weeks, the eye was quiet; except that three definite corneal deposits could be discovered. That shows that this increased tension from herpes is merely cyclitis, due probably to the same toxic organism as the herpes. This patient, four to six months later, developed marginal ulcers of the cornea, for which a mydriatic was given. I had feared to do this, but did so without causing a return of the glaucomatous manifestations.

Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia: I have seen several cases of acute rise in intraocular tension associated with herpes zoster. I will refer to two of them, along the line of what Dr. Knapp has just described. In the first case, there was a curiously produced herpes zoster ophthalmicus, unassociated with any corneal lesion, and also a little conjunctivitis. On the third day after pronounced opalescence of the lens, there appeared a very pronounced rise of tension, and a rather deeper anterior chamber than one would have expected. This condition disappeared under the influence of miotics. Following this, there appeared a stage of slight ciliary flush. It was a very important case; and I spent anxious nights because I did not know whether to use a mydriatic or not. But finally, I did so without producing a rise of tension. The ultimate result was good; but, in association with what Dr. Veasey has said, curiously enough, there was a localized patch of atrophy of the optic nerve, with a corresponding defect of vision—altho the central vision is good. I do not know what could have produced it. Perhaps it may have been due to some alteration in the vascular supply, as in many cases of arteriosclerosis.

The second case is one of a more common kind. Following a small herpetic ulcer of the cornea, which yielded to ordinary treatment, the patient recovered entirely, with normal vision, normal fundus, and no ophthalmoscopic changes; but developed, some weeks later, a persistent rise in tension, which always yielded to miotics, but always reproduced itself on the cessation of their use. There never was any fault in the field of vision, and never any reduction of the central visual acuity, as long as the miotics were used; but prompt return of tension on their cessation. Ultimately (the case was one that I saw with a colleague) the patient was cured by iridectomy or some such procedure.

I think that Dr. Knapp has correctly stated the pathology of these cases of rise of tension, in that there may be an iridocyclitis, either with or without corneal complication.

Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston: In connection with the ocular complications of herpes zoster, a patient I had about eight years ago, had a slight iridocyclitis and slight opacities in the vitreous. These cleared up, and I noted that she had a typical unilateral Argyll-Robertson pupil. She had a negative Wasser-

mann reaction, and no signs of tabes or other syphilitic disease. She has remained in perfect health ever since; but the Argyll-Robertson pupil persists unchanged. The pupil on the other side is absolutely normal in its reactions.

This case strongly supports the view that the Argyll-Robertson pupil is due to a lesion of the ciliary ganglion. As it is unilateral, it is almost impossible for it to be due to anything else. In herpes zoster, you sometimes get motor paralysis in other motor nerves; and, as an explanation of the process, it is easy to see how the ciliary ganglion could be attacked. I feel very strongly that the condition of the pupil is due to lesion of the ciliary ganglion.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston: Speaking of glaucoma in herpes zoster ophthalmicus, it has been my custom to carefully try the tension in all these cases, because of past experience. I have had one case of bilateral herpes—the only case that I have seen in which an absolutely positive diagnosis of this condition was made. In that case, there was increased tension, in spite of all treatment; and the eye had to come to enucleation. In the other eye the tension was reduced with miotics. But for several years afterwards, the patient had repeated attacks of herpes of the cornea, with increased tension, relieved by miotics. Finally at eighty years of age, the patient lost the other eye, following an attack of herpes of the cornea that became infected. The eye sloughed and was destroyed.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus: The points that Dr. de Schweinitz brought out are extremely important from the practical point of view. I have now under treatment a man who had a typical case of herpes zoster, in which we found a positive Wassermann. He had been under treatment for weeks and months for glaucoma. The herpes was recognized, and he had increased tension. He was under the active use of eserin by his oculist, and his case was going to the bad. He had iridocyclitis in connection with the glaucoma. I judged it was well to try a mydriatic in place of the miotic. The specific condition underlying it required treatment also. He had relief immediately, when put under full mydriasis, and cycloplegia.

The important question in therapeutics here is, how we shall determine, as quickly as possible, when to discontinue miotics in cases of what you might call symptomatic glaucoma. I am coming to the conclusion that a very large number of cases of increased tension are to be traced to the localized or immediate effect of the difficulties in the filtration angle, but are not at all true glaucoma, which will resent the use of atropin. In other words, I think that when glaucomatous symptoms arise in the course of other diseases of the eye these may be treated immediately with impunity by means of a mydriatic or cycloplegic, if we can assure ourselves that we are not dealing with a true case of idiopathic glaucoma.

Dr. Robert S. Lamb, Washington: I have noted, in connection with increased intraocular tension, not only with herpes, but also with some other conditions of allied character, that there is a suggestion of what I have called a funnel-iris. The appearance of depth in the anterior chamber seems to be associated with a narrowing down; and the iris seems to recede towards the pupillary margin. In these cases, I have found invariably that I can use a mydriatic without damage. I think they are probably due to an iridocyclitis.

Dr. W. R. Parker, Detroit: I wish to place on record glaucoma occurring in a case of herpes of the brow and side of the face, in which there was a decided increase in tension. The tension was not determined by the tonometer, but estimated by the fingers merely; but it must have been about plus two or three. There was no question of the increase in tension, with the other symptoms that go with it. I persisted in the use of eserin, and was not a little worried about the course that the case was taking. It was only after the tension had been reduced, altho not quite to normal, that I ventured to put in atropin. Within a comparatively short time after this had been done, the tension began to return to normal; and it remained normal. There was in this case, also, distinct

evidence of low-grade iridocyclitis. The relation of the two, at the time, did not occur to me. I think that it would have been better in this case if the atropin had been used earlier.

Dr. Hiram Woods, Baltimore: In a recent number of the American Journal of Ophthalmology, someone made a distinction between symptomatic hypertension and glaucoma. It seems to be confirmed by the observations that have been made. I want to add one more.

I had a case that bothered the life out of me while it lasted, in a lady with a definite herpes zoster ophthalmicus, who, after a few days, developed pretty typical symptoms of iridocyclitis. The tension was 35 to 38—just enough up to alarm me. As soon as the miotic was used, one-tenth of a grain of eserin and of pilocarpin to the ounce, her pain was increased. I began with a weak solution of homatropin; and under atropin, taking the tension carefully as the stronger mydriatic was used, the tension gradually came down. It was evidently a case of secondary iridocyclitis.

This introduces an important subject, when does atropin do good, in spite of apparent hypertension? There are cases of that kind. This woman, in the course of her eye trouble, developed suddenly a flare up of an old chronic appendix. Dr. Finney was called in and operated. Within four days, her eyes cleared up, and have remained normal ever since.

Dr. John E. Weeks, New York City: Inflammation or irritation of the iris produces a change in the character of the aqueous humor, whether following operation or following disease; and in certain cases this change in the aqueous includes elements that will not pass readily thru Fontana's space. In those cases, we are apt to get the result of tension. We all know, also, that in herpes zoster ophthalmicus, the iris is affected; and in some cases, the ciliary body, whenever the cornea is affected; and it is possible that the iris and the ciliary body may be affected when the cornea is not affected. Consequently, a rise in tension in these cases is easily explained on this hypothesis. The change in the aqueous has been definitely proved.

The use of miotics or of mydriatics in these cases may be resorted to in a tentative way. I have frequently seen that a mydriatic in these cases would produce a more beneficial effect than a miotic; but the reverse is also true. In certain of these cases, the patient must come to operation; because probably, in addition to this interference on the part of the changed aqueous humor, there is a condition that tends to keep up the intraocular tension. There were two cases that came to operation in my service. One case was referred to me by Dr. Cutler, who observed it for some time before asking me to take charge of it. Altho in many cases we may greatly relieve the condition by the use of miotics or mydriatics, in a certain small percentage operation must be undertaken.

Dr. Lee M. Francis, Buffalo: On this question of the use of miotics with cycloplegics in increasing tension, it seems to me that we are forgetting, for the moment, at least, the information that the corneal loupe can give us. If there is a deposit in Descemet's membrane, it seems to me that this instrument will decide whether or not we can use atropin. In the presence of a deposit on this membrane, even tho only one or two spots, the use of a cycloplegic is clearly indicated.

(To be continued.)

ABSTRACTS

René Onfray. Retinitis in Diabetes.
[Ann. d'Ocul., v. 155, p. 533.]

The author discusses this in an article of 37 pages, containing a table epitomizing 24 cases. There are, also, three figures showing graphically (1) the relation between arterial tension and diabetic retinitis, (2) the relation between uremia and diabetic retinitis, and, (3) the relation between the "constant" of urea secretion and diabetic retinitis.

He discusses the subject under three heads. (1). Arterial Tension and Diabetic Retinitis. Hemorrhages are found either as discrete, punctiform lesions or as red areas; or as profuse hemorrhages invading the vitreous and even culminating in glaucoma or detachment of the retina. This symptom would indicate a hypertension. In some patients, appropriate diet reduced the tension, but in others it was only partly reduced, or even increased further.

(2). Renal Function and Diabetic Retinitis. Ten patients had albuminuria, 4 of whom had about 1 gm. to the liter, but the amount varied. There was hyperviscosity in 2 cases, blood in 9 cases, normal in 4, and hypoviscosity in 2 cases. As a rule the hypertension and hyperviscosity were associated. Edema was found in only two cases. Uremia. In 20 cases examined the amount of urea in a liter of blood serum was, 10 cases, less than 0.5 gm.; 4, between 0.5 and 0.7; 3, between 0.7 and 0.9; 3, one gram or over. The initial urea-secretory constant, determined according to Ambard's method, is a fairly good prognostic method, most of the cases with good or medium constant surviving the retinitis for a long time; at least one case lived 7 years after the retinitis appeared.

(3). Clinical Character of Diabetes Complicated by Retinitis. Since diabetes exists often for a long time without being suspected, it is impossible to say at what stage of the disease the retinitis appears. But in 22 cases, the interval between the recognition of the glycosuria and the retinitis varied from 0 to 28 years, the majority being from 3 to 9 years.

No conclusion could be drawn as to the relation of malnutrition and retinitis as most of the author's cases were not accompanied by loss of weight. The presence of the diabetes indicates nothing as to acidosis, since most of the patients lived a long time after the retinitis appeared. Aside from the fairly constant association of diabetes with hypertension and with nephritis, one case developed in a gouty patient and two followed trauma. In regard to the vital prognosis, only 7 cases have been followed since 1911, of whom 3 died in 2 years and 4 still survive.

As to the pathogenic problems of diabetic retinitis, the hemorrhages are due either to the state of the blood vessels, or transient hypertension or condition of the blood. The white areas are objectively of three kinds: (a) preretinal cicatricial bridges, resulting from a cicatricial sclerosis of the peripheral layers of the vitreous, (b) polycyclic plaques, due probably to unabsorbed serous products, altered by toxic changes in the blood, (c) brilliant white spots, either isolated or in plaques, probably due to fatty deposits.

Retinal lesions of diabetics bear upon general therapy thus: (a) For diabetes without hypertension or renal insufficiency, give only as much carbohydrates as the patient can assimilate, considering the amount of nourishment furnished by the proteids and fats. Small amounts of fluids are to be taken at a time. The appearance of retinitis indicates an alimentation reduction cure. (b) For diabetes with hypertension, to the above should be added treatment directed against the hypertension. (c) In diabetes with uremia two contradictory treatments are indicated, a hypernitrogenous for the diabetes, and a hyponitrogenous for the nephritis. The greatest care is necessary in these cases in regulating the diet.

C. L

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THE ARMY OPHTHALMIC SURGEON

This caption is in truth a bit misleading, for tho the commissioned medical officers in charge of, or working in ophthalmology are denominated surgeons, the opportunity for purely surgical work in proportion to the cases encountered has been much more limited than in other branches of surgical practice.

In the beginning his rôle was eminently that of a diagnostician, for the elimination of the unfit from the vast army of four million men. In this capacity his opportunities were indeed great for the examination of many rare chronic diseases and congenital defects. Often these were of such a character, happening, as they did, in the young, active and presumably healthy men, that the subjects themselves were unaware of their defects, and superficial examinations, even such as would be ordinarily conducted by a general physician, would not reveal the disability or disease.

Later, the exigencies of the work to which embryonic soldiers were put brought out symptoms such as weak vision and asthenopia, for which they applied for treatment. Here, too, the army oculist came into a great work as a diagnostician. Here may be especially noted the existence of a comparatively large number of cases of retinitis pigmentosa, of unexpected fundus lesions diagnostic of syphilis and tuberculosis, rare forms and bizarre types of congenital anomalies;—some of them great rarities in private practice.

It is as consultant that the oculist is of prime importance in actual medical work in the army hospital. Certainly, aside from cases directly diagnosed and referred by him in routine work, the diagnosis of syphilis, renal disease, diabetes, the nervous and the so-called rheumatic diseases, and some forms of chronic infections, has proven of great value. To fill such a position as it should be filled necessitates a wide knowledge of general medicine and surgical diseases.

As sanitary inspector and engineer, the ophthalmologist has seen to the lighting, the care of the eyes, and the prophylaxis when called upon to do so.

As statistician he has learned how to keep proper case records and to make succinct reports. In this office the chiefs of the divisional units particularly have become experts with the fountain pen.

As in private practice, a very large portion of the routine work for the ophthalmic staff has been the measurement of refraction and the prescription of glasses;—for soldiers who had never worn glasses developed eye strain by reason of specific work in the army. Then, too, the officers and members of their families have largely taken advantage of the free service and special talent, the latter of which was not obtainable in the Regular Army.

It is as operating surgeon that the army oculist has been put into the background, especially in the cantonments and hospitals of America. For we have had young men as patients, selected after more or less rigid physical examinations, whose surgical eye affections are largely limited to trauma, pterygia, hordeola and occasionally strabismus.

Battle injuries to the eyes have received their first dressings abroad, and in some cases plastic operations have been performed before returning to America. Still at each large hospital and cantonment a certain number of such cases have filtered thru, giving chances for observation and for such work, particularly secondary operations, as after an eyeball has been removed for injury. For instance, we have had six such cases at Camp Lewis, American Lake, Washington—truly a small number and only to be compared with a one-man surgical practice.

As only a moiety of soldier patients are old enough to have developed cataract, glaucoma or other diseases of elderly people, this class of operations has been conspicuous by its absence.

All of this is in contrast to the work of the Ear, Nose and Throat sections, for the diseases incident to these parts of the head are those of young people. Hence the vast number of tonsillectomies, of sinus cases, of deformities of the nasal septum and of mastoid operations that have been seen in this part of our practice.

On the whole, the oculist of the army has been the eyes of the medical service, and this is his chief function. Certainly he has himself greatly benefited by this training, by a widening of his medical views and by his association not only with the medical officers but with those of the line and with the personnel,—all of which will be of great value on his return to civil practice. —H. V. W.

SOME QUESTIONS OF PRIORITY IN THE LITERATURE OF SYMPATHETIC OPHTHALMIA

An interesting misconception as to the date of Mackenzie's most important publication has been handed down from father to son after the familiar manner of bibliographers. The date of Mackenzie's first description of sympathetic ophthalmia, as given by de Wecker in the first edition of Graefe-Saemisch, and by Randolph in Norris' and Oliver's system, is 1844. This, however, is merely the date of the first French translation of the third London edition. Schirmer, in his monograph in the second edition of the Graefe-Saemisch Handbuch, erroneously gives the date of the third edition as 1839; and further errs in stating that the classic description first appeared in the edition of 1835. Even the mighty Hirschberg falls for this tradition, and refers to the date as 1844, "or better, 1835."

The fact is that Mackenzie's first edition of 1830, under the head of "Traumatic Ophthalmiae," p. 30, says: "We sometimes meet with severe sympathetic inflammation in the eye which has not received the injury." This is all in this edition. In the edition of 1835, p. 560, he says: "We sometimes meet with severe sympathetic inflammation in the eye which has not received the injury, especially in subjects of scrofulous constitution. For instance, a patient applied at the Glasgow Eye In-

firmary with severe iritis in the right eye, brought on in consequence of an accidental and destructive laceration of the left." This is also under the heading "Traumatic Ophthalmiae," and is all that this edition contains on the subject. In the edition of 1840, for which Mackenzie wrote the preface in October, 1839, there first appears, pp. 523 to 534, the name "Sympathetic Ophthalmia," followed by the classic account of the disease which is so commonly quoted.

The edition of 1854, which I have seen in the American copy only, contains only a few changes, most of them unimportant and some of them for the worse. An example of the last is the change of title from Sympathetic Ophthalmia to "Reflex or Sympathetic Iritis." This is also true of the description of the mode of transmission, which Mackenzie made evidently under the increasing tendency to ascribe phlogogenic powers to reflex nervous impulses. In the 1840 edition he says: "It is extremely probable that the retina of the injured eye is in a state of inflammation, which is propagated along the corresponding optic nerve to the chiasma, and that thence *the inflammatory action* is reflected to the retina of the opposite eye, along its optic nerve. In the 1854 edition, the sentence is the same up to the word "chiasma"; the remainder being, "and that thence *the irritation which gives rise to inflammation* is reflected to the retina of the opposite eye, along its optic nerve." (Italics mine.)

From the standpoint of priority, the description given by Lawrence has not received sufficient attention. In his treatise on Diseases of the Eye, London, 1833, he gives four tolerably typical cases of sympathetic ophthalmia and says (p. 117): "When an eye has been lost by accident, the other often becomes diseased sooner or later, without any imprudence, or any external influence that would be injurious under ordinary circumstances. This kind of occurrence is so common that it is necessary to warn those who have lost an eye of their danger and to point out the necessary precautions for avoiding it. For this affection of the sound eye, if it is not noticed and properly treated in the early stage, often destroys sight. Its most common form is slow inflammation which may effect [*sic*] the iris, the retina or the internal tunics generally." This, with the case reports, is so far ahead of anything that had appeared up to the appearance of Mackenzie's third edition, that Lawrence easily takes second place among the pioneer students of sympathetic ophthalmia.

H. G.

CREDIT WHERE DUE

It should have been mentioned in our July number, in connection with the valuable paper of Lieut.-Col. Derby on the control of trachoma, that the illustrations that added materially to the clearness and interest of the article were based on photographs given to its author by Col. W. T. Lister, ophthalmic consultant of the British Expeditionary Forces. They actually represent British trachoma work in France, a knowledge of which became the basis of the effective work of Col. Derby and his colleagues in connection with the American Expeditionary Forces, when they had to face the same problems.

In this connection we wish to call attention not only to the extremely cordial relations that existed between British and American Ophthalmologists attached to the Expeditionary Forces; but also to the interest in and desire to render every assistance to the American Journal of Ophthalmology by ophthalmologists in every part of the British Empire. We hope that our readers everywhere will recognize the solid practical worth of the original articles appearing in the British Journal of Ophthalmology; and appreciate the splendid fight that is being made to sustain such an ophthalmic journal under the extremely difficult conditions now existing.

THE HIGH COST OF PUBLISHING

We have before alluded to the difficulties that now beset the publication of a high-class scientific journal. Recently one of the foremost American weeklies came out shorn of its advertising pages and much of its usual reading matter—less than one-quarter of its usual size—because of a "dispute between two factions of a labor union in the printing establishment which prints the magazine." Certain prominent publishing houses have proposed the suspension for several months of a large number of publications as the only way to bring about more stable and reasonable conditions.

Our last unpleasant surprise in this direction was an increase of 15 per cent in the cost of printing this journal, estimated on and added to the preceding similar increases, which became effective when notice of it was received last month. We have endeavored not to allow these difficulties to impair the quality or limit the size of this journal. If only the new year will show an increase of 15 per cent in the number of our subscribers, our success in meeting the high cost of publishing is assured.

Such an increase in our subscription list would only represent 10 per cent of the American ophthalmologists who need this journal but do not now subscribe for any journal published with regard to their specialty. It can be easily brought about by active propaganda on the part of our subscribers among acquaintances who do not take an ophthalmic journal. It is a rare opportunity to do missionary work in the profession, and at the same time improve the journal that you get each month.

BOOK NOTICES.

The Ophthalmoscope, A Manual for Students, by Gustavus Hartridge, F. R. C. S., London, Sixth Edition. 12mo, 160 pages, with 65 illustrations and four plates. Philadelphia, P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

A new edition of this work twenty-eight years after its first publication calls attention to the fact that no work of the kind has appeared in that time to supplant it. It gives a comparatively brief but clear account of its subject, is well illustrated, includes a good explanation of the anatomic significance of the appearances revealed by the ophthalmoscope and urges a good practical routine for using the instrument.

Two of the plates printed in fundus colors will be quite helpful to the student. The value of the other two is more open to question. It is rather surprising to find at this day no mention of the electric ophthalmoscope; and for a book to be read by American students, some account of the Loring ophthalmoscope would be more helpful than details regarding the Morton instrument, or that of Parent with cylindrical lenses. The latter was a novelty of some importance when the first edition was published, but is now of only historical interest.

The book is neatly printed and bound in a form to be readily carried in the pocket.

E. J.

BIOGRAPHIC SKETCHES

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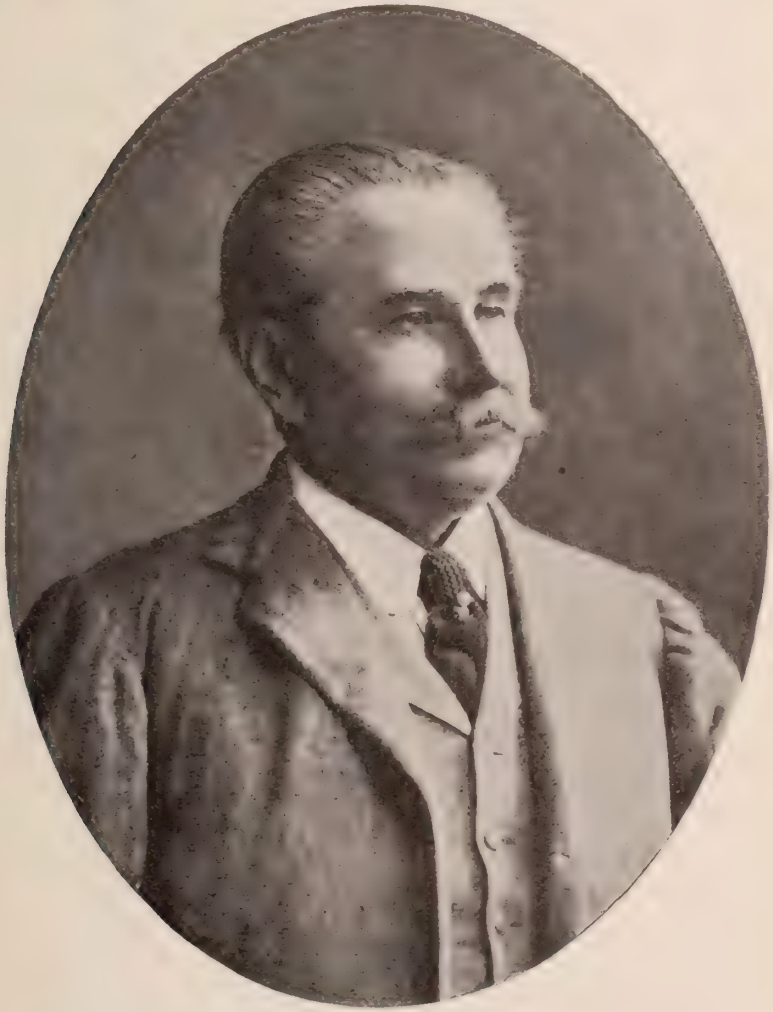
Superior, Wisconsin

Sir James Mackenzie Davidson, the English ophthalmologist, inventor of the cross-thread method of localizing foreign bodies by means of the X-rays, and the foremost radiologist of the United Kingdom, was born Dec. 6, 1856, at Estancia, Santo Domingo, Buenos Aires, son of John and Margaret Davidson. He received a liberal education at the Scotch School in that city. His medical training was had at Edinburgh, Aberdeen and London. His degrees in medicine and surgery (M. B. and C. M.) were received at Aberdeen in 1882.

For a time he was assistant in surgery at Aberdeen, but in 1886 succeeded Prof. Dyce Davidson as ophthalmic surgeon at the Aberdeen Royal Infirmary. This position he held till 1895. He was also ophthalmic surgeon to the Royal Infirmary and the

Royal Sick Children's Hospital, Physician to the Blind Asylum, etc.

In 1897 he removed to London, and from that time on devoted exclusive attention to the X-rays. He had, in fact, already, in 1896—the year after the rays were discovered—gone to Würzburg there to talk with Roentgen about his new discovery. In the July, 1897, number of the "Archives of the Roentgen Ray," he published a cut of a bladder stone radiograph, and from that time forward was one of the foremost workers in the world on the subject of radiography. He became consulting surgeon to the X-ray Department, Charing Cross Hospital; consulting surgeon in charge of X-ray Department, Moorfields; president of the Roentgen Society; president of the Radiology Section of the 17th International Medical Congress, 1913; a Fellow of the Physical Society, etc. For the last three years of the war, he was consulting radiologist to the military hospitals of the London district. He was knighted in 1912.



Sir James Mackenzie Davidson
1856-1919

Among his more important publications may be mentioned: "The Electric Light Applied to the Ophthalmo-

scope," Lancet, 1886; "Localization of Foreign Bodies in Eyeball and Orbit," Trans. IX Internat. Oph. Congress, Utrecht. Many of his articles appear in the Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom.

Sir James was a man of medium height and weight, with bright blue eyes, blonde mustache and hair and a very deliberate, courteous, kindly manner. All his associates were very devoted to him. He was a member of the Church of England.

In 1886 he married Georgiana, daughter of William Henderson, of Aberdeen. His abode was at 26 Park Crescent, Portland Place, W., London, where he died in April, 1919. A memorial service was held on April 7 at All Souls Church, Langham Place. The doctor is survived by Lady Davidson, a son, Mr. Colin Davidson, who is Mr. Bonar Law's private secretary, and a daughter, the wife of Dr. Bernard Potter of London.

Leonard George Guthrie. This well known London neurologist and pediatrist, who was for a time physician to the Western Ophthalmic Hospital, was born Feb. 7, 1858, the second son of Thos. Anstey, and Augusta Guthrie of Kensington. His education was received at King's College School, Magdalen College, Oxford, and St. Bartholomew Hospital, London. He was always deeply interested in ophthalmology, and was a close student of the ocular relations of neurology and pediatrics. He died on December 24, 1918, from injuries received in an accident on the previous day. He was a brother to Anstey Guthrie, author of "Vice Versa," "The Giant's Robe," etc., whose pen name is F. Anstey.

Charles H. Pixley, an optical expert, long with F. A. Hardy and Co., Chicago, was born in Millford, Michigan, Sept. 16, 1844. He invented and perfected the Hardy ophthalmometer, and other instruments, and wrote on optical subjects for the Hardy Messenger. For the last three years he had been an invalid, and died June 1, 1919.

Andrew J. Stewart, was born at Provo City, Utah, April 10, 1873, the oldest son of Andrew J., and Melissa Riggs, Stewart. For a time he was government surveyor, then school teacher, and, at length, a missionary to Germany from the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. He graduated from the business department of Brigham Young University in 1895, and, in 1900, from the normal department. Entering the College of Physicians and Surgeons at Baltimore, he there received his medical degree in 1904. He married Miss Rose Young of Provo City. For a time he practiced at Mt. Pleasant, Utah, but later removed to Provo, and paid especial attention to diseases of the eye, ear, nose and throat. He practiced there until his death, May 25th, 1919, of bronchopneumonia. At the time of his death he was president of the Utah County Medical Association.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS

Dr. Benjamin F. Church, Redlands, California, died in Los Angeles, September 2nd, at the age of 61.

Dr. Charles C. Kimball, Watertown, N. Y., died at his home, August 16th, from nephritis, aged 57.

Dr. Hatton I. Jessup, Philadelphia, aged 57, died at his home from pyelonephritis, September 3rd.

Dr. Francis R. Musser, Oakland, California, died August 26th, aged 59.

Dr. A. P. Van Schevensteen, of Anvers, Belgium, died April 21, 1919, aged 71.

PERSONALS

Dr. L. M. Hurd, of New York City, announces the removal of his office to 39 East 50th Street.

Dr. A. P. Knapp, of Vincennes, Indiana, has disposed of his eye and ear hospital.

Dr. William Zentmayer, of Philadelphia, returned on August 15th after six weeks at Lake Minnewaska, N. Y.

Dr. William Campbell Posey has returned to Philadelphia after a summer spent at Watch Hill, R. I.

Dr. L. Webster Fox, of Philadelphia, has returned after a six weeks' sojourn at Estes Park, Colorado.

Dr. W. B. Lancaster, of Boston, has been spending a few weeks in San Francisco and Palo Alto.

Dr. Charles A. Pfafflin, of Indianapolis, has returned from a month's stay at the Mayo Clinic, Rochester, Minn.

Dr. A. E. Bulson, has returned from a month's outing in the mountains of Montana.

Failing to comply with the Illinois state law requirements in reporting a case of sore eyes in a baby, is said to have resulted in Dr. Frank J. Zuehlke being fined twenty-five dollars and costs.

Dr. Nelson M. Black, late Senior Consultant in Ophthalmology, A. E. F., France, announces his return to civil practice in Milwaukee, continuing his partnership with Dr. Vernon A. Chapman.

The author of the Homer Smith operation for cataract has removed his offices from Norwich, N. Y. to 276 Madison Ave., New York City. Dr. Smith has been appointed Assistant Surgeon to the Knapp Memorial Hospital.

Dr. Adolph Barkan will relate his recent experiences in Europe to the Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat Section of the San Francisco County Medical Society, on September 23rd.

Dr. H. W. Eby, of Goshen, Ill., will be assisted in the practice of Ophthalmology by his sister, Miss Ida L. Eby, recently graduated from the College of Medicine and Surgery of the University of Illinois.

Dr. Charles B. Goulden has been appointed Ophthalmic Surgeon to the Victoria Hospital for Children at Chelsea, England; and M. L. Hines Opthalmic Surgeon to the Miller General Hospital, at Greenwich.

Dr. H. A. Brown, has been appointed Clinical Instructor, and Dr. W. H. Dudley, Assistant in Ophthalmic Surgery, at Stanford University Medical School.

The estate of the late Dr. Frank C. Todd, who died about a year ago while in service, amounted to $419,171.00; inheritance tax $10,-351.00.

Dr. S. Lewis Ziegler, of Philadelphia, has recently returned from Europe where he presented a communication on Artificial Pupil before the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress. He also visited the Queen's Hospital at Sidcup near London, where so much plastic surgery of the face has been performed by Major Gillies and others. In Paris he found the work of Poulard in ocular plastics and Lemaitre in nasal plastics very original and interesting.

Dr. George W. Jean, of New York City, has located at 1231 State Street, Santa Barbara, California. At the time Dr. Jean left New York City he held the position of Senior Assistant Surgeon in the eye department at the New York Eye and Ear Infirmary, with which institution he had been connected since 1909. He also was Attending Ophthalmologist to the medical department of New York University and a member of the New York Ophthalmological Society, etc.

MILITARY NOTES

A movement has been initiated by the committee of men blinded in battle to duplicate in Italy the reeducation of blinded soldiers now being carried on in France.

S. L. Thorpe, Capt., M. C., U. S. A., for the past year surgeon in charge of the Eye, Ear Nose and Throat department, Department Hospital, Manila, P. I., has been discharged from the service and has resumed practice at Clinton, Illinois.

The following have returned from Army service and resumed practice: Dr. Thomas H. Curtin, of New York (A. E. F.); Dr. August L. Beck, New Rochelle, N. Y., (A. E. F.); Dr. Ernest F. King, New York; Dr. H. V. Hubbard, Plainfield, New Jersey.

The Federal Board of Vocational Education will open a school at Vincennes, Indiana, to educate disabled soldiers in optometry and lens grinding. The municipal government will furnish classrooms while Vincennes will coöperate in instructing the pupils in mathematics and English. Only students with the equivalent of seven years' schooling will be admitted.

The Manhattan Eye, Ear and Throat Hospital has arranged a course of nine months beginning October first.

The Braille Music Club, composed of one hundred blind singers and musicians, gave a concert recently in Chicago.

A post of the American Legion composed of blinded members of the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps, has been formed with headquarters at Baltimore, and branches in other cities.

MISCELLANEOUS

The San Francisco Polyclinic and Post Graduate College will resume instruction in all the special branches of medicine and surgery on October 15th. This institution was closed as a teaching institution during the war.

According to a report issued by the American Red Cross, the abnormal number of Polish children born blind during the last three years in spite of healthy parentage, is due mainly to the malnutrition of mothers.

The Ophthalmic Seminar at the New York Post-Graduate College has attracted so many men during the last year that the course was continued during the summer months with a class of thirteen matriculates.

The Ohio State Department of Health has opened a campaign to rid Ohio of trachoma, which is especially prevalent in the counties bordering the Ohio River where the disease is believed to have spread from the mountain districts of Kentucky and West Virginia. An intensive campaign is to begin at once in Scioto County.

The Bulletin of the Belgian Ophthalmological Society is to appear twice a year; a number just issued being the first since 1914. It contains addresses by Dr. Van Duyse and a reply by Dr. Coppez, and mentions the names of members who have been taken from their midst since their last meeting: Homere C. Callaert, of the University of Gande, a victim of influenza in 1915, Rafael van Oye, in 1917, and F. Lacompte, of Gande, who died in 1918.

The Ministry of Health, London, announce that they have, after consultation with the Advisory Committee of the Welfare of the Blind, issued regulations under which, subject to the consent of Parliament, grants will be paid in aid of certain services carried on in behalf of the blind. These services include workshops, assistance to home workers, home teaching, homes and hostels, book production.

The Committee on Health and Sanitation of the Pennsylvania State Legislature has reported the amendment to the existing optometry law, so as to require a majority of the State Optometry Board of seven members to be physicians, licensed under the laws of the state and qualified to practice medicine and surgery, and that the other members of Board shall be optometrists.

At a recent conference in Leeds, England, of representatives of local authorities and other persons interested in the welfare of the blind in the North-East Division of the West Riding of Yorkshire Mr. William Harvey, who presided, estimated that there was a blind population in the district of 465, of which the majority was to be found in the Leeds area where workshops had been long carried on, and a complete system of visitation existed. The Leeds Education Committee had provided facilities for educating the blind in special schools. It was proposed to form a district committee consisting of one representative each from the West Riding Education Committee, the Leeds Education Committee, the Yorkshire Vagrancy Committee, and the several boards of guardians in the district, the Leeds Institution for the Blind and Deaf and Dumb, and the Leeds Branch of the National League of the Blind. On the proposal of a blind delegate present, it was agreed that blind people should comprise one-third of the membership of the committee. A resolution was passed urging the Government to expedite the payment of grants towards the care of the blind.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 318 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Wilson, J. A. Myopia. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 430.

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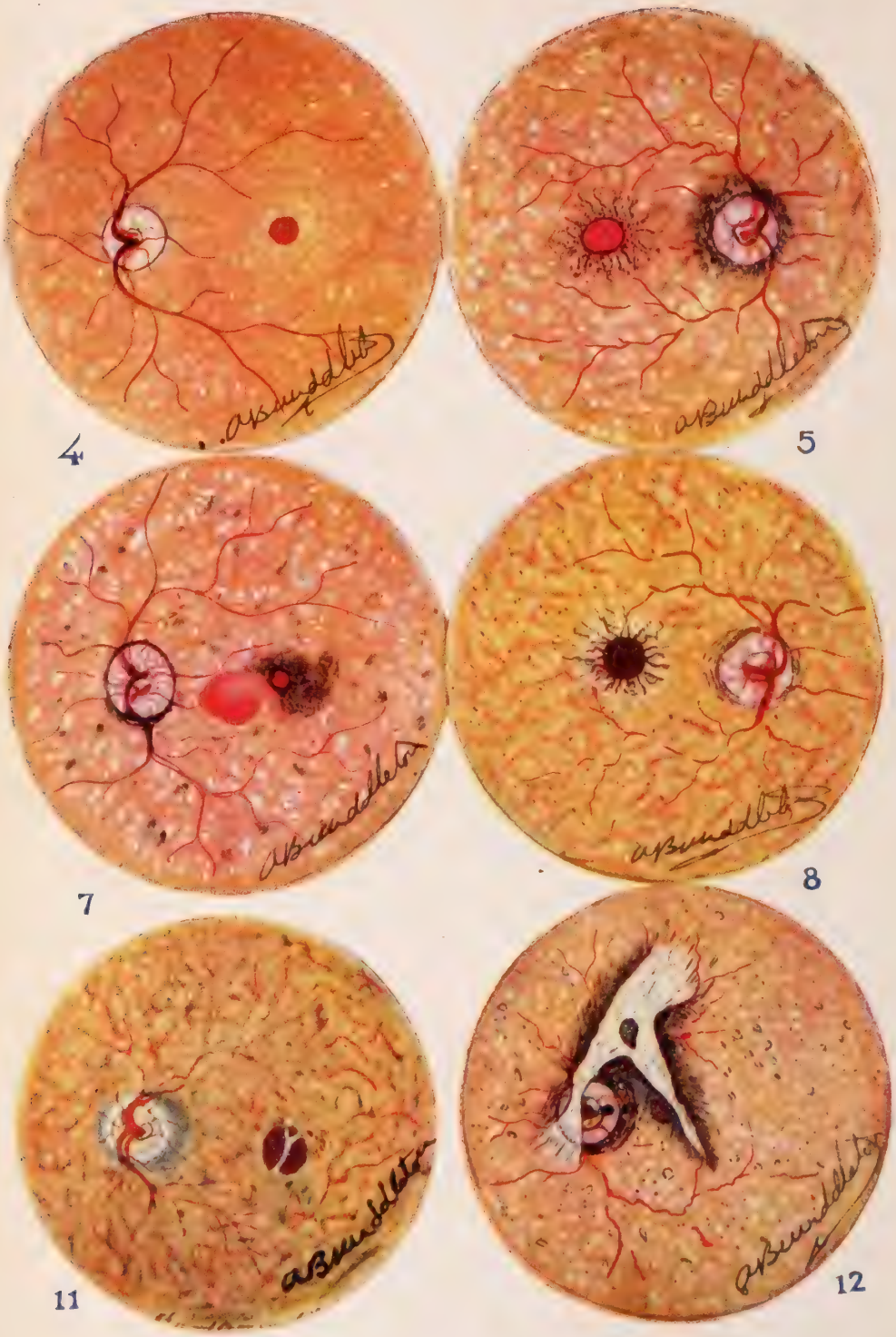
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MACULAR HOLE IN THE RETINA.

THE NUMBERS INDICATE THE CASES REPRESENTED

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MACULAR HOLE IN THE RETINA

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This paper reports 23 cases of so-called hole in the macula discovered in the examination of recruits, many of whom were suspected of malingering. These reports furnish the basis for a statistical study and indicate the frequency of a lesion heretofore supposed to be rare. Authority to publish granted by the Board of Publication, S. G. O.

Among the eye cases referred to the Special Medical Examining Board, U. S. Army, Camp Travis, Texas, during 1917 and 1918, out of 100,000 troops, twenty-three men had a hole in the retina at the macular region. Most of these men were inducted into the service as malingerers or fakers, endeavoring to avoid the draft, if possible, by claiming a dimness of vision in one eye.

The members of the local board, on inspection of the eyes, in cases of this kind find nothing abnormal, except a slightly dilated pupil. It often happens that some member of the board has known the applicant for years without being aware of the fact that the man has one defective eye; therefore the members of the board are perfectly honest in their opinion, and absolutely correct in their action when they induct such a man into the army. Many drafted men claim a dimness of vision in a normal eye to avoid the draft. All local boards have had this trick played upon them, and are to be complimented on not having taken any chances during the last few increments.

A retinal hole at the macular region is seldom seen in the practice of our busiest oculists, and is not frequent in our largest eye clinics. There are many suffering with a retinal hole at the macula, who do not know what is wrong with their weak eye, due to the fact that they have not had it examined by a doctor.

A hole in the retina, when located in the macular region, is a perfect circle as a rule, but is occasionally elliptical.

STATISTICS

Elliptical holes	4
Round holes	19
Light pink choroid	9
Dark pink choroid	14
Pigmented halo around hole	14
White exudate specks	13
White exudate specks, pigmented	8
White exudate specks, retina	10
Scotoma central	17
Scotoma of half of field	3
Pigmented choroid	12
Rupture choroid	7
Right eye	14
Left eye	9
Colored	13
White	10
Specific history	6
Scintillans	2
Detached retina	1
Dilated pupil	23
Light reaction retarded	23
Accommodation reaction retarded	23
Power of convergence reduced	23
Squint	1

In this series of cases are nineteen round retinal holes and four elliptical. The elliptical cases have a large retinal hole, the long axis of which is horizontal, as a rule, and if extended would strike the disc.

The small holes are perfectly round, due to the fact that they are contained within that portion of the retina, at the macular region, which is reduced in thickness. The retina increases in thickness from the fovea outward in all directions, offering an equal resistance

to a retinal tear, confining it to this particular area; thus the circular retinal hole.

If the accident is great enough to produce a retinal tear that extends thru the thick retina at the macular area, the retinal hole usually becomes elliptical in shape, following the line of least resistance, which, as a rule, is horizontal. This does not hold true in all cases, however, there being two in this series with large round retinal holes, but it holds true in all the elliptical cases. The fact that an occasional hole in the macular region is large and round may be due to a congenitally large area of thin retina at the macular region.

The color of the exposed choroid in the bottom of a retinal hole, at the macula, varies between a light and dark mottled cherry red, and has no diagnostic value. The cases being equally divided between light and dark. The light choroids are as frequent in the white as the negro, which proves the degree of pigment in the body has nothing to do with the amount of pigment in the choroid, when exposed at the macula thru a hole in the retina.

As a rule, there is a halo of pigment in the retinal hole that varies in density. In some cases the pigment deposit is nothing more than a thin sheen, while in others it is in radiating, crooked streaks, or densely deposited patches. Four cases of this series are entirely free from a deposit of pigment, giving a picture of an arterial retinal embolism, with the exception of many small white exudative specks, seem on the surface of the exposed choroid and the retina around the hole.

The small white exudative specks seen in the most of these cases, are nothing more than the remnants of a hemorrhage that took place, in the retina, at the time of the injury. Exudative white specks are free from pigmented margins in some of the cases. This is due to the fact that in certain cases the injury did not disturb the pigment layer, consequently the deposits are free from pigmented margins. In those cases where the pigmented layer is disturbed by the injury the exudative white specks have pigmented margins, giving them the appearance of a disseminated choroiditis.

A central scotoma is present in each uncomplicated case, the size of the scotoma and the retinal hole bearing some relation to each other, the largest retinal hole showing the largest central scotoma. Four of these cases are complicated with a rupture of the choroid on the temporal side of the macular retinal hole; the field of vision in each of these cases shows the nasal half dark. The right eye was injured in fourteen cases and the left in nine; while this number is not evenly divided, it is too small to make conclusions.

There is a much higher percentage of retinal holes at the macular region among the colored than the white. In this list of cases are thirteen colored and ten white. The fact that we had five times as many whites as colored, from whom these cases were referred, must not be forgotten, proving the percentage of colored would be much higher, if the troops were equally divided. The higher percentage of retinal holes at the macular region among the colored over the whites, does not necessarily mean that the colored have a weaker retina at the macular region than the whites. True the most of them have syphilis, more than one half the cases in this list admitting a positive specific history, yet there are several things we must consider, before we come to a positive conclusion.

The colored people are careless and take more risks with their eyes than the whites; fist fighting, the throwing of stones, sticks, etc. Most colored soldiers were inducted into the service regardless of their vision; while on the other hand, we are safe in saying that a certain percentage of whites, with a retinal hole, were rejected by their local boards on the strength of reduced vision, or intraocular examination, which reduced the percentage of whites.

Taking into consideration all the facts in these cases, the writer is of the opinion there is very little, if any, difference between the white and the

black race with regard to the percentage of retinal holes in the macular region, provided they were both given the same environment.

Every case in this list has a slightly dilated pupil, reacting slowly to light and accommodation, as well as a retarded power of convergence, which means nothing more than would be expected in any eye condition, with a dimness of vision, due to a central scotoma. The macular area of the retina being absent, prevents the transmission of enough light, centrally, to produce sufficient sympathetic action in the affected eye, to give it an equal pupil. The slow reaction to accommodation, is the result of the reduced central vision, which is also responsible for the slow power of convergence.

It is a remarkable fact that an injury great enough to cause a retinal hole in the macular region, seldom, if ever, causes a fluidity of the vitreous, dislocated lens, traumatic cataract, detached retina, or optic atrophy.

Cases

Case 1. Private W. J. M. (Col.), Res. Pan Handle, Texas. Ex. Sept. 1, 1918.

History. Was kicked over the left eye by a mule, twelve years ago; prior to the injury could see as well with one eye as the other; both eyes swelled shut following the accident, and could not open the eyelids for one week. The vision in the left eye slowly returned during the first month to its present strength, and has not given pain or trouble except the dullness of vision. Specific history.

Examination. Age 21 years; farmer; single. Vision R. 20/20; L. 20/200. Tension normal; left cornea clear and free from scars; aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting sluggishly to light and accommodation, power of convergence reduced. Lens normal, vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed elliptical area, the long axis of which is equal in length to the diameter of the disc. The position of the ellipse is such, if the axis was extended, it would strike the center of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole, is a light red raspberry color. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge, which is free from pigment. On the surface of the exposed choroid are many small white exudative specks, one millimeter each in diameter, free from pigmented margins, giving the surface a mottled appearance. Around the retinal hole is a thin halo of pigment, one fourth the disc diameter in width. On the pigmented retina are several exudative white specks, two millimeters each in diameter, with distinct pigmented margins. The vessels and disc are normal in color and shape. The choroid is free from rupture and choroiditis. Large central scotoma.

Case 2. Private W. B. (Col.) Age 28 years; farmer; single. Res. Grand View, Texas. Ex. July 18, 1919.

History. When sixteen years of age, was hit in the left eye with a stone, could see nothing but the light for months. Later the vision slowly returned to its present strength. Before the accident one eye was as good as the other, never consulted a doctor with regard to the eye, which has not given one moment's pain or trouble since the injury.

Examination. Vision R. 20/20; L. 10/200. The left cornea is clear and free from scars; aqueous humor clear. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits, pupil semidilated reacting slightly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced, lens normal, vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area, with a diameter equal to one-third the diameter of the disc. The exposed area of the choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red color. The distinct sharply cut retinal margin is a darker red. The exposed surface of the choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole, has six or eight white exudative dots, one millimeter each in diameter, giving this surface a mottled appearance; between these dots is a slight deposit of pigment. A pigmented area extends over the retina a distance equal to the diameter of the disc, with the retinal hole in its center. Over the pigmented area of the retina, are twenty or thirty white exudative specks, one millimeter each in diameter. The margins of

these specks are pigmented, very dark, giving the appearance of a choroiditis. In the non-fluid vitreous, between the disc and the retinal hole, are many cholesterin crystals. The vessels are normal. The disc is normal in shape and color. No signs of choroidal rupture or choroiditis. Large central scotoma.

Case 3. Private J. L. H. (Col.) Age 27; farmer; married. Res. Gillsborough, Texas. Ex. July 18, 1918.

History. Hit in the right eye with a baseball nine years ago; prior to injury the vision was as good in one eye as the other, at that time the eye swelled and was very painful, but has not given the slightest trouble since; the vision slowly returned to its present strength. Has not had eye examined by a doctor.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. The cornea of the right eye is clear and free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil semidilated reacting slowly to light; accommodation and convergence. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area of a dark cherry red color, the diameter equaling one-third the diameter of the disc. The distinct sharply cut retinal margin around the retinal hole is not of a darker color. There are no white specks on the surface of the exposed choroid, but there are a number of pigmented areas one half millimeter each in diameter, that give a mottled appearance to the bottom of the retinal hole. A halo of clear retina, two millimeters in width, surrounds the retinal hole, beyond this clear area is a pigmented halo one-half the disc diameter in width. In this pigmented area are many white exudative specks, two and three millimeters each in diameter, the margins of which are very black, giving the appearance of small patches of choroiditis, but are plainly seen resting on the retina. The vessels are normal, disc normal in shape and color; no signs of a rupture in the choroid, or choroiditis. Large central scotoma.

Case 4. Private M. K., Q. M. C., Camp Travis, Texas; age 29 years; smelter; married; Res. Pittsburg, Kans. Ex. October 4, 1918.

History. Was hit in the right eye with a ball fifteen years ago while playing at school; the eye became painful and was badly swollen for one week. Prior to the accident one eye was as good as the other, but since the injury the sight has remained at its present strength, and the eye gives no trouble other than dimness of vision.

Examination. Vision R. 20/20; L. 20/200. The examination of the left eye shows the cornea clear and free from scars, aqueous humor clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence reduced, lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area, with a diameter equal to one-third the diameter of the disk; the bottom of the depression is covered with exposed choroid of a light cherry color. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge which is not pigmented. There is an absence of pigment on the surface of the exposed choroid, the mottled appearance being due to a number of white exudative specks one millimeter each in diameter. The retina around the retinal hole is entirely free from pigment deposit, but there are a number of white exudative specks two millimeters each in diameter, forming a ring around the retinal hole about three millimeters from the retinal margin. The vessels normal, disc normal in color and shape. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. Large central scotoma. See Plate XVIII, No. 4.

Case 5. Private I. S. (Col.) Age 25 years; farmer; single; specific history; residence Quanah, Texas. Ex. August 22, 1918.

History. Was hit in the right eye with a clod ten years ago, could see as well out of one eye as the other before the injury; for several days following the accident, the eye was badly swollen and the lids could not be opened. For one month had only light perception, but later vision returned to present strength. The eye has not given any trouble other than a dimness of vision, and had not been examined by a doctor prior to entering the army.

Examination. Vision R. 20/200; L. 20/20. Examination of the right eye

shows the cornea clear and free from scars, aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupils slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence retarded, lens clear and normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed elliptical shaped area, the long axis of which is equal in length to three-fourths the diameter of the disc; this axis if extended toward the nose would strike the upper margin of the disc, the width is equal to one-half the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid in the bottom of the depression is of a light cherry red color. The margin of the retinal hole is a dark red color. The surface of the exposed choroid is free from pigment but is covered with many white exudative specks, one-half millimeter each in diameter, giving a mottled appearance. Radiating in all directions from the margin of the retinal hole for a distance equal to two-thirds the diameter of the disc is a stellate formation of pigment deposit on the retina, the pigment collected in crooked lines, resembling the legs of a bug. The vessels normal, disc normal in shape and color. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. An absence of white exudative specks outside of the retinal hole. Large central scotoma. See Plate XVIII, No. 5.

Case 6. Private C. T. (Col.) Age 22 years; farmer; single; specific history; Res. Taylor, Tex. Ex. July 16, 1918.

History. Was hit in the right eye with a baseball four years ago, prior to the accident one eye was as good as the other; following the injury the right eye was very painful for one week with only light perception; later the vision gradually returned to its present strength; and the eye has given no pain or discomfort other than the dimness of vision. The eye had not been examined by a doctor before entering the army.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. Examination of the right eye shows the cornea clear and free from scars, aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light and accommodation. Power of convergence retarded. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area, with a diameter equal to one-half the diameter of the disc; the exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red color. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge, which is slightly pigmented. A slightly pigmented area, the diameter equaling the whole area, is sprinkled with exudative white specks, one and two millimeters each in diameter. These white exudative specks have distinctly pigmented margins resembling small patches of choroiditis. The disc is normal in shape and color. Vessels normal. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. Large central scotoma.

Case 7. Private A. M. (Col.) Age 32 years; cook; married; Res. Houston, Texas. Ex. Aug. 29, 1918.

History. Hit in the left eye with a stick ten years ago; prior to this injury the vision was as good in one eye as in the other. The eye was painful and swollen for weeks following, but later the vision slowly returned to its present strength; tried to get glasses several times but never had the eye examined by a doctor. Four weeks ago was hit in the same eye with a bottle, after which could not see anything but the light until a few days ago. Specific history.

Examination. R. 20/20; L. 10/200. The left eye shows the cornea clear and free from scars; aqueous humor clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits that might suggest an old iritis. Pupil dilated, reacting slowly to light. External squint, absence of power of convergence and accommodation. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area with a diameter equaling one-fourth the diameter of the disc. The bottom of the depression is covered with exposed choroid, the surface of which is sprinkled with many small pigment spots, giving a mottled appearance. Around the retinal hole on the retinal surface is a halo of densely deposited pigment. In the densely pigmented area are several small specks of white exudate, one millimeter each in diameter, but there is an absence of these specks on the surface of the exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole. Between the retinal hole

and the disc is a light pinkish colored subhyaloid hemorrhage, about the size of the disc, resembling a duck turned wrong side up, with its neck extending directly below the center of the retinal hole. Between the subhyaloid hemorrhage and the disc is a fresh retinal hemorrhage four millimeters in diameter. The fresh and the subhyaloid hemorrhages are the results of the last injury, while the retinal hole is the result of the first accident. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. Disc normal in shape and color. Large central scotoma. Tension normal See Plate XVIII, No. 7.

Case 8. Private I. C. (Col.) Age 27 years; round house laborer; married; specific history. Ex. July 17, 1918.

History. Hit in the right eye with a stone seven years ago, prior to the injury could see as well out of one eye as the other; following the accident the eye was badly swollen and painful for several days; the vision gradually returning to its present strength. The right eye has not given one moment's trouble other than dimness of vision.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. The right cornea is clear and free from scars; aqueous humor clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence reduced, lens normal, vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area, with a diameter equal to three-fourths the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the depression is a dark cherry color. The distinct sharply cut retinal margin is much darker, due to a deposit of pigment, around the edge of the retinal hole. On the exposed choroid are a number of pigmented specks, two millimeters each in diameter, giving the surface a mottled appearance, resembling a ripe red raspberry. A halo, one-half the disc diameter in width, surrounds the retinal hole, made up of pigment deposits in streaks radiating from the outer margin of the retinal hole like the petals of a sunflower. Among the crooked pigmented streaks are many white exudative specks, one-half to two millimeters each in diameter. There is an absence of white exudative specks on the surface of the exposed choroid. Vessels normal. Choroid not ruptured and free from choroiditis. Large central scotoma. Tension normal. See Plate XVIII, No. 8.

Case 9. Private F. L. W., Co. F., 35th Infantry, age 24 years; farmer; single. Res. Springfield, Col. Ex. Nov. 18, 1918.

History. Hit in the right eye with a baseball fourteen years ago. Following the injury the eye was painful and badly swollen for two weeks. Prior to the injury the vision was as good in one eye as in the other. The eye has not given one moment's trouble, other than the reduction of vision. The sight in the right eye gradually returned to its present strength soon after the removal of the bandages following the accident.

Examination. Vision R. 20/200; L. 20/20. The right cornea is clear and free from scars; aqueous is clear; iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits; pupil semidilated, and reacts slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed elliptical area, the long axis of which is equal to one-half the diameter of the disc. This axis if continued would pass up and in to a point one disc diameter above the disc. The transverse diameter is equal to one-third the disc diameter. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the depression, is a dark cherry red color. On its surface are five pigmented specks, one millimeter each in diameter and seven white exudative specks of the same size, free from pigmented margins. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge with a darker color than the exposed choroid. Around the elliptical retinal hole is a halo three millimeters in width, of a light gray color, due to a detached retina, the outer margin of which is a trifle darker. Beyond the outer margin of the detached retina on the surface of the attached retina, completely surrounded by a halo, are some fifty small white exudative specks, two and three millimeters each in diameter, free from pigmented margins. In the vitreous, are five bright stationary scintillans, equally distributed.

Disc normal in shape and color. Choroid free from rupture and choroiditis. Vessels normal. Large central scotoma.

Case 10. Private H. I. H. Age 22 years; farmer; single. Res. Brice, Texas. Ex. Nov. 9, 1918.

History. Hit in the right eye with a piece of wire when seven years of age; does not remember the accident but has been told one eye was as good as the other before the accident. Has not had one moment's pain or trouble with the eye other than reduced vision.

Examination. Vision R. 20/200; L. 20/20. Tension of the right eye normal; cornea clear and free from deposit. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area the diameter of which is equal to one-third the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid in the retinal hole is a light pink color. The margin of the retinal hole is sharply cut and darker red. On the surface of the exposed choroid many small white exudative specks, one half millimeter each in diameter. Absence of pigment in the bottom of the retinal hole, but on the retina toward the disc side, of the retinal hole, is a mass of exudate, covered with densely deposited pigment, giving the appearance of an apple seed, extending slightly over the retinal hole, on the side toward the disc. Around the retinal hole, and the pigmented exudate is a light halo, giving the appearance of thin choroid two millimeters in width. Directly over this area are ten or twelve white exudative specks, one and two millimeters each in diameter, free from pigment deposits. Disc appears to be elliptical in shape but this is explained by the fact that there is corneal astigmatic error of three diopters. Vessels normal. Choroid free from rupture and choroiditis. The body is covered with a severe impetigo, that has been present since childhood. No specific history. Large central scotoma.

Case 11. Private G. L. (Col.) Age 22 years; farmer; single. Res. Beaumont, Texas. Ex. May, 1918.

History. Specific history. Hit in left eye when a baby two and one-half years old, causing the reduction of vision. Gives a history of several hard blows to the left eye, but claims the vision was poor in the left eye before they were received. Very little confidence is placed in the story of the injury claimed to have happened when a mere baby.

Examination. Vision R. 20/15; L. 20/200. Tension normal. Left eye cornea clear and free from scars; aqueous humor clear, iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence reduced. Lens normal; vitreous clear and not fluid. Below the macular region is a slightly depressed circular area, with a diameter equal to two-thirds the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red color, with considerable deposit of pigment, giving the mottled appearance of a red raspberry. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge, slightly darker than the exposed choroid. A rupture of the choroid extends across the bottom of the retinal hole. The rupture is vertical, extending to the retinal margins only, exposing a strip of sclera, forked at the upper one-fourth, one millimeter in width, and free from pigment deposit. This retinal hole is directly under the fovea centralis which is covered with a speck of white exudate two millimeters in diameter, free from pigment deposit. On both sides of the fovea centralis in the retina above the retinal hole, are remnants of a retinal hemorrhage of long standing, dark red in color. Vessels normal. Choroid free from ruptures outside of the retinal hole. No choroiditis. Large scotoma in the upper half of the field. See Plate XVIII, No. 11.

Case 12. Private M. S. (Col.) Res. Pledger, Texas. Ex. July 17, 1918.

History. Age 24 years; farmer; married; specific history; left eye has been poor all his life; does not remember having had it injured. Sight slowly left the eye without pain or trouble of any kind several years ago.

Examination. Vision R. 20/20; L. 20/200. Tension normal. The left cornea is clear and free from scars; aqueous

clear; iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At one-third the distance between the disc and the macular region, is a lightly depressed elliptical area, the long axis of which equals in length one-third the diameter of the disc, and if extended would pass up and in, at the angle of 10 o'clock. The transverse diameter equals one-fourth the disc diameter. The exposed cheroid in the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red. On the surface of the exposed choroid are seven white exudative specks, one-half millimeter each in diameter, free from pigment. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge, slightly pigmented, giving the appearance of a distinct ring. The macular area is normal, free from exudate and choroiditis. A triangular mass of gray exudate extends into the vitreous from the surface of the retina in the upper nasal quadrant of the fundus. Each end of the exudate at the base of the triangle is attached to the retina along a distance equal to one diameter of the disc. One attachment below the nasal side of the disc, the other above, slightly to the temporal side. The position of the exudate causing the base of the triangle is equal in length to five disc diameters. The anterior point of the triangle is equal in length to five disc diameters. The anterior point of the triangle extends forward thru the vitreous a distance equal to the length of the base. The arm of the triangle extending forward is contracted, giving the appearance of an icicle. Near the center of the triangular exudate, extending forward is a circular hole, with a diameter equal to one-fourth the diameter of the disc. Thru the hole in the exudate can be seen the black pigment deposit on the surface of the retina, under and around the base of the triangular exudate. The exudate is in front of the retinal vessels, but there are several small vessels on the surface of the exudate. A disseminated choroiditis, with its bone corpuscle appearing as patches, extends over the whole fundus. No rupture of the choroid. Disc normal in size and color except one pigmented spot three millimeters in diameter on the temporal side of the disc extending to the edge of the physiologic cup. Field of vision shows the temporal half dark. See Plate XVIII, No. 12.

Case 13. Private A. M. (Col.) Res. Grapeland, Texas. Ex. Aug. 1918.

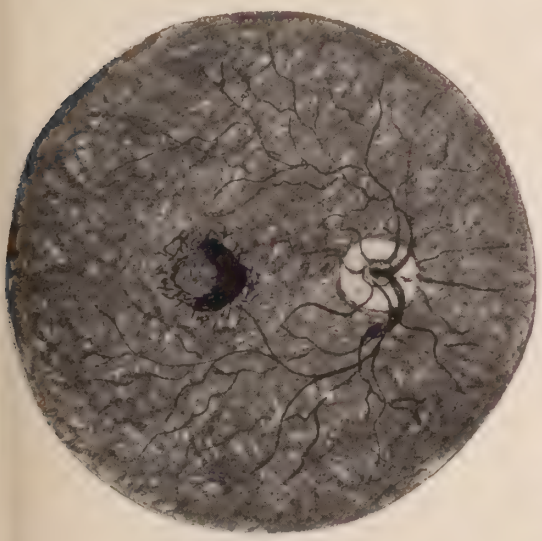
History. Age 24 years; married; farmer; specific history: two years ago hit in the right eye with a baseball; prior to the injury one eye was as good as the other. Following the accident the eye was painful and badly swollen for ten days; the sight gradually returning to its present strength; and has not given one moment's trouble, except the dimness of vision.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. Tension normal. The right cornea is clear and free from scars, aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil one-fourth dilated, reacting to light and accommodation slightly. Power of convergence greatly reduced. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region is a slightly depressed circular area, the diameter of which is equal to one-eighth the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a light pink color, free from pigment and white exudative specks. To the temporal side of the retinal hole, on the surface of the retina, is a crescentic shaped exudate, deeply pigmented, three millimeters in width, that extends one-half around the retinal hole; in this same case is a crescentic shaped pigment deposit, of the same width, but free from exudate, giving a gray color. Around the macular hole, in the pigmented area is a distinct halo of white exudate and pigmented streaks, two-thirds the disc diameter in length, radiating from the margin of the deeply pigmented area at the macular region, resembling a daisy, or the picture that is often seen in cases of albuminuric retinitis. Vessels are normal. Choroid free from rupture and choroiditis. Tension normal. Field of vision shows a large central scotoma. Disc normal in shape and color.

Case 14. Private O. A. C. (Col.) Res. McLannon, Texas. Ex. Aug. 9, 1918.

History. Age 27, 1918; farmer; married. Hit in the right eye when a child, with a stone. Cannot tell when the accident occurred, but remembers the eye was painful and swollen for a number of days. Prior to the injury could see as well out of one eye as the other. Since then the eye has not given one moment's trouble except the dimness of vision.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. Tension normal. Right cornea clear and free from scars; aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment de-



Case 14.

posits. Pupil slightly dilated and responds to light and accommodation sluggishly. Power of convergence slow. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area, the diameter of which is equal to one-half the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a light cherry red color. The surface of the choroid is free from pigment deposit, but is covered with small white exudative specks, one-half millimeter in width, extends one-half the circumference of the retinal hole on the nasal side; the temporal half of the circumference has a pigmented halo four millimeters in width, but much thinner. Absence of white exudative specks. Vessels are normal. Choroid free from rupture and choroiditis. Disc normal in shape and color. Large central scotoma.

Case 15. Private H. B. (Col.) Res. Nansota, Texas. Ex. Aug. 1, 1918.

History. Hit in the left eye with a bottle ten years ago; prior to the injury could see with one eye as well as the other; following the accident, eye was swollen and painful for two weeks. The vision returning to its present strength in a short time, and has not given one moment's trouble, except the dimness in vision. Did not have the eye examined by a doctor before entering the army.

Examination. Age 31 years; blacksmith; married; Vision R. 20/20; L. 10/200. Tension normal. Left cornea clear and free from scars. Aqueous clear; iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupil slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Lens normal; vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region is a slightly depressed circular area, the diameter equals one-third the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is of a dark cherry red color. On its surface are three white exudative specks one millimeter each in diameter, red from pigmented margins. No pigment deposit on the surface of the exposed choroid. Retinal margin has a sharply cut pigmented edge, making a distinct ring. Rupture of the choroid, crescentic in shape, two and three millimeters in width, four disc diameters in length, exposing the sclera. A pigmented margin of retina, four millimeters in width, on both sides of the rupture, extends vertically on the temporal side of the retinal hole, the center of the ruptured choroid opposite and separated from the temporal side of the retinal hole by a narrow band of retina, two millimeters in width. The concavity of the rupture is toward the disc. The exposed sclera is of a light gray color, due to thin pigmented exudate. Vessels are normal, crossing the rupture in several places at right angles, nonparallel with choroidal rupture. No choroiditis. Disc normal in shape and color. The field of vision shows the nasal half dark.

Case 16. Private C. D. (Col.) Res. Belton, Texas. Ex. Aug. 23, 1918.

History. Age 25 years; farmer, married; specific history. Hit in the right eye with a baseball seven years ago, prior to the accident one eye was as good as the other; following the injury the eye was painful and swollen for several days, but did not have the eye examined by a doctor. In a few days following the disappearance of the swelling, the vision returned to its present strength. The eye has not given one moment's trouble except the dimness of vision.

Examination. Tension normal. Cornea clear and free from scars; aqueous clear; iris free from adhesions and pigment deposits. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region is a circular area three millimeters in diameter, slightly depressed; the exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole being a very light pink color. The exposed choroidal surface is free from white exudate specks and pigment. Rupture of the choroid, crescentic in shape, one millimeter in width, three disc diameters in length, on the temporal side of the retinal hole, extending vertically exposing the sclera. The concave side of the crescent is toward the disc. The center of the crescent is opposite the retinal hole, and separated from it by a band of retina one millimeter in width. The retina is deeply pigmented for a distance of three millimeters on both sides of the choroidal rupture. Absence of white exudative specks on the retina. Vessels normal. Many arterial and venous branches crossing the choroidal rupture at right angles; none parallel with the rupture. Disc normal in size, shape and color. Large central scotoma.

Case 17. Private H. A. H. Ex. Aug. 5, 1918.

History. Age 22 years; married; no specific history; R. R. car man; hit in the right eye two years ago with a large piece of steel; following the accident the eye was very painful and swollen, requiring bandage for more than one week. Prior to the injury could see as well with one eye as the other. The vision slowly returned to its present strength and has not given one moment's trouble outside of the dimness of vision.

Examination. Vision R. 10/200; L. 20/20. Tension normal. Cornea clear but shows a faint central scar. Aqueous clear; iris free from adhesions and deposit of pigment. Pupil slightly dilated reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area four millimeters in diameter. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a light cherry color, free from white exudative specks and pigment deposits. The retina is pigmented slightly, a distance of one disc diameter in width completely around the retinal hole. This pigmented area is free from white exudative specks, but there is a very dense black deposit of pigment on three sides of the retinal hole, four millimeters in width on the upper, lower and nasal side. The densely pigmented retina on the nasal side of the retinal hole also extends toward the disc eight millimeters in length, giving the whole densely pigmented area the appearance of a lobster's claw, opened. Vessels normal. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. Disc normal in shape and color. Large central scotoma.

Case 18. Private J. F. R. (Mex.) Stockdale, Texas. Ex. August 29, 1918.

History. Hit in the left eye with a stick one year ago. Prior to the accident could see as well with one eye as the other; following the injury, suffered with considerable pain. The eye was badly swollen for several days, but did not consult a doctor. Vision slowly returned to its present strength and the eye has not given one moment's pain or trouble except the dimness of vision.

Examination. Tension normal. Cornea of the left eye clear and free from scars; aqueous clear, iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. The power of convergence reduced. Vitreous clear and not fluid. At the macular region there is a slightly depressed circular area three millimeters in diameter. The exposed chor-

oid at the bottom of the retinal hole is of a dark cherry red color; on its surface are two small circular white exudative specks, one millimeter in diameter with pigmented margins. The margin of the retinal hole has a sharply cut edge, slightly pigmented, giving it the appearance of a narrow ring. Extending down and toward the disc from the lower edge of the retinal hole, is a rupture of the choroid twelve millimeters in length and two millimeters in width, exposing the sclera. The tear is at an angle, with the macula, equal to four on the clock dial. On each side of the rupture is a deposit of pigment in the retina, the pigmented area extending beyond the retinal hole. The rupture does not continue into the retinal hole, but to a point within three millimeters. Vessels normal, some of the smaller vessels crossing the rupture at right angles, but none directly over, or parallel to, the tear. Disc normal in size and color. Large central scotoma.

Case 19. Private M. B. (Col.) Co. 5, 165 D. B. Ex. April 2, 1918.

History. Was struck in the right eye with a stone when eight years old and has not seen well out of the eye since. Before the injury could see as well out of one eye as the other. The eye has not given one moment's trouble since, never pains or gets red and inflamed. Has not had the eye examined by a doctor before entering the army. No specific or tubercular history.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Iris free from adhesion and pigment deposit. Pupil reacted slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence sluggish. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Disc normal in size and color. Vessels normal. No choroiditis or rupture of the choroid. At the macular region is a slightly depressed circular area. The diameter of the retinal hole is equal to one-third the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid is a dark cherry red color covered with a fine sprinkling of pigment. The margin of the retinal hole is sharply cut and slightly increased in pigment, giving the appearance of a ring. Around the retinal hole is a halo of pigment and white exudate equal to one disc diameter in width. The pigment is deposited in streaks radiating from the margin of the hole, with white exudate between the streaks, giving the appearance of a daisy. Field of vision shows a large central scotoma. R. 1/200; L. 20/20.

Case 20. Private A. V. Co. 6, 165 D. B. Ex. April 4, 1918.

History. Was shot behind the right eye when fourteen years old, the bullet did not strike the front part of the eye but went in at the side. At the time of the injury the eye was very painful

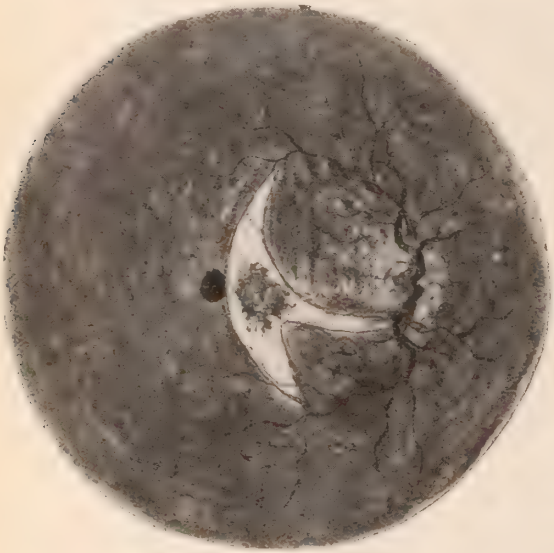


Case 19.

and blind. The sight slowly returned to the present strength. The eye has not given one moment's trouble other than the reduced vision.

Examination. Vision R. 20/100; L. 20/20. No specific or tubercular history. Farmer; 22 years old. No squint. Tension normal. Cornea of right eye clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep; aqueous clear. Pupil dilated, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Disc normal in size and color. At the macular region is a slightly depressed circular area the diameter equaling one-fourth the

diameter of the disc. The retinal margin is sharply cut and slightly pigmented, making a slight ring. The exposed surface of the choroid is a dark cherry red color, sprinkled with pigment resembling emery dust. On the temporal side of the hole is a bifurcated choroidal tear exposing the sclera. The edges of the tear are pigmented and separated two to three millimeters. On each side of the tear are two circular spots of choroiditis three millimeters each in diameter exposing the sclera. The tear is in the position of eight o'clock from the retinal



Case 21.

hole, the bifurcation toward the upper end. The length of the tear is three disc diameters, the bifurcation beginning near the center. Several vessels pass across the floor exposed by the tear. No white exudative specks. Field shows nasal half dark.

Case 21. Sgt. F. E. T., Co. C. 22, B. N. U. S. G. of Alston, Mass. Ex. Dec. 8, 1918.

History. Enlisted May 25, 1917, Ft. Slocum, N. Y. Single; waiter. Age 27 years. Hit with a stone May 28, 1918, while on rifle range at Sour Lake, Texas. Was in Camp Logan hospital 47 days. Prior to the accident one eye was as good as the other; following the injury the vision has continued to fail.

Examination. Vision R. 20/200; L. 20/20. No squint. Tension normal. Right cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep, aqueous clear. Pupil dilated reacting to light and accommodation slowly. Power of convergence sluggish. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Disc atrophic and elliptical, long axis vertical. The macular region shows a slightly depressed circular area, the diameter of which equals one-third the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red color, the surface covered with a fine emery dust like pigment. The margin of the retina is sharply cut and slightly pigmented, giving a ring effect. Between the retinal hole and the disc is a large choroidal tear filled with an exudate. The tear is a semicircular affair the concavity of the tear toward the disc, the center of the tear passing near the disc margin of the retinal hole. The tear is six disc diameters in length, at the widest point one disc diameter in width. Near the center of the tear is a bifurcation down and in toward the disc beginning near the retinal hole extending to the vessels directly below the disc. Between the disc and the margin of the choroidal rupture, is a torn choroid in a worm-like shape one millimeter wide connecting the disc and the tear. A gray pigmented exudate fills the tear in the center but at each end is absent, several vessels passing over the sclera. Field of vision not taken.

Case 22. Private N. W. (Col.) Co. 72, 165 D. B. Ex. May 9, 1918.

History. Hit in the left eye with a stone when fourteen years of age, the eye was badly swollen and bloodshot for two weeks following the accident. Prior to the injury one eye was as good as the other. The vision gradually returned to its present strength in the left eye, never giving the slightest trouble other than the reduction of vision. Never consulted a doctor or had the eye examined before entering the army.

Examination. No squint. Tension normal. Gives a specific history. Age 24 years. Single; farmer. Vision R. 20/70; L. 1/200. Left cornea clear and

free from scars. Anterior chamber deep. Aqueous clear. Pupil slightly dilated, reacting to light slowly. No reaction to accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Vessels normal. Disc normal in size and color, the macular region shows a slightly depressed circular area the diameter equaling one-half the disc diameter in length. The margin of the retinal hole is sharply cut and deeply pigmented giving the retinal margin an appearance of a distinct black ring. The surface of the exposed choroid is a dark cherry red color; is covered with a sprinkling of pigment resembling emery dust. An absence of pigmented deposit in the retina around the retinal hole as well as an absence of white exudative deposit spots. Directly below the center of the retinal hole is a rupture in the choroid extending down and in turning toward the disc making a semicircle, striking the lower border of the disc directly in the center. This rupture of the choroid follows one of the main branches of the inferior retinal vein. The rupture is five millimeters wide, exposing sclera in the center of the rupture, parallel with the long axis is a retinal vein. The rupture is not continuous from the hole in the retina to the disc; one-half the distance between the disc and the hole is an isthmus of healthy retina and choroid four millimeters in width, this point corresponds with a bifurcation of the vein. Slight pigment deposit along the line of rupture in the retina and a slight deposit smeared over the exposed sclera. Field of vision not taken. No choroiditis.

Case 23. Private G. S. (Col.) Co. 71, 165 D. B. Ex. May 9, 1918.

History. When a child six years old was hit in the left eye with a stone, the eye was swollen and painful for two weeks following the accident the vision gradually returning to its present strength. Prior to the injury could see as well with one eye as the other. Never had the eye examined by a doctor before entering the army, having no trouble other than the reduction in vision. No specific or tubercular history.

Examination. No squint; tension normal; vision R. 20/10; L. 10/200. Age 22 years; farmer; single. Left cornea clear and free from scars. Anterior chamber deep; aqueous clear. Pupil semidilated, reacting slowly to light and accommodation. Power of convergence reduced. Iris free from adhesions and pigment deposit. Lens normal. Vitreous clear and not fluid. Disc normal in size and color. Vessels normal. No rupture of the choroid or choroiditis. One-half the distance between the disc and the fovea centralis in the left eye is a slightly depressed circular area the diameter of which is equal to one-half the diameter of the disc. The exposed choroid at the bottom of the retinal hole is a dark cherry red color covered with a sprinkling of fine pigment resembling emery dust. The margin of the retina is sharply cut and deeply pigmented giving the appearance of a distinct ring, at the margin of the retinal hole. There is an absence of pigment deposit in the retina about the hole, also complete absence of white exudative specks.

HOLE AT THE MACULA

Ed. E. Maxey, Major M. C., U. S. Army

Boise, Idaho.

The series of cases here reported were observed at the Base Hospital, Camp Sherman, Ohio, during 1918, in the same service as a case previously reported in this Journal, February, 1918, p. 81. Authority to publish granted by the Board of Publication, S. G. O.

An interesting series of cases of hole at the macula have been observed from among the recruit soldiers at Camp Sherman, all in young colored men, and all giving a history of an injury to the affected eye. The accompanying figures well represent the fundus condition found in two of the cases.

Case 1. E. W., colored, private, age 22, was first seen as an out-patient, February 11, 1918, by Lieut. C. A. Burkholder, or about the time of publication of his first case. In this case there is a definite history of an injury to the right eye, evidenced by two small irregular scars on the right eyebrow. While splitting kindling some eight months before, a flying stick accidentally struck him over the right eye. The patient says that he was blind in the right eye for three months following the injury.

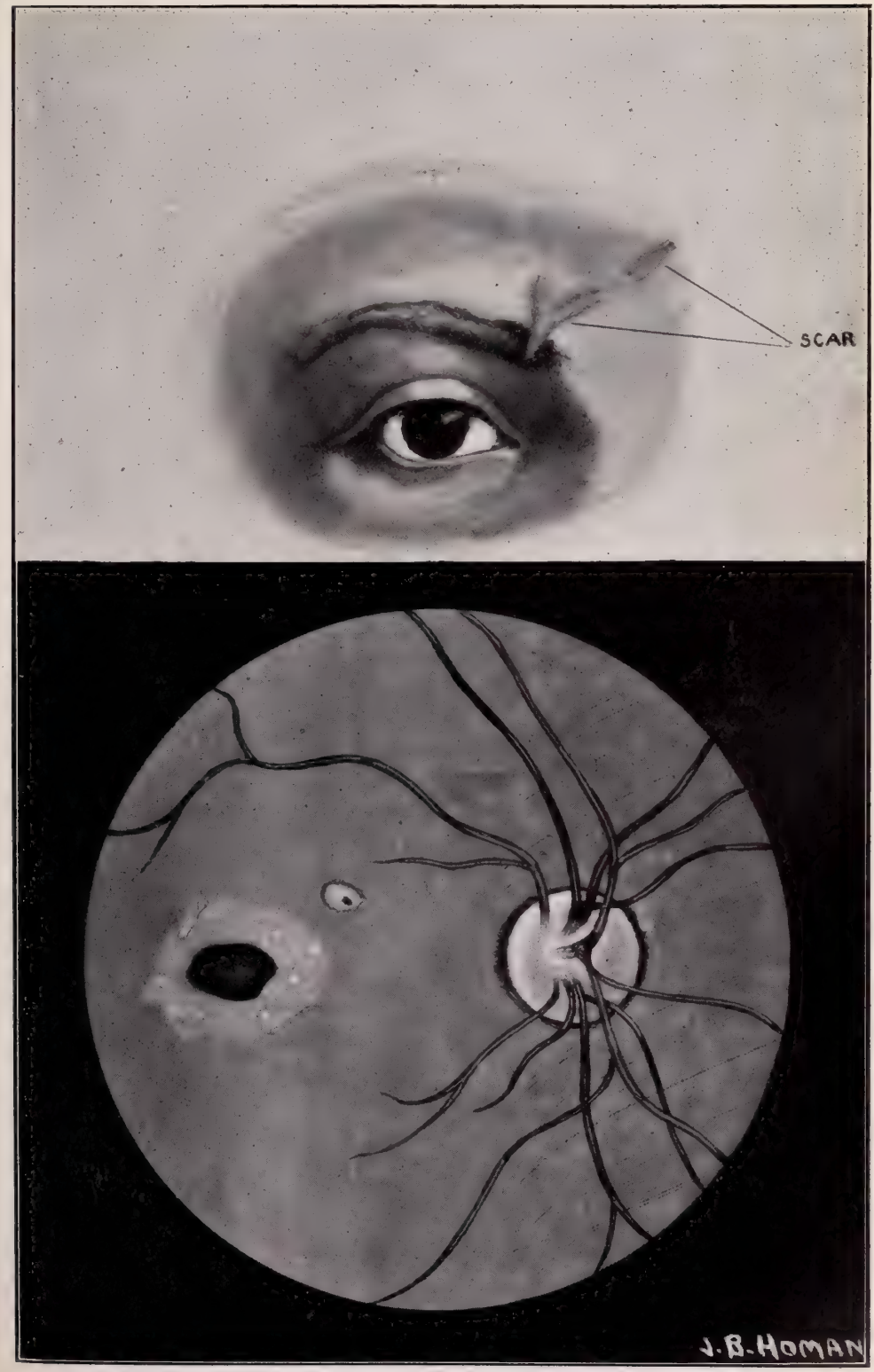
He comes to the clinic now complaining of poor vision, "slow" headache and pain in the left eye. Never glassed. Has had gonorrhea, but denies syphilis. Had typhoid fever when 15 years of age, and has had the usual diseases of childhood. Father and mother died eight years ago of consumption, and one sister died of tuberculosis 3 years ago. Has one brother and one sister living in good health. Patient is positive that before the injury to the right eye he could see equally well with either eye.

Examination. There are two small irregular scars on the right eyebrow and forehead, claimed to have been caused by the injury. See Plate XIX, upper figure. Right eye, external structures appear normal, cornea clear and smooth, anterior chamber apparently slightly deeper than the left, pupil reacts sluggishly to light, tension normal. The left eye is slightly more prominent that the right, conjunctiva slightly injected, with dusky-like induration in circumcorneal zone. Eyeball somewhat tender to palpation but tension is normal. Pupil reacts sluggishly to light. Vision: R. E. 20/200; L. E. 20/50, not improved by glassing. Wassermann blood test and urinalysis both negative. Blood count, reds 3,400,000, whites 5,100. Differential count, small mononuclear cells 20, large mononuclears 4, neutrophiles, 76.

Opthalmoscopic Examination. Right eye: Small pinhead sized opacity in the upper central portion of the lens, media clear. In the macular region is a "hole," of half a disc diameter, somewhat oval in shape, with clear margins. Base of the hole is dark red in color, slightly lower than the surrounding fundus, and has a somewhat granular appearance. Several crystals of cholesterin, and a few colloid bodies, were to be seen around the hole. Also a small colloid body at the nasal margin of the disc. Otherwise the fundus was normal. Left eye normal. See Plate XIX, lower figure.

Case 2. J. J. H., colored, age 22, private, Co. B. Dev. Bn. No. 5. Came to the out-patient clinic for glasses to improve a long existing blindness of the right eye. Refracted on Oct. 23, 1918. There is a history of injury to the right eye some years ago but the patient does not know whether his defective vision dates from that time or not. He has worn glasses for five years, has had them changed three times in that period, the last change being about six months ago. None of the glasses improved his vision. Denies history of syphilis, and family history is negative for tuberculosis and syphilis.

Examination. Eyes steady under cover, symmetric, lids normal and tension of both eyes is normal. The pupils are equal, 3 mm., round, and react normally to light, convergence and accommodation. Irides, anterior chambers, corneas, and conjunctivae normal. Vision R. E., light perception and projection, L.



HOLE AT THE MACULA, MAXEY'S CASE I. UPPER FIGURE SHOWS CORNEAL SCAR; LOWER FIGURE RETINAL LESIONS.

E., 20/25. Under cycloplegic, retinoscoped; R. + 1. Sph. ⊃ + 0.50 cyl. axis 90°; L. + 0.50 Sph. ⊃ +0.25 cyl., axis 120°; but no combination of lenses could be found that would make any improvement in the vision of either eye.

Ophthalmoscopic Examination. Right eye: Below and nasalward from the disc there is to be made out a limited area, two disc widths in diameter, a flat detachment of the retina, of pinkish color, which gave one the impression there was some underlying body. In the macular region there is a well-defined, roundish oval "hole," one-fourth disc in diameter, the base of which was of a granular appearance, dark red in color, and studded with cholesterin crystals. (We were unable to get a drawing of this fundus.) Left fundus entirely normal.

Case 3. E. B., colored, age 25, private, Co. D., 418 R. L. Bn., came to the eye service as an out-patient, Dec. 5, 1918, complaining of poor vision. Five years or more ago he was struck on the right eye by a baseball. There was at the time a lacerated wound just below the inferior orbital margin. Vision in the right eye he says has been poor ever since the injury, with no noticeable change in the vision. He is sure, however, that vision with the right eye was good before the injury. Patient contracted syphilis one year ago, and had gonorrhea shortly before that. No tubercular history in the family. Has had the usual diseases of childhood. Never glassed.

Examination. There is a horizontal linear scar 3 mm. long corresponding to inferior border of the right orbit. Eyes are steady under cover. Lids are normal except a very small chalazion in right upper. Tension of both eyes normal. Pupils are 2.5 mm. in diameter, round, equal, and react normally to light and accommodation. Conjunctiva of lids slightly congested and granular in appearance. Lacrimal sacs clean. General physical condition very good. Blood Wassermann one plus. Urine examination negative for albumin and sugar. The laboratory report on blood count did not give the number of red cells, but the whites were 10,500 and the differential count showed small m. 22, large m. 3, transitionals 2, eosinophiles 1, and neutrophiles 72.

Vision, R. E. 20/200; L. E. 20/20. Under cycloplegic the refractive error was found to be R. +0.50 ⊃ +0.50 cyl. axis 90°, vision not improved; and L. +0.50 sph., with no improvement.

Ophthalmoscopic Examination. Right eye media clear. In the macular region there is an oval, or pear shaped "hole" about one disc width in length, axis horizontal, and about one-half disc in width. The base of the hole is of a dark red color, granular in appearance, and studded with minute pigmentation and crystals of cholesterin. The hole is distinctly excavated, and the margins are clear cut and well defined. Entirely surrounding the hole is a band like area of grayish milky choroidal changes with a prolongation of this area from its inferior level to the disc. Seven or eight good sized crystals of cholesterin are distributed around the hole, in this area of choroiditis. Other portions of the right fundus appear to be normal. Left fundus normal.

DISTURBANCES OF VISION IN PATIENTS HARBORING FILARIAL TUMORS

R. Pacheco Luna, M. D.

GUATEMALA, C. A.

This paper, from the Department of Clinical Ophthalmology of the Medical School of Guatemala, describes a new form of corneal disease arising in patients suffering from certain filarial tumors.

In the February number, 1918, of this Journal we published a preliminary paper upon "Disturbances of Vision in Patients Harboring Certain Filarial Tumors." These disturbances we shall continue to consider as dependent on

the presence in the body of a parasite, the Onchocerca volvulus, Leuckart, 1893, until Professor Henry B. Ward of the University of Illinois classifies that Filariadae otherwise, at the conclusion of his investigations upon specimens which we sent him, and which we removed from patients coming under our observation.

We will now describe a clinical form of which, up to the present, we have made no mention, and which is quite prevalent. This form of the disease has the appearance of a microcornea, the diameters of the cornea seem actually less than the normal. But unlike microcornea of microphthalmia the eyeball retains its natural size. Therefore this form has characteristics peculiar to the complaint that we have referred to under the name of Onchocercosis in our first paper.

We presume the cause of the microcornea is some toxic process acting at a distance from the location of the parasite. This is the theory that also explains the other ocular symptoms of the Onchocercosis outside the eye. In the cellular tissue under the scalp, the part of the body for which the parasite apparently has marked predilection, the filaria secretes a substance having the property of altering the adjacent tissues which, thus transformed, constitute the tumors. The secretions absorbed and conveyed by the blood thruout the organism, produce ocular lesions, sometimes apparent and at others imperceptible to the usual methods of examination.

The patients in which the microcornea is the principal or sole symptom, do not suffer an appreciable loss of vision, nor do they experience any discomfort in the eye, which might cause them to consult a physician, as the progress of the disease is insidious and there is no acute process. The picture given is that of the microphthalmia, which is the only apparent symptom; the diameters of the cornea are diminished. the eyeball retaining its normal size. The average of the diameters thus affected, measure 8 to 9 mm. This contraction of the cornea is due to a process of Keratitia Marginalis Superficialis Punctata (Fig. 1.) quite different from the Keratitis Punctata Superficialis (Fig. 2.) that we described be-

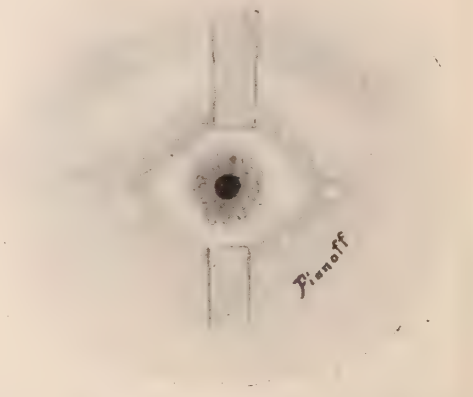


Fig. 1. Keratitis Marginalis Superficialis Punctata. (Pacheco Luna.)

fore as a common occurrence in the Onchocercosis. In the new form which is the subject of this paper, the superficial punctate lesions are found at the limbus of the cornea; and there the grouping is so close that the uniform

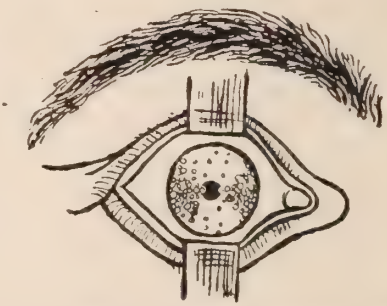


Fig. 2. Keratitis Superficialis Punctata. (Pacheco Luna.)

whitish opacity has the form of a ring of the same color as the sclerotic, and so similar that it appears to be one, there being no separating line between the two membranes. Such concentric disposition, which measures in some places as much as 2 mm., causes the reduction in the diameters of the cornea, and gives the eyeball the corresponding peculiar appearance.

The examination of the eye in the dark room by reflected light, without the use of magnifying instruments reveals the opacity as being superficial and situated immediately under the epithelium from which it does not protrude. As already mentioned the dotted elements are so uniformly and compactly grouped in the scleral border that they appear to be a continuation of the same, and form a thick and perfectly opaque membrane; but where this approaches the limit of the transparent cornea, the opacity becomes less thick, the elements less compact, they decrease in number, some become isolated. But so far we have not been able to observe elements in the central region of the cornea, and therefore the part normally traversed by the light rays is not interfered with, which explains the preservation of visual acuity.

The course of the microcornea is slow and progressive; but seems to have a limit, because as we have just observed the central portion of the cornea is not affected. Up to the present moment this condition may be considered as the mildest form of the Onchocercosis. In all the cases of microcornea that have come under our notice, the patients had filarial tumors. The progress of the lesions ceases when all the tumors (Figs. 5 and 6) are removed; but this is not always possible in practice because of their location.

The clinical diagnosis is greatly assisted by discovery of the tumors. They are generally encountered in the cellular tissue under the scalp. Figs. 3, 4 and 5 show tumors of different sizes, which are very similar in appearance, consistency, shape and size to the lipomatous tumors of the scalp, with which they were confused until lately. The smallest which can be observed are the size of a grain of rice, the largest, that of an almond, and when several are located together, the size of an orange. But they are generally met with of the size of a large bean (Vicia faba, L.); and are elliptical and somewhat gibbous, having two flat surfaces, obviously attributable to the compression exerted by distended tissues upon resisting surfaces. Occasionally they are found in the body, and if they are small it is practically impossible to locate them. If they are not pressed against a bone, they have a globular shape.

The blood examination does not seem to yield any important results; Dr. Robles endeavored to find the embryos in the blood, and repeated the test several times in the 24 hours; but the result was always negative. The





Figs. 3 and 4. Filarial tumors of scalp indicated by crosses (Pacheco Luna).

blood formula does not make the diagnosis more explicit, as all the patients are carriers of intestinal parasites.

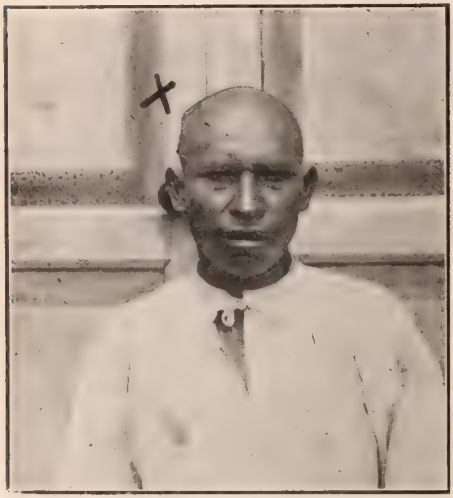


Fig. 5. Filarial tumor of scalp indicated by cross. Extreme photophobia shown by contraction of brow and partial closure of lids. (Pacheca Luna.)



Fig. 6. The same patient as Fig. 5 after removal of tumor showing relief from photophobia.

This lesion, as well as the other ocular disturbances that we have described, yields to no other treatment than the removal of all the tumors. We have applied without result all the usual therapeutic agents, using the oral, subcutaneous, intravenous, conjunctival, subconjunctival methods of application, and also injections into the tumor itself. On the other hand the removal of the tumors gives immediate and surprising results, which are shown by comparison of Figs. 5 and 6. We affirm that no satisfactory results can be expected if tumors are left in the body.

THE SCOOP PERIMETER

S. J. Beach, M. D., F. A. C. S.

AUGUSTA, MAINE

This paper describes a new form of hand perimeter, a kind of curved campimeter, with explanation of manner of using it and charts for recording the observations made.

During the Selective Service examinations so many applicants were referred to our Medical Advisory Board for reports involving the visual fields, that it seemed imperative to devise some apparatus for this test more rapid than the regulation instruments. It was also essential to combine with speed the highest degree of completeness and accuracy.

While it often turned out that examination of the central field alone was ample, it seemed impossible to be sure of this until the peripheral field had been tested and found negative. When the examination involved only the central field, the handy little black board (hand campimeter) suggested by Dr. Peter, was, for a radius of forty degrees, both quick and accurate; but beyond this limit no short cut was available.

The importance of the outer field lies in its peculiar sensitiveness to various disorders. Its blood supply is relatively poor, and its visual elements easily disturbed. In the temporal extreme is often the first, and for a long time the only evidence of vascular trouble. In such cases its examination is of especial value.

The inaccuracy of the blackboard or tangent plane apparatus in the outer field is due in part to two causes. As the test object moves toward the edge of the board, its distance from the eye increases rapidly. It thus becomes relatively smaller. Hence the test is being conducted with an object of variable size. At the same time the projection of the outer field becomes correspondingly exaggerated, distorting the diagram.

Although these faults have been remedied by constructing instruments on the arc of a circle or the segment of a sphere, placing the eye at the center, it is at the expense of other essentials. The machines are slow, cumbersome and unevenly lighted. Many ingenious contrivances exist to meet these objections but are so intricate and easily got out of order that they are liabilities rather than assets.



Fig. 1. Scoop perimeter of Beach, showing method of using.

With the idea of providing a quick, comfortable and fool-proof apparatus, which would include the peripheral as well as the central field, a blackboard was bent on the segment of a concave cylinder, axis ninety degrees. This was satisfactory except that by it the inferior field was projected on a tangent, and extended nearly double the forty degrees of satisfactory tangential projection. Changing the lower half of the instrument to the segment of a sphere corrected this defect, producing the apparatus here shown.

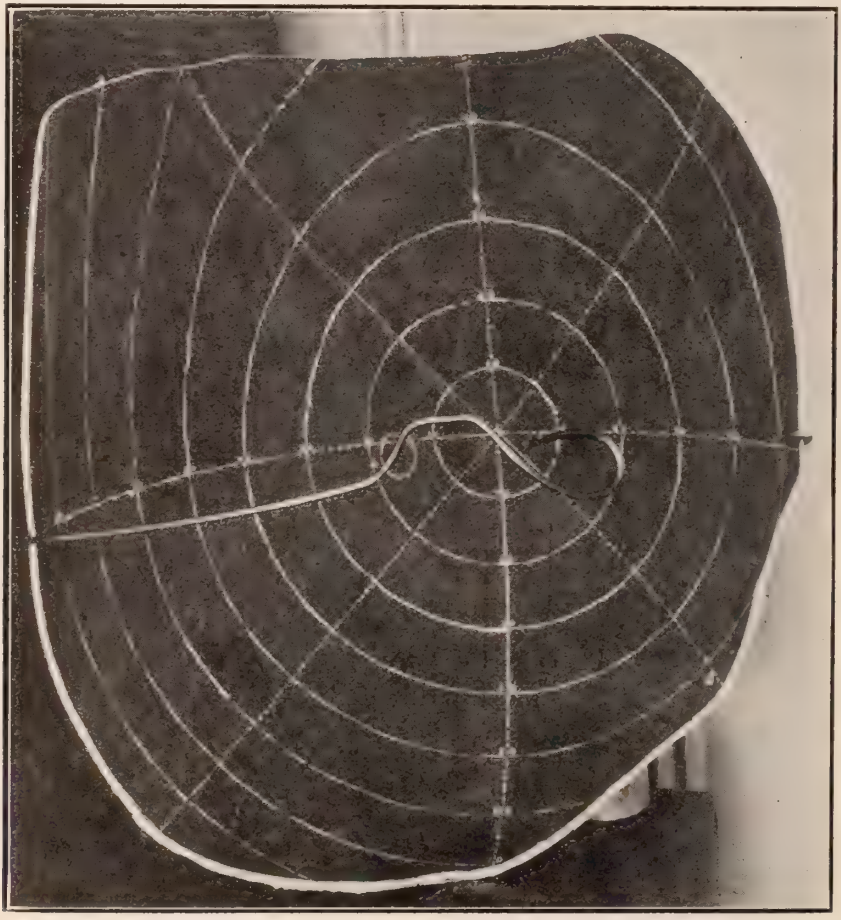
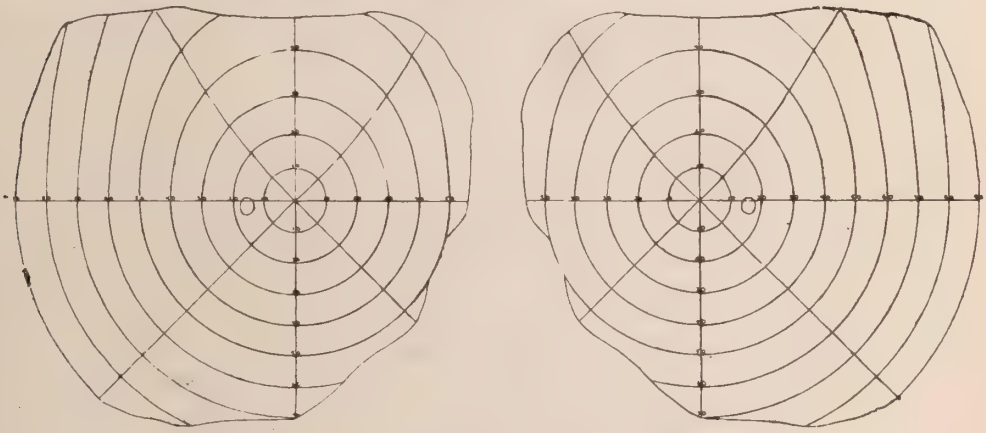


Fig. 2. Scoop perimeter enlarged to show details.

As can be seen, it is a hemispherical scotometer with the upper segment continued vertically in the shape of a cylinder. In other words, it is a scoop with the mouth up. Unlike a segment of a sphere, this cylinder has no overhanging upper lip so that a light from above and behind meets no obstacle to prevent it from illuminating the entire working surface. For all around work, daylight from a high window is best, but artificial light can be used. From above, the observer standing in front of the patient is perfectly able to watch simultaneously both the inside of the perimeter and the eye of the patient, as is essential to accurate work. The superior field is so short that within its limits the vertical meridian, tho tangent, shows no appreciable distortion.

This does away with the two objections to the hemispheric scotometer; first, the impossibility of getting uniform illumination by daylight; second,

inability to observe the working surface of the instrument without getting in the light. The illumination has been further improved by cutting away all the outer part of the hemisphere beyond the limit of the normal form field. It is not even necessary to use the maximum or absolute field of Mauthner. No patient whose lesion is so trifling as not to appear within the so-called relative field is going to demonstrate anything helpful on a larger perimeter, so for clinical work this size



Left eye. Right eye.

Fig. 3. Chart for recording fields taken from scoop perimeter.

is perfectly adequate, and makes the instrument lighter and easier to hold. Also, by indicating the limit of the normal field, it enables an inexperienced assistant to detect at once any abnormality. At first it seemed likely that the patient would suspect the meaning of the peculiar outline of the instrument and would involuntarily strive to make his field coincide with it, thereby concealing some defect. So far, however, no one has paid any attention to the odd shape.

As the fields of the two eyes are mutually reversed, a separate scoop is needed for each eye. This arrangement gives two distinct advantages. First, it is not necessary to copy off the findings for one eye before examining the second. The transfer can be postponed until some more convenient time or given to an assistant to make. Second, as the unused eye is always on the same side, a permanent ring can be attached to the head-rest to hold a sponge or other blinder. This saves the time consumed in fastening a blinder about the head over first one eye and then the other, besides allaying any apprehension felt by the woman patient for her coiffure. The head-rest, it will be noticed, loops above the eye, resting on the brow instead of underneath on the cheek. It is, therefore, not contaminated by secretion dropping from the eye. It can, of course, be either washed or boiled.

For convenience in transcribing, more particularly where some untrained assistant is employed, a chart has been devised, projecting the markings of the scoop upon a plane surface. The difference is so slight, however, between the marking of the scoop and that of the ordinary perimeter chart, that these special charts are not essential.

The working distance of the hand campimeter is so familiar and popular that it was selected for this scoop and the same test objects used. Any suitable material can, of course, be used in making the scoop. Aluminum seemed ideal, but during the war it was impossible to obtain special forms of aluminum, so the scoops now in use are constructed of paper laminated over a core, which is removed when the paper is dry. This produces a

very light and rigid board. On the inside is painted a black surface. Eight diameters are indicated, also circles of ten degrees each, and the blind spot, all outlined with faint white lines. On the upper field the projection of the markings varies according to the diagram.

The scoop permits a complete field examination as quickly as the ordinary ophthalmoscopic examination, so that it can be performed as a routine measure in the office. The need of an instrument for this purpose seems to warrant presenting it to the profession.

OCULAR ANGIONEUROTIC EDEMA AND GLAUCOMA

HANS BARKAN, M. D.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

The case here described seems to illustrate a form of glaucoma due to edema, and by the rarity of such cases raises the presumption that this is an unusual etiologic factor in glaucoma.

In reading the literature I have not found the syndrome mentioned as in the above title. In fact, except for the familiar lesions of the lids, there appears but one reference regarding implication of the eye itself in this disease. It seems not amiss, therefore, to report a case of unmistakable angioneurotic edema of the globe, which evidenced its existence also by attacks of glaucoma. In connection with this case, some speculation regarding the causation of glaucoma naturally arises.

Case.—Mrs. C. K., age 52, referred by Dr. H. I. Wiel. Past history: Seen in 1913 by Dr. Wiel complaining of swellings of different parts of the face, which had become more frequent since 1910, at which time they had first appeared; accompanied by ocular symptoms which she described as severe and sudden ocular pains, clouding over of all objects, haloes about lights, and intense headaches. She also had had epigastric pain and vomiting, sometimes with blood, one-half hour after eating. In 1911 appendectomy was done. For a month past she has been afflicted with swellings back of the ears or on the eyelids, or lip, or around the nose, and even on the hands. These appear suddenly and grow to such size in a short time as to disfigure her. They gradually disappear in the course of five to six hours. They usually appear in the morning when she awakens, are hard, and brawny, burn and itch. They annoy and worry her. Her stomach symptoms, as detailed, are constantly present. Further history, for which I am indebted to Dr. Wiel, states that on exploratory laparotomy, the stomach was found normal, and the gall bladder distended by thick, almost black, bile. There were adhesions to the duodenum from gall bladder region. The duodenum was constricted by a band of old, firm adhesions. When the intestines below collapsed, this band was released, and the gall bladder drained. She was dismissed from the hospital in three weeks.

When I first saw her, in 1915, she was in splendid health except for the attacks of facial angioneurotic edema, which were almost invariably complicated by the ocular complaints already mentioned. As to these, her history follows: In 1911, she consulted Prof. Hess, of Munich, regarding some occasional obscuration of vision, occurring more frequently in the right eye, without pain, injection or headache. Prof. Hess ordered an increase in her spherical correction, gave drops to be used five times a day, and a drop once at night, the latter fluid, as patient states, turned pink in color. The daughter states that these drops made the pupils very small. Prof. Hess diagnosed the case as one of glaucoma.

Six months later she consulted Prof. Hirschberg, of Berlin, who also diagnosed glaucoma and told her to continue the treatment. This she did regularly until 1913, when she discontinued the drops. While using them she had at no time obscuration of vision,

altho she was bothered somewhat by attacks of angioneurotic edema.

On the occasion of her first visit to me, her lower lip, five minutes after seeing her, increased to three times its normal size within a period of ten minutes. Her pulse rose from 79 to 102; she felt warm, confused and embarrassed, and started a profuse perspiration. When I examined her two hours later, she was quite normal in mind and body.

Ocular Examination.—External negative. Cornea clear, anterior chamber, both eyes, quite shallow. Iris deep brown color, speckled with small melanomata. Pupils normal size, round, equal, react promptly to light and accommodation. Fundus shows a slight hyperemia of both discs, veins slightly larger in comparison with arteries than usual, but both well within limits of normal variation, considering also her hypermetropia of 5 D. Fields taken on Bjerrum's chart absolutely normal, no indication of relative Bjerrum's scotoma or Seidel's sign. Vision right and left with correcting glasses of plus 5 sphere with plus 1.00 cylinder axis 90° equals 10/10. Tension right and left, Schiötz tonometer, 24 and 36 mm.

She was told that no positive diagnosis could be made from this examination and that she should telephone upon the first appearance of any obscuration of vision. A week later I saw the first acute congestive attack she had ever had. The tension was plus 3, the cornea steamy, diffuse marked congestion of the entire bulbar conjunctiva, anterior chamber almost abolished, severe headache with pain shooting down to the tip of the nose and to the teeth on the right side. Vision counting fingers at two feet. This attack started at 7:30 a. m., when she awakened with a greatly puffed-up lower lip.

The left eye was normal. Repeated instillations of eserin, and leeches applied to the temple brought her eye to normal tension; and, except for some remaining congestion of the ocular conjunctiva, to nearly normal appearance late that afternoon. Both eyes were kept under eserin for the next three days, and the usual adjuvant glaucoma treatments followed.

Seen in the office at that time, her eye was normal except for some slight congestion of the conjunctival superficial vessels, and vision was again 10/10 with normal fields and fundus.

Following this attack, I saw her eight times during the year, each time with a rise of tension varying between 35 and 40 mm. Hg. with Schiötz' tonometer, the attacks occurring invariably within half an hour after the angioneurotic edema of her lower lip, combined, occasionally with an edema of the cheeks and tongue.

During these attacks her vision dropped to 2/10 or 3/10 of normal. The field, however, did not suffer. The eye was sensitive on pressure, the anterior chamber almost absent, and the cornea slightly steamy. The attacks would invariably disappear in from three to five hours upon instillation of eserin. The angioneurotic edema would seldom last longer than an hour.

During the next year I did not see the patient again, but heard thru friends that she was completely cured, suffering neither from the edema nor from the eye condition, and that this cure had been brought about by Christian Science! In the following year, 1917, she came to the office complaining that her glasses were not strong enough for her. I found distant vision as before with her previous glasses and added the necessary presbyopic correction. Upon questioning her regarding her former troubles, she told me that during the last year and one-half she had not had a severe attack of angioneurotic edema or of obscuration of vision. She had stopped using all medicines and had devoted herself entirely to the teachings of Christian Science. Her vision during this last visit was 10/10 right and left; normal fundus and normal field. I have heard indirectly regarding her condition in the course of the last month and it is said to be the same.

The case summed up then, is as follows:

1. Typical attacks of angioneurotic edema.

2. History of gastrointestinal attacks simulating peptic ulcer, probably angioneurotic visceral edema.

3. Diagnosis of glaucoma in 1911 by Prof. Hess and Prof. Hirschberg; miotic treatment irregular.

4. Acute attack of glaucoma in connection with angioneurotic edema of lip observed personally.

5. No permanent functional ocular involvement or anatomic change from 1911 to 1918.

The association in the same individual of typical attacks of angioneurotic edema and glaucoma does not necessarily place the latter in relation with the former; when, however, the glaucoma in its acute manifestations occurs synchronously with the edema, disappears with the latter's disappearance or shortly afterwards, never lasting more than a few hours, has occurred in this fashion for seven years and has left no deleterious results; in other words, is a sudden, self-limited rise of tension, never lasting long enough to cause anatomic impairment, the angioneurotic character of the attack may be admitted.

The localization of the edema in the choroid, ciliary body, and iris, mainly, I believe, in the ciliary body, is a unique occurrence. Unusual manifestations, such as the cases reported by Bogart, of acute intestinal obstruction due to localized edema, and a case of Sanforth and Mathews of similar nature. W. J. Mayo, in three cases opened the abdomen to find localized exudative changes, all the patients recovering rapidly. The genitourinary tract is involved to some degree in about 30 per cent of all cases.

Finally, the only reference regarding ocular implications, a case cited by Albrecht, whose patient was an eighteen-year-old girl, whom he had had the opportunity of observing since the age of thirteen. With every menstrual period, which was very painful and protracted, and prostrated the patient, the right side of the face would suddenly become intensely edematous and this condition would recur repeatedly during the menstrual period. She complained of spots of light before her eyes. Fundus examination by Birch-Hirschfeld showed repeatedly marked edema of both discs which was not present in the intermenstrual period.

The case reported by me gives food for thought. Without going into the many theories regarding the causation of glaucoma, it nevertheless directs attention once more to Fischer's theory of edema caused by localized acidosis as the explanation of glaucoma. As far as I could find in the study of his chapter relative to this, he regards edema as the cause of all glaucomas, with the usually accepted causes or combinations of causes secondary. This case I do not believe to be confirmative of Fischer's opinion; but rather one in which the exception proves the rule in the proper understanding of that maxim.

Why in the many reported cases of angioneurotic edema have we not heard before of such a case as is here reported? If the edema is a localized acidosis and if glaucoma be that, it would be reasonable to suppose that an individual so afflicted with acidosis as to be subject to angioneurotic edema, would also frequently be a sufferer from acute congestive glaucoma. Yet, a thoro search has not revealed this to be the case in a single instance other than the reported case. Is the excretion of acid bodies altered during attacks of angioneurotic edema? Miller and Pepper, in metabolic studies of angioneurotic edema, by estimation of the total acidity and ammonia excretion in the urine, found that they were not. Colonel Smith, using Fletcher's method of establishing acidosis, among 1,200 troops in India, found the normal limits to vary greatly, and states that many of his glaucoma patients fall well within these normal limits established for strong, healthy men.

It seems too much to suppose, in view of the well recognized causes of certain classes and cases of glaucoma, that all these causes should only be favoring factors to the localized edema which raises the ocular ten-

sion. Are hyperopia, old age, stiffening of the sclerotic, relatively disproportionate increase of lens volume, fibrosis of the ligamentum pectinatum, high blood pressure, arteriosclerosis and sudden mental excitement all only secondary to a local acidosis, or only an aid in its appearance in a type case of this kind? Is acidosis only a phenomenon of middle or old age—the age of glaucoma? Not at all! One frequently sees particularly severe cases of real acidosis in infants, and children, but with no glaucoma as yet reported.

And where is the edema in diabetes? Of all diseases characterized by an acidosis in its grave forms, there is the one—and where is the edema? And where does one find *hypotony* of the eye most marked? In the final stage of this same nonedematous, highly-acid state! The prompt action of miotics, especially in the case reported, is hard to reconcile with the hydrophilic theory.

If an intraocular acidosis caused the sudden and internal congestive attack, the mere mechanical opening for the normal exit of normal fluid by removing the root of the edematous iris from the chamber angle would scarcely be expected to influence the acid state of the eyeball, and continuing in the degree that supposedly caused the attack, would surely not be influenced by eserin; as little as the bull's eye in acid solution could be kept from rupturing by eserin. There is simply no clinical evidence of the existence of such an intraocular acid state.

Elliot, in his textbook on glaucoma, a most thoughtful, sincere and just appreciation of the entire subject, allows himself to say only, "It is conceivable that the morbid conditions we are describing may favor that presumed state of hydrophyllism on which Fischer and his school lay so much stress," and, "The influence of hydrophyllism can, however, only be accepted with hesitation and reserve."

The objections to Fischer's theory could be carried on at length. The results, favorable and unfavorable, of operative treatment, carry perhaps the strongest objections to the mind of the clinician. Why do certain cases respond well to operative proceedings, others not at all? All of us with a liberal experience in glaucoma operations know that irrespective of the type of glaucoma, age, sex, blood pressure, urine or other clinical findings; and with equally skillful operation in all, we can divide the end results into one group that remains stationary, for long periods at least, and one group that fails in steady progression as if no operation had been performed, fail with operation, with miotics, with any kind of treatment. In the successful group, I believe that the cause lies in the anterior chamber. We touch this by operating. In the unsuccessful, it lies in the posterior half and we do not touch it by operating. Were a state of acidosis the inciting and prime agent in all glaucoma such groups as result of treatment would scarcely be expected.

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OPHTHALMOLOGIC PARIS

MAJOR CHARLES A. BAHN, M. C., U. S. A.

NEW ORLEANS, LA.

This account of what has been done and planned for the immediate future, in the way of graduate teaching in ophthalmology in Paris, is published under authority from the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.

With the return of civilian transportation facilities, the beauty, charm and location of Paris, combined with its great teaching and clinical facilities, will attract more than ever before American ophthalmologists, as clinic visitors and for definite postgraduate study.

Before the war, didactic and clinical French courses were given in our specialty at the Hotel Dieu (University of Paris), by Professor de Lapersonne and staff, as well as at the hospitals Lariboisiere, Necker, Enfants Malades, Laennec and Rothschild, by Doctors Morax, Magitot, Poulard, Rochon-Duvigneaud and Dupuy-Dutemps. These included external diseases, ophthalmoscopy, operative and laboratory technic, pathology, diagnosis, etc. They offered the postgraduate students excellent and practically continuous instruction from November to May. With modifications, these courses are being resumed.

A movement is now in progress to organize postgraduate medical teaching in English and other languages. Should the number of students justify, it is probable that by 1920, one will be able to obtain didactic and clinical ophthalmologic instruction in our language sufficient to justify the trip from an educational standpoint.

There is no reason why Paris should not be the future ophthalmologic capital of Continental Europe. It has the teachers, the clinics and the facilities. Lacking only is the teaching organization, which is now in the process of formation.

The Army Educational Commission has made it possible for many in the service to avail themselves of the educational advantages of France. In this city ophthalmologic instruction was arranged at the hospitals Lariboisiere, Grand-Palais, Hotel Dieu, Enfants Malades, etc.

The important and difficult work of bringing Franco-American medical educational facilities into closer contact has been under the direction of Colonel Samuel Lloyd, of the Medical Corps, U. S. A. The future success of Paris as a postgraduate medical center for Americans will in no small way be due to his untiring and efficient efforts.

The city has largely returned to its pre-war appearance and habits. Current prices are, however, a constant reminder of the new era. Bare living expenses at this time cost the average American officer about $150.00 per month, and incidentals from $50.00 upward. Diagnostic instruments are expensive and difficult to obtain, hence it is advisable to bring ophthalmoscopes, etc. Naturally, a knowledge of French is most desirable; tho at most of the hospitals some member of the staff speaks English.

The following information concerning the several eye clinics, which, with the exception of the Rothschild Foundation, form a part of general hospitals, is given to assist prospective visitors in making necessary arrangements and employing their time to the greatest advantage.

HOTEL DIEU

Place du Paris, Notre Dame. Subway Station, Métro. "La Cité."

Professor F. de Lapersonne, University of Paris; Associate Professor F. Terrien. Chief of Clinic, Dr. Velter and others. New cases, 14,444; operations, 879 in 1918. 100 beds. Consultations, daily at 9 A. M. Operations: Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays at 9 A. M. Courses in French:

1. Weekly lectures each Friday, 10:30 A. M., by Prof. de Lapersonne. No charge.

2. "Practical course"; Orbito-Ocular Surgery in 10 lessons, with demonstrations on the cadaver, November and March, 50 francs.

3. "Perfectionment"; Review of Ophthalmology in 30 lessons, six weekly; with demonstrations in dark room and laboratory, as well as on the cadaver. November and May, 100 francs.

4. "Vacation"; 15 lessons and demonstrations, September. 50 francs.

No member of the present staff speaks English.

The clinic, wards, operating room and laboratory are large and well adapted for teaching purposes.

Quite a few of our officers here attended the courses Nos. 1, 2 and 3, with benefit.

LARIBOISIERE

Rue Ambroise-Pare. Métro, "Gare du Nord."

Chiefs of service, Drs. V. Morax and A. Magitot. First assistant, Dr. J. Bollack.

New cases, 14,122; operations, 1,268 in 1918. 60 beds.

Consultations: Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays at 9 A. M. Operations: Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays at 9 A. M. Courses in French.

1. Weekly lectures each Saturday, 11 A. M., by Dr. Morax. No charge.

2. "Ocular Physiology"; including circulation, tension, iris, visual centers, nerves, etc.; February, 1920. 100 francs.

3. "Ophthalmic Surgery"; Drs. Morax and Magitot. March, 1920. 120 francs.

4. "Refraction"; Date depends on demand. 100 francs.

5. "Perfectionment"; Brief resumé of advances made during the year. Five days following the French Ophthalmological Congress in May, 1920.

6. Laboratory Technic.

7. Ocular Neurology; Dr. Bollack. 100 francs.

Drs. Morax, Magitot and Bollack speak English.

Systematic postgraduate ophthalmic instruction in English and possibly Spanish is being arranged to begin November, 1919. These courses will probably be excellent, extend over three months and be repeated in January and April, 1920. They will be given conjointly by the chiefs of service at the Hospitals Lariboisiere, Enfants Malades, Laennec and possibly others. Details may be had from Dr. Magitot.

The entire service, modern, well arranged, and adequately equipped, is much like our American clinics and has been very popular with visiting officers interested in ophthalmology. We are deeply indebted to Drs. Morax and Magitot, who have shown a great interest in our students and who have given us their time and efforts without stint or reward. They have, indeed, done much toward making our stay of professional value.

QUINZE-VINGT

28 rue Charenton. Métro, "Bastille."

Chiefs of service, Drs. A. Chevallereau, M. Kalt, G. Chaillous, E. Valude. First assistants, Drs. H. Liegard, A. Fourrier and Perossier. Aid of clinic, Dr. J. Lemologlou.

Approximately 18,000 new cases and 2,000 operations in 1918. 100 beds.

Consultations: Daily at 9 A. M. and 2 P. M. Operations: Four days weekly, at 2 P. M.

No courses are given except a weekly French lecture by one of the staff. Dr. Lemologlou speaks English.

The clinic is compact and well arranged. Our officers, who have been most kindly received and shown every possible courtesy here, have shown their appreciation by the frequency of their attendance. The hospice, of which the clinic forms a part, was founded by Louis XII, and serves as a home for 300 blind, with their families.

ENFANTS MALADES

149 rue Sevres. Nord-Sud, "Falguieres."

Chief of service, Dr. A. Poulard; assistants, Drs. Offret and Boussi. Interne, Dr. Merigot de Treigny.

New cases, 6,220; operations, 510 in 1918. 30 beds. Consultations: Daily, at 9 A. M. Operations: Monday, Wednesday and Friday, at 9 A. M. Courses in French.

1. "Practical Course"; for students and physicians, January and June. Monday, Wednesday and Friday.

2. "Complete Course"; to be given in collaboration with Drs. Morax, Magitot, Rochon-Duvigneaud and Dupuy-Dutemps, at Hospitals Lariboisiere, Laennec and Rothschild.

3. "Ocular Surgery"; 100 francs.

4. "Facial Restoration and Ocular Prothesis"; with demonstrations and technic. No charge.

Courses in English; see Lariboisiere. Drs. Poulard and Merigot de Treigny speak English. The clinic is compact, well equipped and organized.

The course on Facial Restoration and Ocular Prothesis with demonstrations of photographs, diagrams and autochromes so kindly given by Dr. Poulard, has been of great value and interest.

NECKER

The Eye Department is in conjunction with the Hospital Enfants Malades.

GRAND PALAIS

10 rue de la Paix.

Chief of service, Dr. Louis Borsch.

The clinic of this military hospital, since closed, was placed at the disposal of the officers; excellent instruction was given under Captain Ayers.

Dr. Borsch has shown many courtesies and kindnesses to our visiting officers. Many will recall that our colleague and countryman lived in Philadelphia for many years.

ROTHSCHILD

86 rue Manin. Métro, "Bolivar."

Chief of clinic, Dr. L. Dupuy-Dutemps. Chiefs of services, Drs. Rochon-Duvigneaud, E. Millee, C. de Speville.

New cases, 38,000 (approximately); operations, 900 in 1918. 100 beds.

Consultations and operations at 9 A. M. and 1 P. M., daily.

Under the provisions of the founder's bequest, only very limited instruction is permitted. This is given in collaboration with the Hospital Lariboisiere and others. Dr. de Speville speaks English.

The hospital occupies the largest, most modern and perhaps the best equipped building used for ophthalmic purposes in Paris. Among the interesting features of the institution are the laboratory work of Dr. Mawas and the many ingenious devices of Dr. Pollack.

LAENNEC

42 rue de Sevres. Métro, "Sevres."

Chief of clinic, Dr. A. Rochon-Duvigneaud. Assistants, Drs. Coutela and Rene Onfray.

New cases, 3,300 (approximately); operations, 150 in 1918.

Consultations daily at 9 A. M. Operations, Wednesdays at 9 A. M.

Instruction given in collaboration with Hospital Lariboisiere.

Dr. Onfray speaks English.

The clinic, tho small, is very well organized. Of great interest is the operative technic and pathologic work of Dr. Rochon-Duvigneaud.

BEAUJON

208 rue Faubourg, Saint-Honoré. Métro, "Alma."

Chief of service, Professor F. Terrien.

SAINT ANTOINE

184 rue du Faubourg, Saint-Antoine. Métro, "Reuilly."

Chief of service, M. Dupuy-Dutemps.

VAL-DE-GRACE

277 rue St. Jacques. Métro, "St. Jacques."

Chief of service, M. Kalt.

The clinic is practically limited to military cases. A most interesting feature of the hospital is the large collection of military pathologic specimens.

BRAZILIAN

389 rue Vaugirard. Nord-Sud, "Convention."

Chief of service, Dr. F. Lemaitre.

An excellent course on facial restoration was given there by Dr. Lemaitre, who has been in the United States.

LANDOLT

Dr. E. Landolt, 8 rue de Berri, Métro, "Alma," generously gave a most interesting series of lectures and demonstrations on Refraction and

Muscular Anomalies. We were greatly endeared to this distinguished ophthalmologist by his keen wit, charming personality and special interest in Americans. Dr. Landolt speaks English.

More detailed information may be readily obtained by writing Drs. Morax, Magitot, Borsch, Poulard, Landolt or Merigot de Treigny, whose addresses have been mentioned with their respective hospitals, and who have kindly volunteered to assist our visitors in any possible way.

It would be indeed ungrateful to close without acknowledging our deep appreciation to the members of the various clinics for their many courtesies; to Captain Boulanger for the assistance derived from his booklet, "Paris Hospitals"; and to the Medical Department of the American Expeditionary Forces for the great opportunities and for the excellent facilities placed at our disposal.

The writer believes that at this time the best fundamental postgraduate ophthalmic training for Americans is to be had in America, but for those who desire a supplementary European education, Paris offers more and greater advantages than any other city of Continental Europe. For those who contemplate definite postgraduate study here, excellent courses to be given in English are being arranged, to commence about January 1, 1920. For those who contemplate visiting European clinics, a few weeks cannot be spent to greater professional advantage than in the several eye clinics of Paris.

TREATMENT OF SYMBLEPHARON AND RESTORATION OF THE ORBITAL SOCKET

William H. Wilder, M. D.

Chicago.

The method here described is one found valuable by extended experience. This general plan of procedure, using different substances to preserve the full extent of the socket has come into prominence in the treatment of war injuries. Presented before the Section on Ophthalmology, American Medical Association, June, 1919.

Symblepharon may present such a variety of degrees that the correction of the difficulty will require varying degrees of ingenuity and technic on the part of the ophthalmic surgeon. Strictly speaking, the term "symblepharon" is reserved for those cases in which the eyelid has become adherent to the eyeball.

The degree of the adhesion varies from the simplest form in which the edge of the eyelid, or part of it, is attached to the eyeball, and to this the term "anterior symblepharon" is given. In the more extensive form in which the culdesac or fornix of the conjunctiva is involved we have so-called "posterior symblepharon." When the whole surface of the eyelid is attached to the globe and the fornix is obliterated, we use the term "total symblepharon," and this may affect both lids after extensive burns or injuries, all of the conjunctiva being destroyed.

In severer degrees of this kind, the edges of the lids also may have been destroyed so that they will have grown together, giving the condition of ankylosymblepharon. In these severer forms, especially if caused by extensive injury or burns of the conjunctiva, the eyeball has in most cases been removed; but in some the atrophied, shrunken bulb may be present; and the surgeon should consider this in his treatment.

The causes of this condition are usually traumatic, as from burns of the conjunctiva with acids, strong alkalis, molten metal, lime, gas flames, or other strongly irritating substances that occasion ulceration of the conjunctiva.

Certain diseases, such as pemphigus, diphtheria, and even long continued trachoma, may cause such destruction and contraction of the conjunctiva that the culdesacs will be obliterated and a condition produced as bad as that made by a severe burn.

Although, strictly speaking, as has been said, symblepharon means the adhesion of the eyelid or eyelids to the eyeball, the same term may properly be applied to the adhesion of the lids to the tissues of the orbit after the removal of the eyeball, for in such cases the conjunctival sac is obliterated and prevents the use of an artificial eye. Milder degrees of this condition result from destruction of too much conjunctiva in careless enucleations. Continuous wearing of ill fitting glass eyes that irritate the conjunctiva may cause bands of scar tissue that will seriously contract the culdesacs.

More severe forms follow destruction of the eyeball and the orbital tissues from deep burns or injury of this region by explosion or shell wounds. In the healing of such wounds, large, firm masses of scar tissue are formed which bind the lids firmly to the deeper structures. These cases of total symblepharon are the kind that were regarded as incurable by the older ophthalmic surgeons. Arlt had no operation for them. Knapp had seen no more than temporary improvement in the treatment of them, and regarded the condition as hopeless. Fuchs[1] says: "Cases of extensive symblepharon posterius, and obviously also cases of symblepharon totale, are incurable. The same is true of symblepharon induced by the gradual shrinking of the conjunctiva."

The problem in the treatment of these cases is the same, altho modified by the degree of the condition, and that problem concerns the restoration of the conjunctival culdesac or one that simulates it. If the eyeball is present, the culdesac is to be restored to allow mobility and prevent the irritation of the eye by the dragging on the adhesions. If the eyeball is absent, the culdesacs are to be restored to furnish a socket for the comfortable wearing of a prosthesis.

EARLY TREATMENT FOLLOWING BURNS OF THE CONJUNCTIVA TO PREVENT SYMBLEPHARON

When the eye is burned severely by chemicals, by gas flames or by molten metal splashing into it, the part of the conjunctiva affected is usually destroyed at once and in a few days sloughs off. Such a burn corresponds to a second degree burn of the skin, and the amount of damage done to the parts beneath the conjunctiva will naturally depend on the degree of the heat that strikes the part, and the length of time it acts. Usually a very small quantity of fluid chemical substance gets into the conjunctival sac, and this may be more or less neutralized by the copious supply of tears that is thrown out.

With burns from gas flames, the prompt closure of the lids protects the conjunctiva to a certain extent, and the greater part of the injury is done to the outer surface of the lids, altho the cornea and ocular conjunctiva may suffer. When molten metal gets into the eye, altho the quantity may be small, the spasm of the lids may hold it firmly in the conjunctival sac, where it continues to burn the tissues with which it is in contact until its heat is lost. As a result, the destruction may be deep.

In any such case in which the conjunctiva is destroyed in whole or in part, the eschar must be cast off before healing can begin. Granulation tissue develops to replace the lost substance, and from this fibrous or cicatricial tissue forms. Two granulating apposed surfaces will certainly grow together in spite of frequent attempts to separate them unless epithelium forms over the surface to prevent it. But it is just in such cases as these, in which the tissues have been injured by heat or the corrosive action of chemicals, that the regenerative power of the epithelium seems to be impaired.

It is at this stage that the surgeon can come to the help of nature and by aiding in the epithelization of the wound prevent much of the cicatriza-

tion that will inevitably produce great deformity if not checked. As soon as it is evident that the wounded surface is clean and granulation is well under way, attempts should be made to cover the raw surfaces with epithelium, for the sooner this is accomplished the sooner will the formation of cicatricial tissue be checked. The general surgeon, recognizing this principle, covers denuded areas that cannot be accurately apposed as soon as possible with thin layers of epidermis. This can be done at the time of operation if cutaneous tissues have been sacrificed, but in case of loss of tissue from burns or corrosives, he must wait until it is evident that repair is beginning after the shock to the tissues.

In the case of the injured conjunctiva, the difficulty of accurately implanting thin grafts of epidermis or mucous membrane is greater than would be encountered on most surfaces of the body. Again, if the eyeball remains, and is not too badly injured to require removal, the integrity of the cornea must be carefully considered in any reparative means to be employed.

These difficulties can be overcome by the use of suitably prepared plates conforming to the shape of the eyeball and to the conjunctival sac to hold the layers of epithelium smoothly in contact with the raw surfaces. The device employed must be such that it will not injure the cornea.

A glass plate or porcelain shell with a curvature like that of the eyeball, as recommended by Morton[2] and May[3] has been succesfully employed. Hotz[4] employed a thin lead plate for the purpose of holding the graft in place. H. W. Woodruff[5] used a sheet of block tin cut to the required size and molded to the proper curvature. But whatever material is used for the support, it is well to have a circular opening in the plate at least the size of the cornea; and to insure the least possible irritation of the cornea, the plate should be coated with a layer of hard paraffin of a melting point of 130 or higher, if it can be obtained. I[6] first described this device in a paper presented to this section in 1906 (Fig. 1).

My preference is for a plate made of a sheet of block tin about 1 mm. thick, which can be easily sterilized and fashioned with knife, scissors and file to the required shape and size, so that it will fit into the culdesac above and below. The paraffin to cover it should be hard so that it will not soften down too much by the heat of the body and be thrown into ridges or hummocks by the movement of the lids. Repeated boiling of such paraffin will raise the melting point and make it harder.

To coat the plate, after it has been made the proper shape and size and sterilized, it is held by its edge with light forceps and dipped quickly into the melted paraffin contained in a wide mouthed vessel like a graduate glass. This vessel with the melted paraffin should be in a dish of hot water to prevent congelation or thickening, otherwise the layer of paraffin deposited on the plate will be uneven. The thin layer that adheres to the metal can be quickly set by dipping it into cold water, and it can be repeatedly dipped into the paraffin and into the water until it has an even coating of the proper thickness.

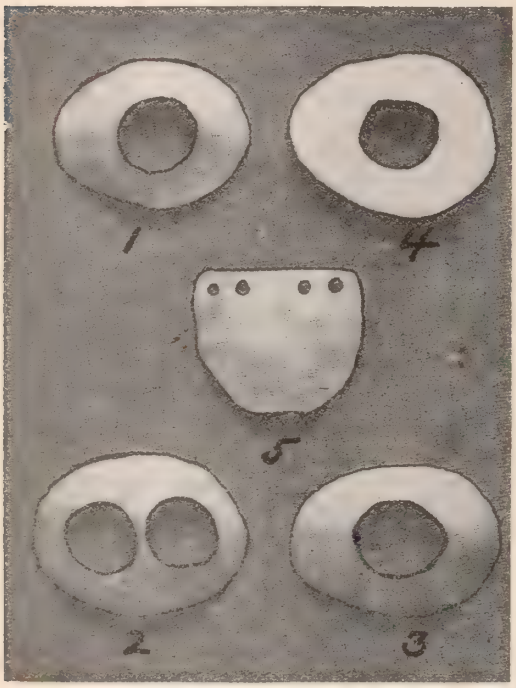
Such a smooth paraffin-coated plate offers little irritation to the eyeball, even if the cornea is intact, and can be safely employed to keep the raw surfaces of the eyelids separated from those of the eyeball during the healing following a burn of the conjunctiva.

But this alone is not sufficient. As soon as the eschar has been cast off and granulation has begun, attempts should be made to restore epithelium to the injured area, and this can be done in the form of mucous membrane or of thin grafts of epidermis which are held in place by the plate. Naturally, mucous grafts are preferable for this situation, and if the area to be covered is not too large, suitable ones can be cut with the section razor from the inside of the lips, or from the inner surface of the labia or vagina in women.

Hotz[7] was one of the first to advocate that thin Thiersch grafts from the

less hairy parts of the skin are suitable for replacing the conjunctival culdesac in symblepharon. C. H. May[3] reported the successful use of Thiersch grafts, held in place by thin porcelain plates, in an operation for total symblepharon performed in 1897.

When mucous grafts are not available, and usually they are not, Thiersch grafts may be employed. In



In the illustration, 1 and 3 represent block tin plates prepared for the symblepharon operation, the cornea being present; 2, a plate used for restoring culdesac for prosthesis; this would be coated with paraffin; 4, a similar plate coated with paraffin; 5, plate to be sewed to the lid in the method of Hotz and Woodruff.

cases such as those we are considering, these grafts should be cut very thin from the inside of the arm with a flat back razor such as is used for section cutting. The thin strip of epidermis, which should be larger than the area to be covered, should be transferred directly from the razor to the paraffin plate, over the edge of which it is folded with a spatula or with the gloved fingers, the raw surface being outward. It adheres well to the paraffin surface and can be smoothed out so that no wrinkles are present, and its position on the plate can be shifted as desired.

During this gentle manipulation of the graft, an assistant should keep it moist by dropping warm saline solution on it. The plate should then be carefully inserted into the culdesac, an assistant helping with retractors, the graft-covered edge being the first introduced. If the two culdesacs are treated at the same time, the lower graft can be held more firmly to the plate by a couple of fine sutures passed thru its edges at suitable points and the hole in the plate. This prevents it being wiped off or displaced when it is inserted.

If the plate has been properly constructed and the operation carefully performed, the raw surface of the graft will be perfectly coapted to the raw surface of the lid and the culdesac, and should adhere firmly. If the cornea is denuded at any point, it would be well to defer the application of the graft until epithelium has formed over the denuded cornea, or to limit the graft to the raw surface of the deeper part of the culdesac. An attempt could be made at a later treatment to cover the raw surface of the lid that is likely to come into contact with the cornea, with a mucous graft applied on the plate in the same manner. The culdesac should receive the first attention.

Early attempts at covering the raw surfaces with epithelium in this manner, as soon as it is evident that the tissues are undergoing healthy repair, will do much to prevent serious symblepharon that later would require more extensive operation.

Once symblepharon has occurred, the method of treatment will depend on the degree of the condition. In simpler cases in which the eyelid is attached to the eyeball at one point, the operation of Arlt may be sufficient, or a more extensive adhesion may require the covering of the defect on the eyeball with flaps of conjunctiva, which may be done after the well known methods of Teale or Knapp.

But if the loss of conjunctiva is too great to allow covering with conjunctival flaps, recourse must be had to grafts of mucous membrane or epidermis, and these must be held in place by some kind of conforming plate.

In preparing the culdesac for the graft by dissecting the lid from the eyeball, it is important that the incision should follow close to the tarsus, if that is left, so that the lid will not be too thick. Scar tissue on the eyeball or lid or fornix should be trimmed off if possible, and it is well to err on the side of making the culdesac too deep rather than too shallow. The graft that is used should be in one piece and somewhat larger than the area to be covered. No sutures are necessary, for the plate should hold it well in place. It adheres only to the raw surface; the overlapping edges are either cast off or can be trimmed away later at one of the dressings.

RESTORATION OF THE ORBITAL SOCKET FOR PROSTHESIS

Here again the problem is that of lining with epithelium the culdesac that is made after dissecting the lids free from the orbital tissue, which is usually badly scarred. Uhthoff[8] says that in 600 eye cases seen by him during the war, 11 percent were wounds of the orbit, and that in numbers of cases of plastic operation on the lids and conjunctiva he was able to make possible the wearing of a prosthesis. He emphasizes the importance of prompt and accurate sutures of wounds to prevent the formation of cicatricial tissue.

Poulard and Réal[9] describe a means of holding a gutta percha plate firmly in the upper culdesac so as to prevent bands of cicatricial tissue from obliterating it. The plate is fashioned from a model of a wax impression of the orbit and then is mounted on the small arm of an apparatus fastened around the head. The arm holding the plate is adjustable so that when the apparatus is in position, pressure will be made on the part of the orbit desired to hold the prosthesis.

Morax,[10] commenting on the difficulty of obtaining a new cavity for prosthesis in total symblepharon, offers a new operation. The lids are cut loose from the underlying tissue to which they are attached, in such a manner that they form large flaps, which are everted and stitched to the skin above and below. The exposed raw surfaces are then covered with wide epidermal grafts. At the end of three weeks the flaps are released and sutured together over a plate of enamel or lead. This remains for six weeks or longer, and then the lids are separated and the socket is ready for the prosthesis.

Various methods have been devised and practiced for forming the new culdesac of pedunculated flaps or skin from the parts adjacent to the orbit. Maxwell[11] uses a bridge flap from the cheek to restore the lower culdesac. Schwenk and Posey[12] use a pedicled flap from above the brow to line the upper culdesac, and combine this with a Maxwell operation for the lower culdesac. Danis[13] describes an ingenious operation in which he uses a temporofrontal pedicled flap for restoration of the lower culdesac.

In all such operations a conforming plate must be used to hold the flap well in position, and it is best to have one or more small openings in it to allow for drainage and cleansing. The most important part of the problem is to prevent the subsequent contraction of the culdesac. To approach a solution of this it is necessary, first, to make the dissection deep enough. It should extend to the margin of the orbit, so that the periosteum may be seen. Secondly, it is necessary to dissect away all scar tissue that will tend to cause retraction of the culdesac. In order to accomplish this it is best to make a free division of the external canthus, and with this help a larger plate can be inserted. For such cases there is an advantage in having the graft firmer than the thin Thiersch grafts used for simple cases. The grafts can be cut so as to include more of the corium, and, if desired, when the plate is in position, one or more loop

sutures, armed with two needles may be passed thru the graft at the bottom of the culdesac and made to pass thru the periosteum before emerging on the cheek, where they are tied over a roll of gauze. This is the value of the operation of Weeks, who restores the culdesacs with Wolff grafts which are secured in place by sutures which anchor it to the periosteum and emerge on the cheek.

The paraffin plate alone cut to the proper size is usually sufficient and forces the graft evenly into every part of the pocket. The canthus should be restored with sutures and a moist dressing applied. The plate is not removed for several days, at which time the grafts will be rather firmly adherent.

The socket can be irrigated thru the opening in the plate. Care should be taken in removing it that the graft is not torn away, but it usually slides out easily. If there is difficulty in reinserting it, it may be trimmed slightly, or it may be cut in two along the horizontal middle line and hinged by boring small holes at proper points and uniting the two halves with firm silk or small wire. Each half is then coated with hard paraffin as before, and it can be reinserted.

Some form of plate, and as large a one as possible, should be worn for several weeks to hold the shape of the new culdesac. The paraffin plate irritates the new socket as little as anything I have used. For such restored sockets, artificial eyes should be especially made, the ordinary ones making irregular pressure and tending to cause the development of scar tissue.

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VISUAL DISABILITY FROM EYE INJURY AND COMPENSATION

Samuel G. Higgins, M. D.

Milwaukee, Wis.

This report prepared for the Milwaukee Oto-Ophthalmic Society on visual disability from eye injury and compensation to be allowed by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, was read before the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, May, 1919.

The need for a table or working plan for the adjustment of compensation to employees for eye injuries was brought to the attention of the Milwaukee Oto-Ophthalmic Society by a set of direct questions submitted by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin. The commission stated that they desired to govern their decision by our replies.

The questions asked us were these:

First. Is a table recording vision by reading the Snellen test type letters practical?

Second. Is there a compensation disability accruing to the man whose vision has been impaired by accident, but with the use of a clear lens may be brought to normal?

Third. What is the compensation disability of an employee whose injury has caused a dilation of the pupil and who is required to constantly wear a colored lens?

Fourth. What is the compensation disability accruing to the employee where the injury has caused a cataract and the loss, in addition to loss of vision, includes loss of power of accommodation?

Fifth. What is the compensation disability in case of double vision?

Other questions arising in the day's work of the commission were mentioned. One requiring the judgment of an ophthalmologic jury or court is that concerning the compensation disability accruing to that employee who sustains a traumatic cataract and who refuses operation for removal of the cataract.

The essence of the whole discussion is to establish an equitable settlement by the Commission, according to the enacted law for compensation for eye injury. To do this a mutual understanding of the position of the commission and of the logic of the physicians is essential. The commission informed us that the special legislative committee of 1909 recommended a Workmen's Compensation Act which was passed in Wisconsin in 1911, amended in 1913, 1915 and 1917 and that further amendments are before the legislature now in session. Oculists, as citizens, may suggest amendments, or aid in legislative passage. At present the report requested of the physician or oculist is regarding the disability; and the business of the commission is the awarding of the compensation which may be legally and justly allowed for such disability. In other words, we may state our opinion as to the injury in terms of disability or loss of vision and the commission may state its opinion in terms of compensation or money allowed therefor.

There is written into the law of Wisconsin to date a schedule of fixed benefits, stating that the compensation to be paid shall be 65 per cent of the average weekly earnings of the employees for the period named in the schedule, to-wit:

The loss of an eye by enucleation, 160 weeks.

The loss of the second eye by enucleation, 320 weeks.

Total blindness of one eye, 140 weeks.

Total blindness of the second eye, 280 weeks.

It may be of passing interest to know that the award for total deafness of both ears is 160 weeks; total deafness of one ear, 40 weeks; total deafness of the second ear, 120 weeks. Also that the award for the loss of one arm at or near the shoulder is 240 weeks; and the loss of a hand is 160 weeks, and that the loss of a foot at the ankle approximates the award for the loss of an eye, being 120 weeks.

The figures are mentioned in view of the testimony of physicians whose

sworn opinion held that a man, whose vision was reduced by injury to 20/40, should receive one-half of the 140 weeks' pay, the 140 weeks representing compensation for the total loss of vision in one eye. It may be the honest opinion of the physician that a man should receive 70 weeks' pay for the risk, pain and suffering and 20/40 vision due to an eye injury, but risk, pain, suffering, etc. are not written in the law and are not compensated for.

There are other legal limitations to our discussions in Wisconsin, viz: that at present the law does not mention the nature, kind, nor character of the occupation of the injured employee, nor compensating him with that in mind. Neither is there a provision requiring information concerning the vision in either eye of the employee before the injury was sustained. The physicians in Wisconsin have the pleasure of acknowledging that the interpretation of the disabilities, due to eye injury, and the amount of compensation allowed by the commission, always attempted to be fair and liberal.

Having learned the position of the commission the Society wished to inform the commission of their rights and stand. In the first place the Society was unanimous in stating that the vision which is recorded 20/40 on reading a certain line of Snellen type, does not represent vision which is ½ of total blindness. They further thought that a table could be agreed upon by the oculists in this Society and other Ophthalmological Societies which would be interpreted in terms of amount or portion of loss of vision. However, due to the intricate factors associated in the visual act and disturbances of these by an injury, the process of employing and enjoying vision is subject to more variances and interpretation than can be expressed in any one table. Therefore, the visual disability must be submitted to the commission by the testimony of one or more oculists in each given case. That further the commission could not in all cases accept the recording by the Snellen method of loss of vision in one eye, to be the full equivalent of visual disability without an opinion or explanation of visual disability by an oculist.

The table approved by the Milwaukee Oto-Ophthalmic Society is similar to the state law in one respect and that is that it may be amended. We are anxious to meet with and accept your table or suggestions where we can simplify our answers to the commission and further submit a scheme or plan which may be understood by all parties concerned. By reference to the recent reports it is found that we all agree that what we record as 20/40 vision does not represent one-half either of normal vision or total blindness. In the Milwaukee table 20/40 vision represents 94% of vision or a 6% loss of vision.

Dr. Prince and others, in Springfield, agree on a basis of settlement of 100 weeks for total loss of vision—that for partial loss of vision of 20/40, five weeks should be awarded. That is practically 5/100 of 100 weeks or 5% of the award for total loss of vision.

Dr. Chapman's table presented to the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, in Pittsburg in 1917, allows that 20/40 is 90% of vision or a loss of 10%.

Dr. Frank Allport suggested in conversation that if an accident insurance policy allowed $2,000 for blindness, an injured man with 20/40 vision should receive an award of $400.00. That would be 400/2000 of the amount for blindness or 20/100, or may I say this is 20% of the total award.

If compensation measures disability, we have an expression of 20/40 vision in these various tables of 3%, 5%, 10% and 20% of the amount to be awarded for total blindness. The Milwaukee Oto-Ophthalmic Society have in mind adding two large letters to the Snellen chart, one to read 20/310, said to be equal to 84% loss of vision, and one 20/350, said to be 100% loss of vision, or industrial blindness.

Perhaps the report of the Committee of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society recommending 5/100 as industrial blindness would be more prac-

tical. I am told that the army standard is 5/200 which may be even more easy of application and a fairer measure. Dr. Prince puts down nil for total blindness, and awards 75 weeks for 10/200 vision. Dr. Allport would allow $1,200 for 20/200 vision when the award for total blindness is $2,000. May I not assume that we are willing to set some sort of light perception or reading of visual acuity as Industrial Blindness?

To refer to first principles again, I may say that it seems to me that an Industrial Commission or jury or legal court are inclined to accept a visual acuity record as an expression of visual disability.

With this in mind we proceeded with direct answers to the question submitted to us. We also recalled the arguments with the optometrists regarding the prescribing of glasses in which we held that to be a medical act. We believe that defective vision due to trauma should be restored by lenses to be prescribed. Therefore, the vision is taken without and with glasses. The better vision of the two is that recorded.

Question number two raised by the Commission is: What compensation disability, if any, is accruing to the man whose vision has been impaired by accident, but with the use of a clear lens may be brought to normal? The answer is that he is entitled to a disability amounting to one-half of the difference between his vision without correction, and with correction, plus any defect remaining after corrective glasses are given.

To illustrate, a man with vision after accident without glasses is 20/200, with glasses 20/40. The disability of 20/200 vision we scaled at 54% loss, disability at 20/40, at 6% loss, his disability then would be one-half of the difference between 54 and 6 which is 24. His award would be based upon 24% loss of vision. Should his vision be 20/200 without glasses and 20/20 with glasses the total disability would be one-half of that awarded for 54% loss of vision. This is an unlikely case but for the wearing of a high astigmatic lens we considered he still is 24% disabled.

Question number 3, refers to a permanently dilated pupil requiring the wearing of tinted or colored lenses. After some discussion this was agreed to be 5% disability. This would be added to other disability present.

Question number 4, refers to compensation disability accruing to the employee where the injury has caused a cataract; and the loss, in addition to vision, includes loss of power of accommodation. The Society held that the question should have also stated that the loss included both the loss of power of accommodation and the loss of binocular vision. An arbitrary figure of disability was held to be 50% with the additional disability represented by vision obtained with glasses. If the vision is brought up to 20/40 he should have the 6% disability award, plus the 50% disability for the cataract.

The reason for this may be presented to the commission in explanation of what the man has lost, and what he has left. First, if he does not use the lens for this eye, he has lost a large portion of his useful vision. Having lost the power of accommodation because of the removal of the lens, he has also lost the power of binocular vision.

He retains to a large degree his field of vision on the side of the operated eye which is of much value in avoiding accidents, collisions, etc. He retains what Fuchs' calls "A reserve for the future" which is of much value should the originally uninjured eye be destroyed.

The fifth question asked of us was with regard to double vision. The committee of our Society submitted an interesting and expressive report. The report to the commission is as follows:

"The fact of double vision does not warrant granting the total loss of an eye, as there is not loss of an eye but the loss of binocular single vision, which in most cases can be restored either by operation or the wearing of prisms. In many cases the injured very soon learned to ignore the double vision. The question then to decide is,

What is the relative loss between binocular single vision and single ocular vision? They have the use of both eyes, but only one eye at a time. Therefore, aside from the annoyance, nuisance and poor cosmetic appearance of a blinder being alternately used over the eyes, what would be the interference with their earning capacity?

"Many persons, as for instance jewelers, stenographers, machinists and other industrial trades requiring very accurate vision, would certainly have greater disturbance in performing their work with one eye than would unskilled labor, or most agents of corporations, or officers of banks, life insurance companies, etc. Therefore, it seems as tho our state law should be changed so that the commission can take into consideration the interference of earning capacity in a particular employment. Under existing conditions we believe no percentage table applicable or just, but as the percentage of disability is the information desired, we recommend 25% disability for total loss of vision in one eye in the uncorrectable cases. In cases that are corrected, 12½%."

The Society as a whole cut these percentage figures to 20 and 10.

With regard to the additional question as to disability in case of traumatic cataract when the man refuses operation, the Society did not express a united opinion and will be pleased to know how this question is handled by the Chicago Ophthalmological Society.

In conclusion the Milwaukee table is based upon a 3% loss of vision for every 10 foot loss of ability to read the letters of the Snellen chart up to 20/350 which we allow to be industrial blindness. We do not follow the report of the Committee of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society which appeared in the *Ophthalmic Record* of January, 1917, as we feared the report on the whole would not be understood by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

The vision of both eyes does mean much in the estimation of visual disability. But if no regard is made of the vision of either eye before injury settlement can hardly be based upon this after injury. It is difficult enough when estimation deals with the one injured eye alone. No complaint has impressed the commission as to loss of stereoscopic vision. This faculty is restored upon effort. Moreover, some of us are not so sure that stereoscopic vision is entirely dependent upon two equally good seeing eyes.

Human interest, plus the statement of the man and testimony of oculists, tends to give more compensation rather than less for disfiguring injury with bad cosmetic effect. We believe compensation should vary with character of employment. This is not yet written in the Wisconsin law. This does not limit our report as to visual disability. Simplicity in the table should be our watchword.

20/ 20=	100%	vision and	no loss of vision
20/ 30=	97%	vision and	3% loss of vision
20/ 40=	94%	vision and	6% loss of vision
20/ 50=	91%	vision and	9% loss of vision
20/ 60=	88%	vision and	12% loss of vision
20/ 70=	85%	vision and	15% loss of vision
20/ 80=	82%	vision and	18% loss of vision
20/ 90=	79%	vision and	21% loss of vision
20/100=	76%	vision and	24% loss of vision
20/110=	73%	vision and	27% loss of vision
20/120=	70%	vision and	30% loss of vision
20/140=	64%	vision and	36% loss of vision
20/130=	67%	vision and	33% loss of vision
20/150=	61%	vision and	39% loss of vision
20/160=	58%	vision and	42% loss of vision
20/170=	55%	vision and	45% loss of vision
20/180=	52%	vision and	48% loss of vision
20/190=	49%	vision and	51% loss of vision
20/200=	46%	vision and	54% loss of vision
20/210=	43%	vision and	57% loss of vision
20/220=	40%	vision and	60% loss of vision
20/230=	37%	vision and	63% loss of vision
20/240=	34%	vision and	66% loss of vision
20/250=	31%	vision and	69% loss of vision
20/260=	28%	vision and	72% loss of vision
20/270=	25%	vision and	75% loss of vision
20/280=	22%	vision and	78% loss of vision
20/300=	19%	vision and	81% loss of vision
20/310=	16%	vision and	84% loss of vision
20/320=	10%	vision and	90% loss of vision
20/330=	7%	vision and	93% loss of vision
20/340=	4%	vision and	96% loss of vision
20/350=	1%	vision and	99% loss of vision

NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

RETINAL EMBOLISM

CLARENCE A. VEASEY, M. D.

SPOKANE, WASHINGTON

Embolism of the superior branch of the central retinal artery, the lower half of the visual field remaining permanently abolished.—O. R., a married female, aged about thirty years, consulted me September 8th, 1909. She stated that four days before she had discovered upon waking in the morning that the vision of the left eye was abolished. Vision of R. equaled 5/5 and the patient read easily Jaeger 1. Vision of L. equalled 5/22, the patient being unable to read any Jaeger type. The pupils of both eyes responded to all tests. The media were perfectly clear, but the disc of R. was exceedingly pale in the upper half on the nasal side and the upper two-thirds on the temporal side. There was marked loss of translucency in the disc, the physiologic cup being apparently covered with a thin more or less opaque veil-like substance at about the level of the disc itself. All of the arterial branches arising from the superior branch of the central retinal artery were found dwindled to mere threads, there being no discernible blood current in them. The veins also appeared to be not more than one-third their normal size and the upper half of the retina supplied by these vessels was at that time exceedingly opaque. There were no hemorrhages, and no cherry red spot in the macula was observed. The inferior branch of the central retinal artery and all its branches were quite normal. The lower half of the visual field was entirely abolished, the fixation point itself remaining in the preserved portion.

Deep massage, the employment of nitroglycerin and the iodides caused the restoration of normal vision in five days' time. The retinal edema, however, did not begin to disappear until some days later. There were no lines along the blood vessels indicative of perivasculitis. There was a small artery coming from the physiologic cup and passing out to the macular region just as the superior branches and which evidently came off from the superior. No coarse macular changes took place.

Examination of the urine was negative, but there was a marked systolic heart murmur, more noticeable in the neighborhood of the apex. For more than one year prior to this attack the

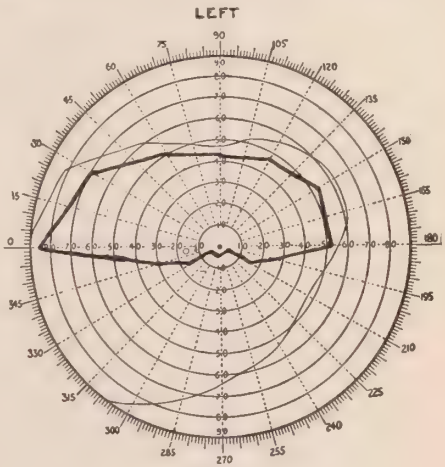


Fig. 1.

patient had observed periods of obscuration of vision and what she called "black spots" (probably arterial spasm), these attacks lasting only a few minutes at a time. Two months later the patient's visual acuity was 5/5 in each eye and the patient could read Jaeger 1. The lower half of the visual field remained entirely abolished.

HIGH MYOPIC ASTIGMATISM

CLARA A. MARCH, M. D.

BUFFALO, N. Y.

The following case seems to be worthy of mention because of the unusually high degree of compound myopic astigmatism. The patient, Miss M. A., a nurse, came to my office August 9, 1919, having been referred to me by Dr. Bennett. She complained of headache in the frontal region, usually

in the morning. The headaches had been continuous for the last three weeks. They were frequently accompanied by nausea and vomiting. Vision: R. 3/200, L. 5/200. Under cycloplegia with homatropin the skiascopy was R. —27 ⌒ —13; L. —27 ⌒ —12. The media were clear and the fundi were normal.

The right —13. sph. ⌒ —14. cyl. axis 7½° V. = 20/50.

Left —12 sph. ⌒ —15. cyl. axis 157½° V. = 20/40.

August 14, the patient returned and I prescribed:

Right —12 sph. ⌒ —12. cyl. axis 15° V. = 20/50.

Left —12 sph. ⌒ —14. cyl. axis 165° V. = 20/40.

With plus 3. added for near work, the patient read No. 5 Jaeger at 13 inches. She said she never saw so well before.

CONGENITAL APHAKIA

P. B. Wing, M.D., F. A. C. S.

SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA

In 1915, while practicing in Tacoma, Washington, I was asked by one of the obstetricians to examine the eyes of a new-born girl baby at one of the local hospitals.

I found every appearance of complete double congenital cataract, the pupils were uniformly gray; otherwise the eyes were apparently normal. Contrary to the usual history of such cases the child was well nourished, strong, of good size and showing no signs of poor development, low vitality and low mentality that I have so often seen in such cases.

When the child was about six months old I was requested to operate. The patient was prepared for the operation by my assistant, Dr. J. H. Spencer, the pupil was dilated and a general anesthetic given and I proceeded to open what I supposed to be the anterior capsule; much to my surprise I found only a thin membrane.

The knife needle was inserted in the usual manner to do the ordinary first needling and when withdrawn a small black opening remained. There was no reaction and a few days later I operated on the other eye, this time, however, I dilated the pupil as before and with the knife needle split the capsule with a large inverted V-shaped incision; there was no lens matter, nothing but the capsule like membrane.

In a few days the same operation was done on the first eye. Large black pupils at once resulted. No reaction from the operation, no flakes of lens matter appeared in the pupil or in the anterior chamber.

The child is now four years of age, a well-developed, intelligent baby girl, pupils are round and clear, fundus normal, and with a plus 7 D. lens she quickly picks up a pin from the floor and sees objects like a nickle, a pencil, or penknife at a distance of twenty feet. There is a slight convergence which may have to be corrected later by an operation. I have been unable to find a similar case reported; most authors do not mention it, one or two state that such cases are on record, but doubt the authenticity of them.

I beg to be excused for not making a more accurate diagnosis, but as I did not dilate the pupil or give an anesthetic until the time of operation, and as my assistant prepared the patient, I did not examine as carefully as I might have done. The anterior chamber appeared normal in depth and the iris was not tremulous. I am of the opinion, however, all things considered, that my diagnosis would have been the same until the operation cleared it up.

I am certain that the lens was not absorbed after birth as there was no injury during labor, which was normal and easy, also there was no reason to think that absorption took place in utero. It simply was absent.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

NETHERLANDS OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

FIFTY-FOURTH MEETING, DECEMBER 15, 1918.

DR. C. NICOLAI in the Chair.

Treatment of Corneal Ulcer with Optochin.

H. F. DUBOIS mentioned it is about 5 years since optochin was introduced for hypopyon ulcer. He has been unable to examine all his cases microscopically. His survey includes cases with and without dacryocystitis and can be divided into true serpent ulcer, hypopyon ulcer not serpiginous, abscess of cornea and hypopyon keratitis.

During the last 10 years, he has been able to treat, until discharge, 85 cases, chiefly among a rural population; 54 men and 31 women; 54 of the 85 were between their 50th and 70th years. The youngest was 7, the oldest 90 years. In 37 the cause was a trauma. In 48 (56%) blennorrhea of the lacrimal sac was present; 51 were typical serpent ulcer, of which 36 had a dacryocystitis; nonserpiginous, 29, of which 12 had dacryocystitis. Two cases were of corneal abscess and 3 were hypopyon keratitis in the form of keratomycosis; 60 cases were taken into the hospital.

All factors taken together, the conclusion is that hypopyon ulcer does not heal better than without optochin. The results are the same as before the optochin treatment. The first impression that hospital treatment would be less necessary, has proven wrong. Galvanocautery and paracentesis, with optochin treatment are less necessary. It shows a better action in the cases with dacryocystitis, than in the cases without affection of the lacrimal sac. Instituted early, optochin treatment is not able to stop further extension of the ulcer.

In the beginning optochin was used in a 1% salve, 3 to 6 daily applications in the conjunctival sac, later as drops in a 2% solution every two hours. Dubois learned that one cannot be too careful in the appreciation of a new therapeutic measure, and should not take the general impression of each separate case, but must compare two equal unselected series of cases, in one of which the measure is used, in the other not.

DISCUSSION. Van der Hoeve was sorry that no bacteriologic examination had been made, as the value of these otherwise important statistics rises or falls with the more or less frequent presence of the pneumococci and other organisms. He asked an explanation for the great number of cases in which Breda mentions the very changing course of the disease and the changing effect of the optochin treatment. He uses optochin in every cataract operation before extraction, pneumococci being present or absent.

Snellen considered that the favorable effect in the cases with dacryocystitis, demonstrates a favorable influence on the pneumococci; he spoke of the many cases of hypopyon ulcer where pneumococci are absent. He saw especially a favorable influence in beginning cases. He could not say much of the anesthesia and considers that mydriatics have a less favorable influence.

Van Romunde stated that the simultaneous use of optochin and atropin produces an undesirable chemical reaction, which makes the success of the application illusory.

Tresling had good results with pure pneumococcic ulcers, no results with more serious cases, and pointed out the necessity of having fresh solutions. He is in favor of its preventive use in case of operations.

Weve spoke about the quick poisoning of the pneumococci and the value of touching the ulcer with a strong concentration and after that instillations of weaker solutions. Wessely's treatment of these cases should be mentioned.

Nicolai is still satisfied with zinc salicylat, with which he touches the ulcer and which he uses as drops, and without bandage. He does not see any benefit in the preventive use.

Van Der Hoeve would not give up the preventive application and mentioned the different local malignancy of the serpent ulcer. Dubois, answering thought that even with the absence of bacteriologic examination a curative action should have appeared.

Von Hippel's Disease: Retinal Angiomatosis.

A. W. Mulock Houwer showed a girl, 23 years old, who had received a blow on R. 10 years ago. The eye became blind. In July, 1918, she consulted an oculist as L. saw badly for the last 4 months. Vision was then 1/60 with a much contracted field. The marked indolence of the patient was remarkable. R. was now quiet with shallow anterior chamber, atrophic iris, occluded pupil, normal tension, and absence of light perception.

The anterior part of L. remained normal, some fine and larger opacities were in the vitreous, especially in the upper part. In the retina were two groups of red knobs: one up and peripheral, one temporal and pheripheral. Strongly dilated vessels, which cannot be distinguished as veins, going toward these knobs. Surrounding the knobs was massive white tissue. Also larger and smaller white spots were seen in the retina, and many clear glistening white points, especially in the region of the yellow spot. At the lower part of the retina was a transparent flat detachment, thru which many glittering spots in the subretinal cavity could be seen. No other changes.

Altho she complained much of headache, neurologically nothing could be found. Careful Roentgen treatment had no success. A very large retinal detachment in the lower half was present, which covered the optic nerve and the lower half of the temporal knobs. Vision had diminished to light perception. Houwer considered von Hippel's opinion, that this condition was due to an angiomatosis, as the most probable.

Thrombosis of Vorticose Vein.

A. W. Mulock Houwer presented a case of thrombosis of a vorticose vein. A carbuncle progressed from the forehead into the orbit. Exenteration of the orbit was done to save life, as the eye had become blind and appeared glaucomatous. Pathologico-anatomically the temporal vorticose vein was found thrombosed; its intraocular part was much dilated.

Method for Detection of Malingerers.

A. van de Moer has had an experience of at least 25 years as a military examiner. For some 18 years he has used his method among some 80 ways for detection of one sided diminution of vision or blindness. It is based on the fact that a colored glass conceals the complementary color, when the background is black, red letters on a black background are invisible thru a green glass, and vice versa. It is also known, that red letters on a white background cannot be seen thru a red glass. Green and blue on a white background are never invisible thru green or blue glasses, as von Haselberg mentions.

His method for detecting amblyopia in one eye, when the vision and fixation of that eye rests on this insufficiently appreciated circumstance, that while red letters on a white background become invisible thru a red glass, blue letters on a white background remain visible thru the blue and yellow glasses in the test cases. He writes blue and red letters on white paper. Some experiments can be done with the examinee, where it is indifferent if he closes one eye, because all colored letters remain visible thru blue or yellow glasses. To mislead, black letters are shown thru red glasses. The colored glass is held always before the best eye and the examinee thinks (and this is demonstrated to him, by closing the diseased eye for a moment) that he reads all letters with his sound eye. No glasses are held before the sick eye, so that this can be controlled constantly. Finally a red glass is held before the sound eye and the red letters which are now read must be seen by the alleged weak eye. If the examinee closes this eye the examiner,

(an assistant holds the colored glasses before the sound eye) turns the page with the red and blue letters, which he has in his hands, so that the examinee is unable to determine what he sees with the weak and what with the sound eye.

The advantages of this method are that the weak eye remains uncovered and under control; that a malingerer must be well instructed before being tested; and that the armamentarium consists only of 3 glasses, red, blue, yellow, and a red-blue pencil.

Discussion. Nicolai objected to the writing every time of the letters, which must impair the exactness of the determination of vision.

Van de Moer thought that less suspicion of the examinee is excited. During the demonstration Roelofs pointed out how the patient without closing one eye can become enlightened as to the question with which eye he sees certain letters.

Pupillary Reaction in Complementary Light.

H. Weve related Behr's hypothesis of 1913; the nasal half of the retina stimulated produces only a direct pupillary reaction, while the response of the temporal half to the light stimulus is only indirect or consensual pupillary narrowing. This would be explained by a double complete crossing of the united pupillomotor fibres in each tract before reaching the nucleus of the sphincter pupillae. This did not concern the foveal part. He must suppose that the temporal and the nasal pupillomotor receive stimuli and are in relation with both nuclear zones. Behr did not consider, as did Hess, the first appearing then quickly decreasing contraction; but the pupillary width, to a certain extent, could be considered constant. It was not impossible that other reflex tracts were involved and a control investigation of Behr's observations was needed.

Behr's method could not be exactly followed, and the indirect reaction can only be studied in cases of one sided amaurosis with entirely normal pupillary reflex paths, with the other eye perfectly normal. This material is very scarce, as appears from Behr's cases, half of which are useless.

Weve sought a method wherewith he could measure the direct and indirect reactions in perfectly normal persons at the same time. Sachs and Hess have demonstrated that the pupillomotor action of rays of different wave-length is proportionate to the impression of brightness of these rays, and it is a fact that fovea and periphery of retina show the same adaptive symptoms with regard to the pupillomotor function as to the visual functions. Hence we may assume that the same retinal elements, which we consider as excited by the light stimulus, also act as exciting the pupil reflexes. Retinal elements, which are chiefly sensitive for light of large wave-length, are scarcely excited by light of small wave-length. Considering these facts, Weve could excite, alternatingly, after some changes of the binocular corneal microscope, the temporal and nasal halves of the retina of one eye, 20° from the fixation point and 8° above the horizontal meridian, with light of small wave-length (blue-green 445 to 560$\mu\mu$), while both eyes were illuminated with spectral-red (600-800$\mu\mu$) in entirely the same way.

The 24 eyes of 12 normal persons were excited during half an hour alternately temporally and nasally, with the light of small wave-length and a series of measurements of both pupils were made. Continuous small oscillations of measurements of both pupils were found in all. In 4 during the examination, a distinct regular enlargement of both pupils was seen. In a fifth case it was only slight, and in a sixth, one eye only enlarged. It already possessed "physiologically" a somewhat enlarged pupil. This shows that it is not allowable to draw conclusions from one observation, as Behr did. The observations must succeed each other quickly. Considering the dubious cases as "even" 7 times the "direct" late reaction was greater than the "indirect" and once the reverse. In 16 cases the direct was like the indirect. Parallelism between direct and in-

direct reactions for both retinal halves was found, in sharp contrast with what Behr thought he found in one sided amaurosis. The hypothesis of Behr can be considered hereby refuted.

Essence and Treatment of Scrofulous Eye Inflammations.

L. K. Wolff considers scrofulosis to be a particular form of tuberculosis of the lymph glands; mostly caused by the human form of the bacillus, sometimes by the bovine. The glands of neck and head are mostly affected, sometimes the axillary glands and those above and below the clavicle, rarely the inguinal glands. It would seem as if the glands in the thorax are not affected seriously. Changes in the lungs, demonstrable with percussion and auscultation, are very rare. (W. never found any.) Von Pirquet's reaction has taught that if we find these eye inflammations even without any other scrofulous signs, tuberculosis is present. This reaction is positive in 90 to 100%. In chronic infective diseases we know that immunity and hypersensibility reactions can be found together; that these reactions locally can be bound to determined organs or parts of organs; and that these reactions especially can appear where formerly such a disease process was located, but which became cured. If this knowledge is used in regard to phlyctenular inflammation then we must accept, that earlier in the life of the patient a tuberculous process must have been present, which has become cured thru the natural defensive forces of the organism. This eye has now become hypersensitive toward the tuberculous poison. We have only to accept that now and then tuberculous poisons become mobilized from out the tuberculous lymph glands. This will happen especially, when the outward circumstances are unfavorable. Schreiber has found in 25% of more than 200 cases of phlyctenular inflammation tuberculous foci (or the scars) in the retina or choroid. Wolff thinks rather that the phlyctenules are produced by dead bacilli or poisons, considering the transient process and the quick cure, and also those after tuberculin instillations.

Staphylococci can secondarily impair the patient's condition. We must therefore take these in consideration as regards the treatment. We can influence the process in two ways: by removal of the tuberculous foci, from which the poisons emanate, and thru lessening the tuberculin sensitivity of the eye. The last way has been tried —the tuberculin treatment. With the exception of rare communications in the literature of favorable results, the results have not been very good. Wolff has not seen any results from it. Surgical removal of tuberculous foci gives in many instances of scrofulosis good results.

Roentgen rays have also a good effect on these glands. Fourteen patients have been rayed, who suffered with repeated recurrences. One patient died. In 3 cases the result was not good. One of these had in one year one small phlyctenule and a recurring lymph node. The second patient went somewhere else. The third remained half a year without complaint after raying of the cervical nodes; but this was followed by another phlyctenular period. Cervical nodes can hardly be palpated, but the x-ray picture showed tuberculosis of the hilus glands. Raying of these gave freedom from phlyctenules for at least 4 months. In the other cases raying of the neck-glands had proven sufficient.

Raying took place every three weeks; with filtration by an aluminum filter and removal of the secondary rays with felt. No more than 4 H. was given as a dose. It may be necessary to repeat the series of rayings after a year. No bad results; except sometimes the patient had a dry mouth and some pain in the neck, sometimes the neck became a little thick and red. A few times there appeared a general reaction, fever, which soon abated. Once a phlyctenule appeared after the raying. Some were also generally benefited.

Besides the raying of the tuberculous glands the ocular complications must be treated. A 5% salve of flu-

oresceinas argenti (a red powder, which dissolved in distilled water, directly kills staphylococci) in white vaselin was applied every hour in the conjunctiva. It is painless and gave in some cases a very good result. It is also advisable for obstinate blepharitis. Of the 5 cases of benign ocular tuberculosis, 4 did not recur after raying, altho the process itself does not seem influenced in contrast with the phlyctenular inflammation. Wolff found that careful raying with not more than 1.5 H. in the 3 weeks and filtration thru 5 mm. aluminum does not harm the eye.

Discussion. Weve had good results with the arc-light in scleritis cases; the sittings are short and are cheap.

Wibaut asked if a local connection between phlyctenules and cervical lymph nodes is possible.

De Haas mentioned the good influence on the eye condition by the treatment of the scrofulous skin affections.

Roelofs asked why lymph nodes and not lung tuberculosis leads to eye inflammation, and pointed out the great importance of uncleanliness.

Mulock Houwer often saw among recruits scars of apparent tuberculous choroiditis.

Nicolai asked why bacterial poisons can give now insensibility, then again produce recurrences of phlyctenules.

Wolff had no personal experience with the arc-light; however, arc-light only enhances the general resistance, X-rays remove the tuberculosis focus and act deeper. He does not consider the skin efflorescences in the same line with the tuberculosis of the lymph nodes. He is unable to explain the reverse action of anaphylaxis and immunity. A local connection between eye affection and lymph node tuberculosis is improbable, because they did not appear always simultaneously.

Dr. Van Ree, who treated the patients, used very hard rays thru a filter of 1.5 mm. aluminum, a layer of leather, and sea-weed against the secondary rays; he rayed on both sides behind the angle of the lower jaw. In about 10 minutes 4 Holzknecht were given, with the direct raying of the eye 1.5 H. were given.

Intraocular Pressure with Ophthalmic Herpes.

G. ten Doesschate treated a man, 52 years old, who had suffered with scrofulosis and gonorrhea, who fell from his horse 7 years ago and was wounded on the right side of his nose and forehead. He always saw well (was a sharp-shooter), and received 4 years ago spectacles with both glasses the same. He suffers now with tuberculosis of the lungs and foot. On August 18 he had pain surrounding R. On August 20 he came under treatment for herpes zoster frontalis. The blebs on the forehead were hemorrhagic with very severe pains. On August 28 the eye began to protrude, the tension increased to 60 or 70 mm. Hg. and the pupil became wide. V. R. zero. L. with 0.75=7/6. The cornea was insensible and dull. Pilocarpin and eserin improved the tension only slightly (to 55 mm). As the exophthalmus was considered the cause of the rise of tension a sclero-corneal trephining was done, with the hope that a depletion of the aqueous humor thru the wound would take place until the exophthalmus would be reduced to normal. The tension became low, vision remained zero and the protrusion continued.

A few days later the eye was hard again, then the exophthalmus began to decrease, and the tension fell to normal, and even subnormal. The dull cornea became clear, the disc visible, perhaps slightly pale, but without excavation. The vision increased to 7/50. The field remained strongly contracted (chiefly the temporal part remained). A higher temperature was never found with the exophthalmus, and during the first days of the herpes eruption the temperature was not observed higher than 37.9° C. Only after 7 weeks the beginning of slight iridic symptoms was observed, which yielded to atropin. Sweating was now less on the right side of the head and a slight ptosis was present.

It is probable that the changes in ocular tension which originate thru trigeminus irritation depend on the sympathetic fibers, which are in connection with the first branch of the fifth nerve, and this would explain the changes of ocular pressure which are found with herpes zoster and which would then depend chiefly on disease of the sympathetic. The cases of herpes zoster frontalis, where hypotony is found, can be explained by supposing a sympathetic paralysis. In another case, which Dubois has described (1912) glaucoma was also found with exophthalmus, so that the speaker considered this abnormal position the cause for the glaucoma, as both arise and disappear pari passu.

The digital tonometry is here inaccurate, which may explain why these varieties of tension have been described so little. The hemorrhagic herpes vesicles point to an important injury of the vascular walls or vasomotors, which could produce an edema of the orbital contents.

The intention was to demonstrate that there could exist a close causal connection between herpes and glaucoma, and that the connection should not be looked for in a general morbid condition, as fever, but of more local nature.

Discussion. Verwey thought that Rochat had remonstrated that irritation of the sympathetic had produced rise of intraocular tension.

Ten Doesschate stated that this rise as found by Rochat is quickly followed by a lowering, and that this last is only observed in men.

Mulock Houwer saw a herpes zoster following a periodontitis, which also produced an exophthalmus, which he thought due to the collateral edema. The tension was normal.

Complete Homonymous Hemianopsia in the Puerperium.

H. Weve described this condition, which supports Endelman's opinion. It is connected with eclampsia; and shows with certainty the existence of a vertical dividing line thru the fixation point, with a very high, probably cortical, impediment of the optical paths. The determination of the localization was the only focal symptom; lues could be excluded; Wassermann negative, both blood and spinal fluid; antiluetic treatment without result; normal sella turcica; the phenomena remained the same since the beginning, 12 months before.

2. Hemikinetic pupil reaction was surely absent.

3. No atrophy of the optic nerves.

4. The sudden beginning during the puerperium and the same course as in the described 17 cases points to the same cause.

Consideration leads to the hypothesis that on the basis of "autointoxication" a vascular spasm originates, with or without secondary thrombosis. The observation is inconsistent with the double representation of the fovea.

In the nontraumatic "peace cases" of homonymous hemianopsia with high interruption, a central remaining field was always found; while in the traumatic "war cases" oftener complete hemianopsia has been observed, which may be due to a particular vascularization of the posterior pole and in the invulnerability of the region; which we have to learn to recognize as the probable projection of the fovea, especially thru traumatic homonymous central scotoma.

Discussion. Verwey, to his amazement, did not hear the theory of von Monakow mentioned.

Wibaut and Nicolai do not like to reject the theory of Wilbrand and Saenger entirely; altho the supposition of an individual difference for explanation of the presence of a sharp dividing line is not very acceptable.

Weve considers the rejection of von Monakow's theory by Brouwer sufficient, and it cannot keep its ground against the great number of known macular hemianopic scotomata. The theory of Wilbrand and Saenger, already improbable thru the mentioned auxiliary hypothesis, depends only on the findings of Ramon y Cajal of fiber division in cats, which is absent in dogs and rabbits.

Late Infection after Trephining.

H. F. Dubois had observed his patient since 1913. L. was trephined on August 5, 1916, under cocain anesthesia, the iris did not prolapse. Only next morning a very tiny prolapse existed under the conjunctiva, which was excised, after which the pupil became round again. On August 14, R. was trephined. Iris prolapsed and was cut off. In both eyes a slight iritis appeared, which healed in a few days with homatropin. Patient came on January 19, 1918, with pain in R. since a few days. Tension normal. Deep pericorneal injection and photophobia, ciliary body painful on pressure. Iritis with slightly cloudy aqueous; an iridocyclitis one year and a half after trephining. Scopolamin 0.2% 3 t. d., and 3 grammes aspirin daily, dark spectacles. Next morning the conjunctiva over the trephine opening was slightly touched with the galvanocautery. On January 23 patient could return home. Vision and field have not suffered; the condition remained unchanged the following 8 months.

Dubois considers application of the galvanocautery of high value.

Discussion. Tresling and Nicolai doubt somewhat the diagnosis of "late infection" on account of the benign character, and the absence of a perceptible continuity between scar and inflammation.

Mulock Houwer saw, 10 years after a trauma which had produced a filtrating scar at the corneoscleral junction, a purulent inflammation with hypopyon in the vesicle and in the anterior chamber. After opening and cauterization quick recovery.

Dubois saw the first redness at the place of the scar, and supposes therefore a connection. It was this time not a purulent but a more mild inflammation.

CHICAGO OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

May 12, 1919, Dr. Heman H. Brown, in the Chair.

Visual Disability and Compensation.

Dr. Samuel G. Higgins, of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, (by invitation) presented "The Report of the Milwaukee Oto-Ophthalmological Society on Visual Disability from Eye Injury and Compensation to be Allowed by the Wisconsin Industrial Commission."

This report had been requested by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin as they wished to establish an equitable settlement according to the enacted law for compensation for eye injury. Reference to other tables and attempts to apply a working basis for compensation was made in the paper to show that they were of the same idea in the fundamental estimation of vision. This paper is published in full, p. 813.

Discussion. Major Harry S. Gradle told of the "Compensation Table as Reported to the Chicago Ophthalmological Society" and published in the American Journal of Ophthalmology in July, 1918, p. 457.

The idea of the committee appointed to investigate the matter was to give recompense to the injured man based upon his earning capacity after his recovery from the injury. So many factors entered into the matter that no particular table could be prepared that would cover all cases. They tried to simplify and reduce to an arithmetic basis all the factors upon which the degree of the ocular efficiency of the injured rested, and divided all the results of injuries into ten main heads. He reviewed these different heads and stated that the committee did not attempt to say what compensation should be paid. It was not their rôle as ophthalmologists, because a man earning ten to fifteen dollars a week was not entitled to the same amount as the man earning thirty to forty dollars a week. The amount should be decided by the legislature and was usually based upon the weekly salary. They agreed with Dr. Higgins that 20/40 did not by any means represent a loss of 50 per cent vision, but they could not determine what it represented and had to accept it as 50 per cent loss until some other term was determined. The resultant vision must be taken and the vision of the other eye because compensation was based upon the ocular efficiency of

the man, not upon the injury and what it was, but what the man could do with his eyes after recovery. In the case of a man who did fine work, it was necessary to find out how much depth perception he had and how much he had lost. In the human interest and cosmetic result, if the injury was disfiguring they were entitled to a certain amount of compensation for that alone, no matter what the injury to the eyeball might have been.

As to when the examination should be made—time was a factor; the man would probably think the vision was at the worst stage two or three days after the injury, while if it was something that cleared up slowly the employer would want it taken as late as possible, so they decided that at least two months should elapse between the time of the injury and the time upon which the record of vision was based. They believed this would give a fair idea of the resulting vision.

In the second class of cases with impairment of both eyes they placed the total compensation as three times that for one eye.

The committee still believed that the compensation must be based upon some such data as was contained in the table which they had submitted, altho it was not presented with any idea of its being accepted as final. The committee desired opinions upon that type of table and hoped that eventually there might be some unanimity of opinion among the ophthalmologists as to what was due for ocular injuries. There should be some definite idea so that a lay board might sit down and figure up just what a certain type of injury was entitled to. That would be the only way in which justice could be done to the employer and the employee. There was no table at present that could possibly be made to cover every case and there must be some method of taking into account all the things that represented the ocular efficiency of the injured.

Discussion. Dr. Frank Allport said that he had listened to the argument of Dr. Gradle and also to that of Dr. Higgins in which they advocated the conclusion of the committee of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society and Barnes-Chapman Compensation Table, adopted in Milwaukee. Both of these tables contained many meritorious features, but they were both too complicated, too long, too involved and too complex to be understood by laymen and by many oculists. Compensation tables would have to be framed in such a way as to appeal to the average mind of the average industrial commissioner, lawyer and accident company. These men knew nothing about involved ophthalmologic subjects. What they wanted was something primer-like in its simplicity, and fair and honorable to all parties concerned in such matters. If a table of this nature could be devised and adopted, it would satisfy everybody and give litigation procedures at least some foundation upon which to go in cases where eyes had been injured. It could be taken as a foregone conclusion that if industrial commissions, lawyers and accident insurance companies were requested to adopt complicated recommendations, they would never adopt them at all and things would go on in their present unsatisfactory and chaotic condition. Both the recommendations suggested by Dr. Gradle and Dr. Higgins involved quite a number of points frequently present in cases of visual losses. He referred to progressive optic atrophy, high power convex lenses after cataract extraction, various forms of intraocular diseases, excessive lacrimation, etc. These were all important features and would have to be frequently taken into consideration, but most of them were matters that would have to be settled by expert medical testimony, and were not susceptible of being adjusted by rules or by compensation tables. He, therefore, thought it would be wise not even to mention matters of this kind at the present time because they only complicated the situation and rendered it more improbable that we should ever make a beginning in settling these complex issues. His own idea was for us to make a beginning with the hope that other things would follow. The most important point that came up in

settling litigation, involving visual losses, was as to the amount of visual loss of one eye. He therefore felt that if we could arrive at some reasonably fair agreement concerning a compensation table for matters of this kind, it would be a great step in advance and after this one step had been taken, other steps would follow.

There seemed to be, at the present time, a general desire on the part of all parties concerned in litigation of this kind to adopt some simple table as a working basis to go on. He believed that if a table was suggested and endorsed by oculists it would find a ready adoption by industrial commissions, lawyers, insurance companies, etc., but we must never forget that a table of this kind must be absolutely simple, easy to understand and fair to both plaintiff and defendant. Unless a table of this kind was endorsed by oculists, it would never be adopted in litigation.

The table that he recommended was one suggested by Drs. Prince, Penick and Hagler of Springfield, Illinois. He had made one alteration in the Springfield table, and that was to endeavor to settle the question as to what constituted industrial blindness. The Springfield table indefinitely specified it as "nil," but he did not think that this was sufficient. He thought we should try, as he had said before, to settle what should be estimated as industrial blindness. Personally, he felt that if a man could not see the 200 test type at more than five feet he should be regarded as industrially blind—in other words, 5/200 should indicate industrial blindness. Of course, this was a point that might be argued pro and con—a man who had this amount of vision was, of course, not blind in the strict sense of the word, but he was certainly industrially blind, and could no longer do ordinary work in an ordinary way. He had been told by some prominent accident insurance men that they would endorse this view and personally he felt it was most generous and liberal of them to be willing to accept 5/200 as industrial blindness. He made, therefore, this important change in, what he called, the Springfield table—otherwise the matter was left just as devised by the Springfield doctors. He presented the table herewith:

Industrial blindness or 5/200 entitles an applicant to 100 weeks of compensation.

10/200 entitles an applicant to 75 weeks of compensation.

20/200 entitles an applicant to 50 weeks of compensation.

20/160 entitles an applicant to 40 weeks of compensation.

20/140 entitles an applicant to 35 weeks of compensation.

20/120 entitles an applicant to 30 weeks of compensation.

20/100 entitles an applicant to 25 weeks of compensation.

20/80 entitles an applicant to 20 weeks of compensation.

20/60 entitles an applicant to 15 weeks of compensation.

20/50 entitles an applicant to 10 weeks of compensation.

20/40 entitles an applicant to 5 weeks of compensation.

20/30 entitles an applicant to 2 weeks of compensation.

20/20 entitles an applicant to nothing.

In accordance with the law of the State of Illinois, a man who was industrially blind was entitled to 100 weeks of compensation for industrial blindness in one eye. This was a matter that we had nothing to do with; we could not change it because it was a part of the law of the state. Of course, other states had different laws, but they, at the present time, were working under the law of the State of Illinois. If, then, this point was settled and if they could agree that 5/200 constituted industrial blindness, the rest of the problem seemed to be perfectly easy—all they had to do was to use the Snellen test type and grade down the number of weeks of compensation until normal vision was reached, which, of course, entitled a person to no compensation whatever. This grading down of the weeks of compensation should be done as gradually as possible. He thought the Springfield table had done this fairly and about as accurately as it could be done.

There was one thing to be noted, that, inasmuch as the law of the State of Illinois entitled a person to 100 weeks of compensation for industrial blindness in one eye, it made it easy and possible for the estimation of the loss of vision by percentages; that is, one could call the number of weeks in the last column either weeks or percentage. For instance, a person who was industrially blind was entitled to 100 weeks of compensation and had 100 per cent loss of vision. A person whose vision was 10/200 was entitled to 75 weeks of compensation and had a loss of 75 per cent of vision. A person whose vision was 20/200 was entitled to 50 weeks of compensation and had a loss of 50 per cent of vision, etc. Of course, we were all familiar with the fact that at the present time we were obliged, in giving testimony, in cases of this kind, to estimate visual losses in accordance with the fractions derived from Snellen test type. For instance, 20/40 of vision at the present time was regarded as one-half loss of vision, and yet we knew perfectly well that a man who had 20/40 vision had not lost one-half of his vision. 20/50 of vision was regarded in our courts as a loss of three-fifths of vision, and yet we knew that a man whose vision was 20/50 had not lost three fifths of his vision, and yet this was the way we were practically obliged to settle cases of this kind.

This was obviously unfair and should not be allowed to continue. He thot there was practically no difference of opinion on this point—the only question was, what should we do to arrive at a conclusion that was fair? It was for this reason that he suggested the Springfield table. Some men imagined they were espousing the cause of the laboring men when they objected to such a small amount of money representing the various degrees of visual loss. This was a matter that we had nothing whatever to do with. This had all been settled by the legislators at Springfield under the Workmen's Compensation Law. Industrial blindness of one eye meant 100 weeks of compensation—no more and no less. He was quite willing to admit that he would not lose one of his eyes for this amount of money, and in a broad humanitarian sense he did not consider that 100 weeks of compensation represented a sufficient amount of money to reward a man for the loss of an eye, but we had nothing to do with that at all. The law could be changed, but until the law was changed, we would have to work under the law of Illinois and not in accordance with our own philanthropic ideas. Some people, in looking over the circulars issued by the various insurance companies, noted that under some kinds of policies a man received $2,500 for the loss of an eye, and under some other policies he received $5,000 for the loss of an eye, etc. That was all true, but one must remember that those circulars were printed to attract customers for high class and expensive insurance. Like most everything else in this world, if one paid a large amount of money for it, one would get a superior article, but one could not get a $75 suit of clothes for $25, and one could not be paid $5,000 for the loss of an eye if the compensation was to be paid under the Workmen's Compensation Act and if the insurance was paid, not by the individual who was injured, but by the man who employed him and by the accident insurance company. So arguments of this kind were worthless and had nothing to do with the case, and yet the speaker heard them indulged in by people frequently who did not understand the situation.

As a beginning, then, of a better and fairer basis and as a start toward introducing something that would enable doctors, industrial commissions, accident insurance companies, etc., to have something that might be used as a kind of working basis to go on, he proposed the adoption of this Springfield table, as modified by him, by the Chicago Ophthalmic Society. He believed that if we could only make a start and adopt this table, it would go a long ways toward assisting litigation and enabling interested parties in arriving at just and equitable

conclusions concerning the subject of visual losses of one eye.

Dr. Frank Brawley felt that there was some justice in what Dr. Allport said about taking one step at a time, but the Springfield table seemed to him to cover such a small portion of the subject that he did not think the Chicago Ophthalmological Society should really accept it formally. As a scientific body they should give it more thought and produce something better. The table presented by Dr. Gradle could be simplified a little, but simply to take one side of the question without considering all the absolutely essential things that came up every time one went to the board, was impossible. It did not take in the various things that made skilled labor—stereoscopic vision and various things of that type. He did not feel that the table the committee presented was so very complicated; it could not all be carried in the mind, but a given case could be classified under its proper heading and then the calculation became very simple. If the Industrial Commission and the legislature would not accept anything but the Springfield table, perhaps it should be adopted. In testing for depth vision a very simple plan had been worked out at the medical research laboratory where he was, something much more simple than the Hering test. Two sticks were used and placed at different distances apart and the subject told which was the nearer. This was fairer than the Hering test. The thing to be determined was not what an injured man had lost in vision but what he had lost in earning power.

Dr. G. Henry Mundt liked Dr. Higgins' report; it seemed to be simple, he understood it, and he believed it was a table that they could really begin with. He agreed with Dr. Allport that it was only with considerable difficulty that the report of Dr. Gradle could be understood. He thought that instead of Dr. Allport's motion regarding the Springfield table, it would be a good thing for the society to ask the committee, if it still existed, to bring in a table which might have a little better starting basis. The table should be based upon the percentage basis. They need not pay any attention to the Illinois law other than the fact that anything that they accepted should conform to that law.

In his opinion, the time to determine vision should be when the injury had been completely recovered from.

Dr. Oliver Tydings thought a third thing should be taken into consideration; they had heard about the insurance companies and the commission, but he thought the taxpayer had not been represented as against either of these. Whenever industrial damage was taken into consideration they, as a progressive, civilized body, must assume certain responsibilities. This would afford a working basis for the insurance companies, the commission, and the people. Many people were dependent upon the state for a livelihood who had lost their earning ability thru industrial accident. The community, as a whole, bore a larger percentage than either the insurance companies or the employers of labor. The community had borne it all in the past, except the little that could be obtained by long litigation. He felt sure that every employer of labor today, without an exception, would accept the Springfield table, but it did not do justice either to the community as a whole or to labor itself. He hoped with Dr. Gradle and Dr. Brawley that the matter would be deferred until the subject could be intelligently acted upon.

Dr. Samuel G. Higgins thanked the society for the privilege of coming down to participate in the meeting and thought that among the things that had been arrived at was the fact that a complicated table could not be understood by any lay board. Therefore, he assumed that the society could well pass upon a point which they determined to be industrial blindness, and he would report to his society that 5/200 was a better standard than the 20/350 which they thought would be practical.

He also believed the point had been arrived at where they could interpret the Springfield table on a percentage

basis and that they might adopt a table which might be the Springfield or the Milwaukee, and find that in the money paid the amount would be practically the same. A table of this kind might at this time or at any time be given to the courts or to the industrial commission as a working basis, and all other questions must be settled by the opinion of the oculist, and the oculist representing the injured man might express his opinion. An expert called in by the commission might express his opinion, and if the employer wanted still another man, that opinion might be recorded, as the oculists were united. In other words, science and the three opinions would not differ very much and they could be added and divided by three and the amount really awarded the man would be about the same. He thought the award in many ways was very liberal; in Illinois the award was $12, based upon 100 weeks, and in Wisconsin it was $9.40, based upon 140 weeks; so it was about the same.

In his opinion it would be well for the oculists to have a table of their own, in which they could offer their opinion on a given case. That might enter into the literature and be known to the board to be referred to, but that they should not ask the board to apply it except as deductions were made by some oculist. He considered stereoscopic vision negligible.

He hoped that the very simple matters and very practical questions had shed some light on the subject. He thought the oculists should fight out the question regarding the removal of cataract which resulted from injury.

Dr. Charles C. Clement thought it was impracticable to recommend a single report for the guidance of the Industrial Board and also for the guidance of the oculist. The board should have a simple report which they could work on and there should be another report for the oculist. The Industrial Board would not be able to understand a very complicated report, and simplicity should be the keynote of the report sent to them. He saw no reason why the society should not go ahead and lay the foundation by adopting the Springfield schedule for the guidance of the Industrial Board and then build on top of that as elaborate a report as they pleased for themselves.

Dr. H. H. Brown suggested that it would be well for Dr. Allport's motion to be so modified as to embody the Committee on Compensation Table and let them take up the report upon the Springfield table. He thought the work of the society should be considered and recognition should be made of that committee, as it still existed.

Dr. Frank Allport said that in making this motion he supposed that this committee, represented by Drs. Gradle, Brawley and Woodruff, had handed in their report to the society and had been dismissed. Dr. Allport said he had no desire of producing any embarrassment to this committee, and while he did not regard their report as a satisfactory solution of the subject, he would withdraw his motion and recommend that the matter be reconsidered by the committee, and hoped that they would regard with favor the Springfield table which he had brought to the notice of the society.

He wished to admonish the committee to give up the discussion of abstract and involved problems and to endeavor to bring in a report that could be understood by laymen of average intelligence.

Dr. Robert Blue considered it very essential to know for what purpose the table was to be compiled. Whether for the guidance of the insurance companies, the Industrial Board, or for the estimation of ocular efficiency by oculists. If for the laymen, it would be one thing and if for the oculists it would be another. If it was for the Industrial Board it should be as simple as possible. If for the guidance of the oculist in determining ocular efficiency, an accurate guide for judgment should be sought rather than mathematic simplicity.

ALFRED MURRAY, Sec.

BALTIMORE CITY MEDICAL SOCIETY

Ophthalmologic Section

Meeting of October 15, 1919

Retinitis Circinata.

Dr. Harry Friedenwald exhibited a case of retinitis circinata which showed marked edema of the retina, with numerous hemorrhages in a circular form about the macula. All physical examinations were negative.

Ptosis Operation.

Dr. Friedenwald read a report of cases of ptosis operated on by the Hess method. In the past most of his ptosis operations had been more or less unsatisfactory. In September he had operated upon two cases of congenital ptosis. The first was in a boy of four years of age, who had had a Beard operation about two years previously, with very disappointing results. But the operation by the Hess method had so far been very gratifying.

The second patient was a girl of four years of age, with congenital ptosis, who was also operated on by the Hess method, and he had been extremely well pleased with the results. He allowed the main sutures to remain in for two weeks. It had produced a fold of integument on the upper lid, but this was only noticed when the patient was looking down.

Discussion: Dr. Theobald spoke of a case of bilateral ptosis, in which he had performed the Gruening operation on the right eye with fair results. On the other eye he has dissected out a longitudinal strip of tarsal cartilage from the inner surface, with suturing of the remaining portions on the conjunctival surface. The results in this eye were much better than in the first one. He had recently heard from the case and the patient was much more satisfied with the last operation.

Plastic Operation on Lids and Face.

Capt. H. K. Fleckenstein, who is stationed at Fort McHenry, said that most of the cases that he had to deal with were those of loss of tissue and cicatricial contraction. In most cases the scar tissue was dissected and as much removed as possible; and that any patients having old scars were given antitetanic serum several days prior to operation.

Most of the grafts for cicatricial entropion or remodelling of lids was done by free Wolfe grafts. The skin was prepared by cleaning and painting with 3½ per cent iodin. The cicatricial tissues removed, grafts were preferably taken from the upper lid and tension suturing utilized if necessary. The grafts were handled on gauze, not placed in salt solution, but transferred immediately to the area grafted. The threads were prepared in equal parts of wax and vaseline. In case the cilia were destroyed the margin of the brow was used in order to give a margin with hair. Extremely few graftings were lost by this method. He thought that neither the Esser nor the Thiersch grafts were quite as satisfactory, altho the Thiersch grafting may be performed under local anesthesia.

In cases of depression of the orbital wall under the temporal muscles, as much scar tissue as possible is removed. Then a piece of fascia lata is dissected and implanted in the depressed area. Bone or cartilage may be used, but the fascia lata seems to be more satisfactory.

In cases of destroyed conjunctiva, a form of dental composition is molded, and a Thiersch graft is put over the form and placed in position to be grafted, with the suturing of the lids over the form. These grafts usually take very rapidly.

This very interesting paper was discussed by Drs. Witham and Looper.

C. A. Clapp, Secretary.

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ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION IN OPHTHALMOLOGY

Ophthalmology owes much, directly and indirectly, to animal experimentation, and when properly conducted it is often a fertile source of information. When the ocular organism itself is chosen as the medium of research it is hardly necessary to point out that the feral or domesticated eyes chosen for the purpose should resemble as closely as possible those of man if one is to draw definite conclusions from such investigations.

Even a superficial student of the biology and histopathology of the visual apparatus in the so-called lower animals will soon be convinced that the manifest differences between the tissues and their reactions to morbid influences in the eyes of man, and of such creatures as the dog, mouse, rat, guinea pig, rabbit, frog, etc., make it highly improbable that a certain class of laboratory experiments and investigations can do more than suggest the possibility (in some instances the probability) that like conditions prevail in both. Conclusions drawn from this form of experiment are certainly open to serious doubt so far as their application to human experience is concerned. Indeed the employment for research purposes of animal eyes below the simian orders (and the more closely they approach the tissues of the higher apes the better) can have but little value for scientific conclusions in human pathology.

Altho years of valuable time and the concentrated energies of hundreds of observers have been expended during the past half century in attempts to apply lower animal evidence in human ophthalmology most of it has probably been wasted.

The chief workshop for promiscuous production of this sort has for several decades past been Germany. We all know how often the report of an "Arbeit" proposed by a teacher in some klinik or laboratory, and carried out by indefatigable students with an enthusiasm worthy of a better cause, has filled dreary pages of "Graefe's Archiv" or some other Teutonic journal.

In the course of time, absence of responsibility involved in this kind of research frequently led to an utter disregard of what may well be termed the "rights of animals." If the extent and character of the investigations called for twenty dogs, the question whether the sufferings or loss of eyesight of these highly-developed and sensitive animals justified the sacrifice, hardly formed part of the proposed examination. There was, indeed, always danger, especially in ophthalmic inquiries of an otherwise humane man forgetting his humanity.

We had an outstanding example of that result in the case of a member of the *Ophthalmologische Gesellschaft,* who reported (*Bericht,* 1913) his attempts, *à la* Tantalus, to produce myopia in monkeys. These animals were placed in cages so that they were compelled to look down at food placed near them, their refraction being (from time to time) worked out by skiascopy. This observer noticed an increase in the refraction which amounted in one case, *during seven months,* to 7 diopters, and in another instance to 5 diopters! To his everlasting credit, von Hippel, in the discussion, maintained that the experiments were unjustifiable on account of their extreme cruelty.

Another false position which the lower animal experimenter so often assumes is that all eyes—avian, amphibian, mammalian—are of equal value for his purposes. Of the hundreds of examples that might be quoted from the literature on this subject, a certain well known investigator publishes (but not in the English language) his "contribution to our knowledge of trachoma corpuscles." In the course of the experimentation smears were taken from the eyes of the following animals: the frog, toad, rat, guinea pig, rabbit, dog and ape, and man; and from 60 cases of trachoma, 6 of spring catarrh, 6 of catarrhal conjunctivitis and 4 of purulent conjunctivitis. Only in cases of trachoma, and of these only in 29 out of 160 cases, were the trachoma bodies found, whereas in other specimens were found pseudoinclusions, granulations of the cellular protoplasm resembling the trachoma bodies, but not to be confounded with them. It is no wonder that corresponding variations in the inoculation experiments were noticed in respect to the vernal catarrh and other conjunctivitides!

A dim recognition of the contention that human and lower animal eyes are not necessarily interchangeable in the laboratory sense appears now and then in the writings of investigators themselves. For example, Cords, in his recent studies of *scarlet red* (see that caption in the *American Encyclopedia of Ophthalmology*), admits that one cannot argue, at least so far as this much-vaunted agent is concerned, from the lower animal conjunctiva to the same structure in man.

Roemer (*La Clinique Ophtalm.,* October, 1906) demonstrated that by means of a powerful antipneumococcic serum rabbits can be absolutely immunized against the pneumococcus. And, further, in these immunized rabbits, he has not been able to produce the least inflammatory reaction in the rabbit's cornea. It is true that "serpiginous ulcer cannot be produced in the rabbit; but in apes, which are liable as are men to corneal suppurations, Roemer was able to bring about an immune condition, absolutely refractory to pneumococcic infection of the cornea." As one would expect!

Quite recently one German and one Japanese investigator—both of them lights in the world of Ophthalmology—discovered, after elaborate laboratory experiments on dogs, that ganglion degeneration of the retina and optic nerve atrophy is a common result of thyroid toxemia; and it seemed strange to them and to others that "one notices this sequel so infrequently in man." A study of the canine ocular apparatus might rather have caused remark if the human consequences had been otherwise.

That monkeys, especially the anthropoid apes, constitute expensive material and are difficult to obtain for laboratory observation, is really no argument at all for substituting dogs and guinea pigs; indeed it may well be an *argumentum pro.* There has been,

we believe, too much irresponsible and unscientific experimentation (mostly perpetrated abroad) in the past, and too little attention paid to the regular continuous *clinical* study of human ophthalmic cases in public and private practice.

The objection to the mass of evidence presented to us in reports, especially of lower animal bacteriology and pharmacognosy, is not entirely that it is inhumane but that it is also incompetent, inadequate, and, therefore, unscientific. The results *may* be as stated, but since only careful and prolonged observations made by trained and competent observers of human and anthropoid animals can remove the doubt and clarify the obscurity, why meantime, worry the eyes and nervous system of the dog, the guinea pig, the rat, *et hoc genus omne?*

When, as now proposed, an investigation of eye problems is made on our Simian relatives, the same consideration should be shown as one would exhibit towards a man, a woman or a child. Indeed only properly trained teachers should be permitted to utilize for these purposes such an intelligent, nervous and high-strung animal as a monkey. In any event, however, we hesitate to believe it possible that *any* American, however thoughtless or enthusiastic, would be likely to emulate the exploits of our *Heidelberger Gesellschaft* colleague even to demonstrate the etiology of myopia in apes.

Investigations properly conducted along the lines and in the direction just indicated would have a real value in ophthalmology, and when actuated by adequate motives and surrounded by proper precautions would have the approbation of every well wisher of our specialty. C. A. W.

STUDENT ASSISTANTS

The apprenticeship method has been the forerunner of effective schools in many lines of technical teaching. In the past the best way to get an education in ophthalmology in America was to become an office assistant to one of certain good teachers of ophthalmology. Notable among such teachers were Elkanah Williams of Cincinnati, and John Green of St. Louis. To be a student of one of these men was almost a guarantee of professional success.

Many of these teachers are still living, and their number is increasing. It must be admitted that among those who take office assistants are some who are more intent on extending their practice, beyond the limits of what one man can attend to, than upon becoming efficient teachers of another generation of ophthalmologists. Still to assist one of these men gives a large clinical experience. Reading up the conditions seen and careful methods of work, will give the student the mastery of ophthalmology that he desires, while improving the service he gives to his chief.

It is often difficult for the would-be student assistant to get in touch with the older man who could utilize his services and give the needed instruction; and the busy practitioner who needs an assistant sometimes has great difficulty in finding the one he needs. The best way to indicate needs of this kind has been to place an advertisement in the Journal of the A. M. A., but this could generally carry little information regarding the qualifications possessed by an applicant or those expected of an assistant.

Within the past three months we have had letters from four ophthalmologists appealing to their personal friends to find the kind of assistant they needed; and in the same time we have heard from about double that number of doctors who wished to prepare for ophthalmic practice by service in the office of an ophthalmologist. Unfortunately in most cases the applicants did not fit the particular places offered.

If a larger number of such places and a larger number of applicants could be brought together, doubtless a larger proportion of the seekers would be satisfied.

The plan of individual applications does not lend itself to a full statement

of needs, opportunities, and qualifications. We believe the interests of the oculists of the country would be better served by forming a register of applicants of both kinds, and by comparison of those for help, with those who offer service, there would be a better chance of securing a permanently profitable arrangement for both parties. Such a plan is now being worked out and put in operation. From subscribers to the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY the applications will be received and acted on without charge. To others there will be charged a small fee for registration.

It is not likely that all requests can at once be met with satisfactory assistants or positions; but we believe that this plan offers one more way in which this journal can be of real help to the profession.

E. J.

BOOK NOTICES

Eye, Ear, Nose and Throat. CASEY A. WOOD, M. D., D. C. L. Albert H. Andrews, M. D., and George E. Shambaugh, M. D. **Practical Medicine Series,** 1919, Volume III, 12 mo., 384 pages. Illustrated. Chicago. The Yearbook Publishers.

The portion of this volume relating to the eye is edited by Dr. Wood, and comprises 180 pages, including about as much matter as one issue of this journal. It is evident that careful selection of the matter to be included in such a work is of the highest importance, and for this its editor is especially competent. To confine the list of topics to those really important, and treat of them with sufficient fullness to make the book really interesting and valuable is a task requiring the abilities of the veteran editor, and compiler of a great encyclopedia. It has been well performed.

The text is liberally illustrated, including several plates, one of them in colors, that have been used in this journal. Altho the material for this section has been found in journals published in many languages, most of it is drawn from publications in English. This is at it should be, and reflects the large proportion of the literature of ophthalmology that is now appearing in English.

Our readers will recognize many things of which they have read in these pages; but it is a work that can safely be recommended to those not familiar with the general literature of ophthalmology. It is well written and printed, and its size makes it convenient to carry in the coat pocket.

E. J.

Ophthalmological Society of Egypt. Bulletin of 1919, 146 pages.

This bulletin contains the sixteen papers read at the annual meeting of the Society, March 7th, 1919, with the discussions they elicited. Of these papers, five deal with various forms of conjunctivitis, and their effects, four take up various aspects of glaucoma and the Elliot trephining. The other consider sympathetic ophthalmia, autoserum in ocular therapeutics, infected corneal ulcer, a case of congenital defect of vision, and other subjects.

These papers are comparatively brief, practical and interesting. Some of them are illustrated by charts, and contain important tables. All but two are in English and these in French. Arabic has been used only in the inscription.

This Society, founded in 1902, now numbers 71 members. A list of these with the officers, and the business-like minutes of the annual meeting are included in the Bulletin. The absence of a table of contents or good index detracts from its value as a work of reference.

E. J.

Transactions of the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, Annual Session, June 9 to 13, 1919. 8vo., 419 pages. Illustrated, Chicago, A. M. A.

The twenty-one scientific papers contained in this volume have been or will be published in the JOURNAL of the American Medical Association, or in the AMERICAN JOURNAL OF OPHTHAL-

MOLOGY; but about one-fourth of its pages are occupied by matter not elsewhere published. This includes discussions often more valuable than the papers that give occasion for them, since the discussion represents the wider experience and judgment of several, as against the experience and judgment of the single writer. The usual reports of committees, lists of members, and officers, and minutes of the session are also given here.

A new departure in the present volume is the reproduction of two colored plates, one of cysticercus, the other showing lens opacities, and the changes in them following the use of radium. In size and interest this volume compares well with its predecessors; and its table of contents and good general index qualify it as a book of reference that each American Ophthalmologist should possess.

E. J.

CORRESPONDENCE

Conservation of Vision

To the Editor: In my chairman's address at the Atlantic City meeting of the American Medical Association I called attention to the fact that the series of pamphlets on the Conservation of Vision, published by the Council on Health and Public Instruction of the American Medical Association, had been of great service to me in spreading the gospel of Conservation of Vision among my patients and friends. Since the publication of my address in the *Journal of the American* Medical Association v. 73, p. 876. I have received so many leters inquiring where these pamphlets may be obtained, that I have suggested to Dr. Simmons that the work of the Council of Health and Public Instruction should be better advertised and that a few lines in the editorial pages with reference to the pamphlets above referred to, might be helpful.

It is possible that many of your readers may not know about the pamphlets, and would be glad to avail themselves of their help, if attention was called to them in your Journal.

Yours very truly,
CASSIUS D. WESCOTT.

Chicago, Illinois.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Ambrose Kasson, Bath, New York, aged seventy, died at his home, September first.

Fred P. Lierle, Marshalltown, Iowa, aged forty-seven, died September 10th from pernicious anemia.

Joseph A. Kenefick, New York City, aged fifty-eight, died in Lawrence, Massachusetts, September 10th.

Arthur V. Fray, Chicago, aged fifty-five, died in St. Luke's Hospital, Chicago, September 7th, from carcinoma.

Howard F. Pyfer, Norristown, Pennsylvania, aged forty-seven, died at his home, September 5th, from bronchopneumonia.

Francis M. Smiley, Kewanee, Illinois, aged sixty, died in his office, September 15th, from cerebral hemorrhage.

Thomas J. McCoy, Los Angeles, Professor of Ophthalmology in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the University of Southern California; eye and ear surgeon to a number of railways; well known as a specialist on the eye, ear, nose and throat; died at his home, October first, from angina pectoris.

PERSONAL.

Dr. W. A. Adams of Denver has taken offices in the Commonwealth Building.

Dr. Robert Randolph of Baltimore is still absent from his office on account of poor health.

Dr. Leon Block, Denver, announces the opening of offices in the Central Savings Bank Building.

N. Bishop Harman has been appointed Ophthalmic Surgeon to the National Institute for the Blind in England.

Dr. John W. Burke, Washington, D. C., has resumed practice at 1610 I street, N. W. He is no longer associated with Drs. Wilmer and Morrison.

Dr. H. O. Reik has been appointed secretary of the new postgraduate movement in New York City, and has left Baltimore to take up his residence in that city.

Dr. E. D. Everett, Capt. M. C., U. S. A., ophthalmologist to the General Hospital, No. 21, Carlisle, Pa., has returned from France, and is now located at Frostwood, Md.

Dr. J. E. Vallee, ex-house surgeon at the New York Post Graduate School and Hospital, announces his removal to Los Angeles, with offices in the Title Insurance Building.

The oculists of Baltimore are very glad to welcome Dr. Harry Friedenwald, lately returned from the Orient. Dr. Friedenwald has been elected vice-president of the Zionists of America.

Dr. Casey A. Wood will spend the next three months in Washington, D. C., completing his work on the Medical and Surgical History of the War. He stopped in Chicago two days on his way east from California.

Dr. Andrew Carr of Minot, N. D., returned from France, is now in charge of the Eye Department of the Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary. Dr. Carr is also assistant to Dr. Brown in the Eye Clinic of the Medical Department of the University of Illinois.

Dr. R. A. Fenton of Portland, Ore., has resumed practice after 18 months service overseas with Base Hospital, No. 46. After the armistice he became consultant in Ophthalmology to the Army of Occupation in Germany, heading the eye work in the hospitals in Luxemburg.

At the annual tournament of the Chicago Physicians' Golf Association, September 30th to October 1st, the championship medal was won, for the fourth time, by Dr. Frank Brawley. Dr. Brawley was further honored by being made president of the association.

MILITARY NOTES.

Dr. William G. Bowerman has opened offices in Yonkers, N. Y., since retiring from service.

Dr. E. S. Adams, formerly of Pueblo, Colorado, has returned from military service, and opened offices in Trinidad.

Dr. Percival Dolman has returned to San Francisco, after fifteen months' service in the Medical Department of the U. S. army.

Major A. E. J. Lister, ophthalmic surgeon to King George's Medical College, has been appointed an honorary surgeon to His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India.

Dr. John M. Wheeler, who has been in charge of the eye service at Base Hospital, No. 2, Ft. McHenry, Md., was discharged, September 15th, and has resumed his practice at 80 West Fortieth street, New York. The Department in Ophthalmology at Fort McHenry had a large service in plastic surgery about the eyes.

The following ophthalmologists have been reported as returned from Government service: To New York City—Drs. E. G. Morton, F. Dunnington, Henry R. Skeel, J. F. Van Fleet, W. F. Steinbugler, D. T. MacPhail, L. W. Callan, C. A. McConville, S. T. Hubbard, Conrad Berens, Jr., J. S. Smith, J. F. Bowman, A. B. Bruner, L. E. Hetrick, G. F. Patton, E. B. Thompson, D. H. Webster, W. F. Macklin, F. W. Shine, Bernard Samuels, Catesby Jones, G. F. Gracy, Webb W. Weeks, D. P. Platt and G. H. Grout. To Brooklyn, N. Y.—Drs. J. E. Golding, C. A. Harget, James A. Bilello and E. C. Place.

SOCIETIES.

The first meeting of the season of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society was held on the evening of October 13th, when an unusually large number of interesting clinical cases were presented for examination.

An Ophthalmological Society has been formed in Bucharest, with Professor Constantinesco as president and Dr. Ghica as secretary. The society meets twice a month at the Coltzan Hospital and publishes its transactions twice a year.

The Section on Ophthalmology of the New York Academy of Medicine presented the following program on the evening of October 20th:

1. Presentation of patients.
   Extraction of cataract in a case of megalocornea, by Dr. Carl Koller.
2. Subject of the evening—"Postgraduate Teaching in Ophthalmology."
   a. Experiences based on the recent military course of instruction in ophthalmology. Dr. Meyer Wiener, St. Louis.
   b. Suggestions regarding the teaching of ophthalmology. Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston.
   c. Discussion by Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver; Dr. G. E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia; Dr. W. H. Wilder, Chicago; Dr. W. R. Parker, Detroit; Dr. J. E. Weeks, New York; Dr. Alexander Duane, New York; Dr. W. A. Holden, New York, and others.

The meeting was presided over by Dr. Arnold Knapp.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 518 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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TREATMENT OF CHRONIC DACRYOCYSTITIS

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This paper prepared by cooperation of the Sections on Ophthalmology and on Otology, Laryngology and Rhinology of the Mayo Clinic includes a general discussion of the subject and the description of a preferred method of operation.

Inflammation of the lacrimal sac may be said to have become chronic when the function of the drainage apparatus cannot be restored by the use of medical or hygienic measures, and operative procedures have to be employed either to restore the function of the duct or to remove the sac and obliterate the duct. Malformation of the puncta, eversion of the lids, simple stenosis of the duct, or obstruction of the lacrimal meatus in the nose, may be responsible for epiphora at any age, without inflammation of the sac, while acute or chronic inflammation may arise without complete closure of either end of the drainage system.

Stenosis of the duct in infants seldom results in suppurative affection of the sac but may often cause collections of large amounts of secretion that distend the sac, producing a mucocele and often a permanent fistula through the skin. Such a mucocele may extend backward, involving a part of the ethmoid labyrinth, or even extend into the orbit. Obstruction in children may follow edema and secondary inflammation of the duct from syphilitic periostitis, without other obstruction. The lacrimal sac in such cases may become secondarily infected and produce a purulent secretion. The sac is quite troublesome and difficult to heal except by vigorous antiluetic treatment.

If we may draw a conclusion from the comparative occurrence of purulent discharge in cases of obstruction of the lacrimal system we may say that chronic suppurative dacryocystitis in children is more often the result of disease of the structures about the lacrimal duct and sac than of congenital or acquired anatomic obstruction to the patency of the system.

The proportion of suppurative conditions of the sac in the adult is reversed. Obstruction to the flow of tears follows atresia of the puncta, eversion of the lids, or intranasal blocking. With the latter cause the closure of the canal is usually found in the duct at the point of least diameter, 10 mm. to 15 mm. below the upper end of the duct proper. Rarely we may find the entire duct occluded and contracted to a small fibrous cord. The secretion collecting in the sac regurgitates into the conjunctival culdesac, or it can be thus emptied by external pressure. Occasionally the obstruction may be in the canaliculi, and the collected secretion expressed through a stenosed duct or artificial opening into the nose. Both the upper and the lower openings may be closed, leaving a blind pouch which becomes an immense mucocele or which may rupture externally, producing a permanent fistula.

The treatment of chronic dacryocystitis is ultimately surgical. The procedure to be employed will depend on the nature and position of the obstruction, the extent of the involvement of contiguous structures, and the changes in the tissues produced by the disease or by previous treatment. The inflammation may be of low grade, producing

a mucopurulent discharge without redness, pain, or heat, showing only a moderate and varying swelling and loss of function. Atony of the muscles of the lid and the muscle of Horner may fail to empty the sac completely and a passive dilatation of the sac results. The contents may be expressed easily.

Collection of secretion purulent or nonpurulent will, if rapidly produced, set up signs of active inflammation which gives rise to acute exacerbations. Removal of obstruction to the intranasal portion of the duct and careful use of small probes will be sufficient in many instances to reestablish patency of the duct. Further attention, such as irrigations and local application of antiseptic and astringent lotions, may be employed until the lining of the duct is in a more nearly normal condition. If the inflammation has existed for a long time, if there have been frequent attacks of acute inflammation, or if a quiet dacryocystitis has been unsuccessfully treated by the use of large probes, such simple measures as would be given to the lower end of the sac with the use of small probes will not insure a permanent opening, and it will be necessary to employ more radical measures.

Primary disease of the sac, that is from foreign material having become lodged in the sac or duct, producing stenosis and permitting secondary infection, may become so extensive as to occlude the entire duct and set up a periostitis and disease of the contiguous accessory sinuses. This is seen frequently in cases of traumatism of the nose and orbit from a kick in the face by a horse, or other accident, in which the head has suffered a crushing injury. On attempting to sound such a duct the sounding instrument will encounter bare bone, loose pieces may be felt to move, and the instrument may be passed beyond the lacrimal fossa into the opened cells of the accessory sinuses, and even into the nasal cavity beneath the nasal mucosa. If the nasal mucosa is also broken the secretion may empty directly into the nose. That this does not always follow is sufficient evidence that operative procedures intended to produce such and only such an opening are inadequate, whether the opening is made with a probe, a trephine, or a chisel.

Secondary disease of the sac may follow disease of the accessory sinuses. We have been slow to recognize the importance of this fact because of the difficulty of diagnosing disease of the anterior ethmoid cells. Little evidence of ethmoid disease may be found by inspection of the nasal chambers at the time of examination. The nose may appear negative, yet in such cases we frequently have demonstrated mucopurulent secretion with destruction of the lining of the cells, when we have made an external opening for extirpation of the sac. Inflammations of this nature are, of course, quiescent; they may exist for years without giving sufficient evidence of disorder to warrant exenteration. Drainage is established through or around the sac, and the mucopurulent secretion is expressed into the conjunctival culdesac. Most of the secretion comes from the changed mucosa of the sac itself, and removal of the sac may close the drainage and so cover the evidence of ethmoid disease. Occasionally, however, a permanent fistula may be established thru the skin, thru which the mucopurulent secretion of the diseased ethmoid cells escapes.

A suppurative ethmoid may, by its close relation to the lacrimal groove, set up an inflammatory process in the duct or sac which sooner or later may become purulent. The ethmoiditis may be of very low grade, and give no intranasal manifestation of its presence, but in time the presence of the pus may cause inflammatory reaction in the lacrimal duct which in turn may lead to stenosis, predisposing to a suppurative condition in the sac.

Pus may find its way into the lacrimal duct through the meatus, where there is a suppurative sinusitis with free drainage into the nose. Under such conditions the patient in blowing the nose forces the pus into the duct. Simple extirpation of the sac does not re-

move the evidence of chronic dacryocystitis in such cases. We admit the truth of the statement so frequently made, that if all the sac is removed the discharge will stop, but we are referring to the cases in which healing does not take place when the sac is totally destroyed or removed.

To dispose of the troublesome and dangerous secretion in chronic dacryocystitis is the high aim of treatment. If at the same time the function of the duct can be restored a double aim will have been accomplished. To this end various operations have been devised, but insufficient consideration has been given the changes which must be made in the tissues involved, for after all either the offending part is removed completely, or the elements are so rearranged that nature will not be impeded in providing protection for healthy organs and other tissues. To remove or to destroy a sac is to admit inability to cope with the disease of the tissues involved. The function of a stenosed and diseased lacrimal sac can often be restored by an operation no more difficult to perform than that of extirpation of the sac.

As has been mentioned, function may be restored in some cases by removal of low nasal obstruction and the careful use of small probes. The use of large probes, however, should be avoided in all cases. If a canal or bony foramen needs to be enlarged, it should be done by an open method, using cutting bone instruments, and not blindly by forcefully probing, crushing and tearing tissues that cannot be seen, and are only indefinitely felt. To attempt the treatment of chronic dacryocystitis by use of large probes either to enlarge the duct or to make an artificial opening into the nasal chamber is unwarranted and unjustified by the results obtained. If false passages are made into the antrum or soft tissues of the cheek, troublesome complications may follow. The use of metal styles is happily on the decline but they are now encountered sufficiently often to warrant mentioning the dangers accom-

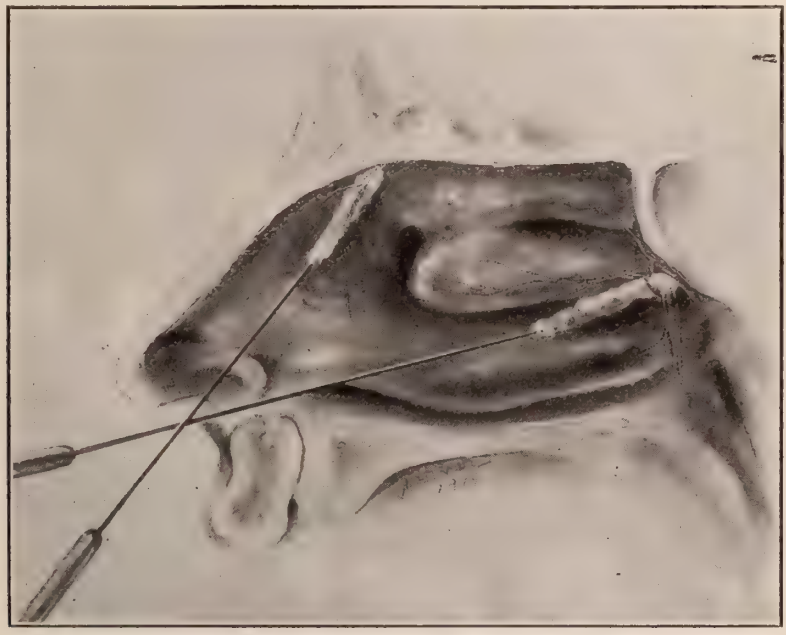


Fig. 1. Showing method of applying cocain mud with adrenalin to sphenopalatine ganglion and anterior ethmoidal nerve, giving complete anesthesia.

panying their use and to urge better surgical methods of securing the same result.

Destruction of the sac by actual or potential cautery accomplishes only one thing, it stops the secretion from the tissues destroyed. It does not allow inspection of the tissues surrounding the sac either from within or without. It does not aid in reconstruction. No attempt is made to restore function to the sac. It is as difficult to destroy the sac by cautery with good cosmetic effect as it is to extirpate the sac, and the latter procedure has the added advantage of allowing inspection of the fossa and the bony duct, leaving nothing to be desired from the cosmetic standpoint.

Extirpation of the sac after the method of Meller gives most satisfactory results in most cases. After the sac has been removed a sound should be passed along the entire bony surface of the fossa and upper part of the duct in a search for openings into accessory cells and pieces of loose or necrotic bone. If any opening is found it should be enlarged, and the cavity from which it leads explored and cleaned. If only one or two cells can be found to be involved, and the disease is not then giving rise to a purulent discharge the whole cavity may be irrigated with 1:2000 bichlorid of mercury solution, and the wound closed in the usual manner without drainage. If the bone is necrotic or if pus is present in the ethmoid cells the loose bone should be removed, the diseased cells broken down, and an opening made through the nasal mucosa. The external wound may then be closed and the ethmoid disease treated from within the nose.

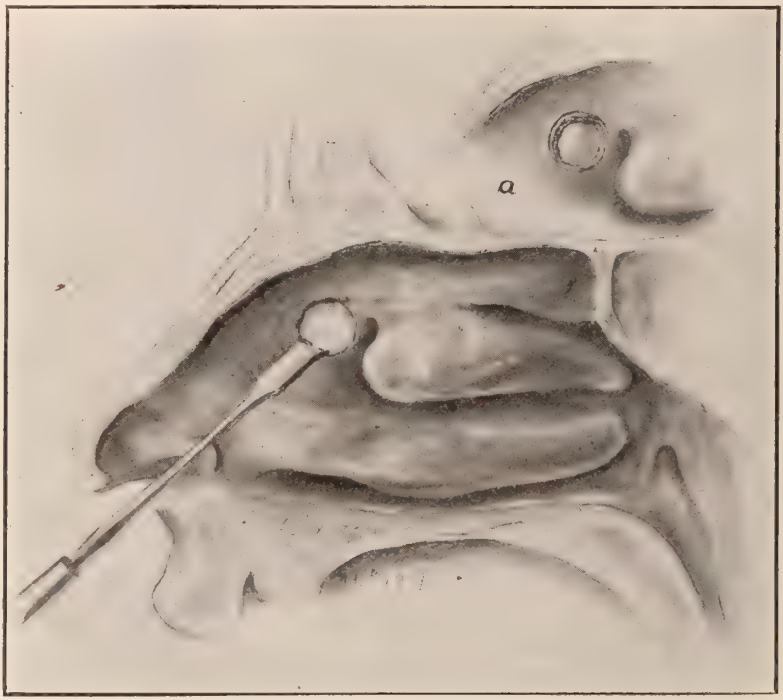


Fig. 2. Mucous membrane flap removed, exposing bone ready to be chiseled. a. Bone removed, exposing nasal wall of lacrimal duct and sac.

Operations for the restoration of function of the sac and duct, as well as the cleaning out of any diseased ethmoid cells, are advocated from time to time and have more to be said in their favor than any other form of treatment of chronic dacryocystitis. We are convinced that it is not neces-

sary in the majority of cases to do a radical operation from the external surface. Plastic operations intended to restore function are unnecessary, besides being difficult to perform and involving a great deal of after treatment. When the sac and upper portion of the duct has not been destroyed, it may be tapped from the nasal side, by a procedure that at the same time will allow exposure of the anterior ethmoid cells and take care of any other intranasal obstruction.

If a sound can be passed through the sac and into the upper part of the duct the sac should not be extirpated, but an attempt should be made to restore the function of the duct by intranasal dacryocystostomy. The operation should be done by one who is familiar with intranasal technic. If for any reason the operation should not accomplish the re-



Fig. 3. Probe inserted thru inferior punctum, extending it into the sac; and tenting it thru window opening into the nose.

sult desired the sac can always be removed later. West, Yankauer, Paterson and Fraser, and others report excellent results. They have restored function to the lacrimal drainage system in a large percentage of cases in which operation was done, which is vastly more than can be said for the extirpation or cautery method of treatment.

An operation which restores function of the sac and provides adequate drainage of diseased ethmoid cells in the neighborhood of the duct, should any be present, should be easy to perform and unattended by complications that will require long after treatment. Such an operation may be described as follows:

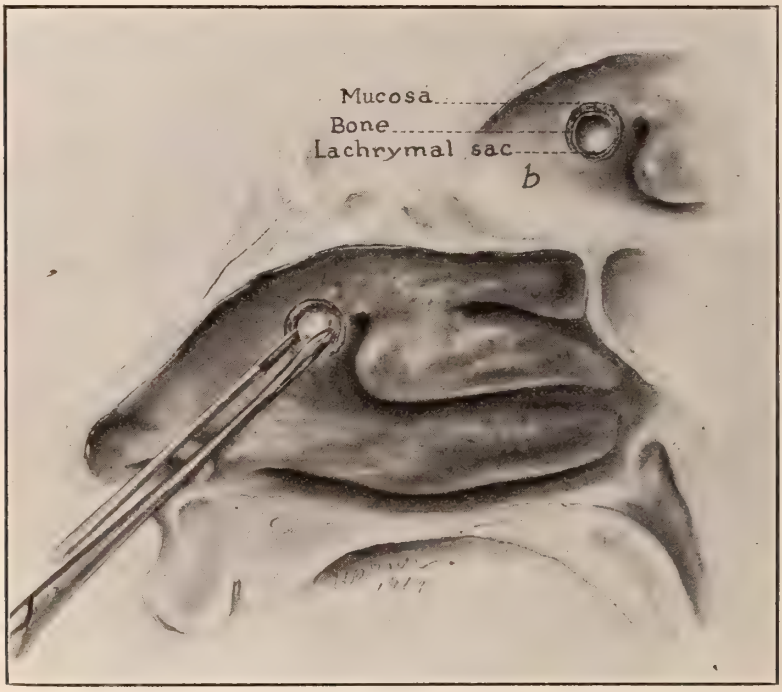


Fig. 4. Sac wall tented thru window opening, grasped by forceps, and beginning incision. b Window opening into sac completed, draining freely into nose.

OPERATION.

Two or three drops of 1 per cent cocain solution are instilled into the eye. This allows the probe to be introduced into the punctum with little or no discomfort.

The intranasal anesthesia is obtained by blocking the sphenopalatine ganglion and the anterior ethmoidal nerve by introducing a cotton applicator impregnated with cocain mud with adrenalin as the solvent, beneath the posterior end of the middle turbinate, and a second applicator passed between the septum and the middle turbinate to the cribriform plate as may be seen in Figure 1. These applicators are allowed to remain in position ten minutes, which ordinarily gives complete anesthesia of the nasal chamber. In case of high or anterior septal deflection a submucous resection of the septum should be done at this time.

A lacrimal probe is now introduced through the lower punctum (without slitting the canaliculus) into the sac and duct as far as it will go, and allowed to remain. This serves as a guide and landmark. The surgeon while working in the nose is thus constantly reminded of the direction of the duct.

The mucous membrane of the agger nasi is now elevated and resected

and a flap about 1 cm. in diameter is removed just in front of the attachment of the middle turbinate. The bone is next removed by means of a small chisel to make a window slightly smaller in diameter than that of the mucosal opening (Fig. 2). This exposes the inner wall of the lacrimal sac and the upper part of the duct (Fig. 2a). Any diseased ethmoid cells which are discharging their contents into the duct can be easily broken down at this time.

The lacrimal probe is now withdrawn slightly until the tip causes a tenting of the sac wall into the opening made through the bone (Fig. 3). With a small knife the sac is incised (Fig. 4), the flap is grasped with a fine forceps, and the incision continued in a circular path, completely removing this portion of the sac wall (Fig. 4b). The probe is now removed, and the sac irrigated through the punctum.

This completes the operation and gives adequate drainage into the nose. Very often a quantity of pus escapes into the nose when the first incision is made into the sac wall. The after treatment is almost nil. No packing is necessary. The patient should be cautioned not to blow the nose vigorously, as the secretion from the nasal chamber may be blown through this new opening into the conjunctival sac. The reaction is very slight, healing is rapid, with little contraction of the mucous membrane. The patients experience no epiphora nor other discomfort after the operation. A lotion of zinc sulphat and adrenalin solution is used for the first week following operation, after which time no further treatment is needed.

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A SIX METER STEREOSCOPE

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The instrument here described was developed to meet the requirement for tests of binocular vision used at the Medical Research Laboratory of the Air Service Medical at Hazelhurst Field, Mineola, N. Y.

For the purpose of examining candidates for the flying service to learn their ability to judge distance, it was deemed necessary by the Eye Department of this laboratory to devise a test which could be used at a distance of six meters.

In a previous report (see p. 656) a description of an apparatus designed to make such a test was given. That apparatus was simple and crude, but at the same time gave very consistent results. The test was so planned that the only factor examined was the binocular parallax which is the most important personal factor in the judgment of distance. The results obtained with the apparatus were in the form of threshold judgments of certain depth-differences. From these threshold findings, together with the measurements of interpupillary distances the minimal binocular parallactic angles (see Fig. 2 and Fig. 3, p. 661) of all the subjects examined were computed (Table 1, p. 663). In this previous report it was recommended that a normal binocular parallactic angle be considered not larger than 8 seconds, when employing a similar apparatus. Based upon the size of their respective angles, it was found possible to classify men

into groups, indicating their degree of depth judgment efficiency.

The findings obtained showed that very fine discriminations in depth perceiving ability were made possible by this apparatus. It therefore seemed advisable to employ the same principles in designing a more durable and compact apparatus which would be simpler to operate and permit of two methods of experimentation, instead of only one. The first apparatus required the operator to stand beside it, adjust the objects and lift a screen for each observation. In addition to this method it should be possible for the subject himself to adjust the objects into what he thinks is the same reference plane, i. e. equidistant from the eyes. After a series of such judgments, the average error would indicate his judgment threshold.

The apparatus recommended* consists of four essential parts:

1. An oblong box divided into two compartments with a window in one end.
2. A pair of round rods of equal diameter to serve as the test objects.
3. A stationary scale for recording the position of the rods.
4. A mechanism for the transmission of motion to the rods.

DESCRIPTION OF THE APPARATUS IN DETAIL.

1. The Box.

Figure 1 is a representation of the box in perspective. The inside dimensions show a length of 60 cm., a width of 24 cm. and a height of 20 cm.

A vertical milk glass partition divides the box into two compartments, viz., the front 40 cm. long and the back compartment 20 cm. long. In addition there is an elevation of the front end of 8 cm. above the top surface of the box. This is for the purpose of screening the mechanism on top of the box from the view of the observer. One side of the box is made removable. In the middle of the front end is a window 8x12 cm. The interior surface of the front compartment, the margins of the window and the anterior surface of the front end of the box are all painted a dead black. The interior surface of the back compartment is painted a dead white. Near the rear of the back compartment are set two frosted, cylindrical electric lamps which are connected to an ordinary wall plug. Each lamp has a reflector facing the front to give high and equal illumination on the milk glass. Covering the window from behind is a Graflex shutter capable of any time exposure desired up to 1/1000 of a second.

In the top of the box are cut two parallel slits, each 12 mm. wide, extending from the front end of the box to the milk glass partition. The lateral distance between the middle points of the slits is 6 cm.

2. The test objects are two round wooden rods which are viewed thru the window in the front end of the box when the shutter is open. Each of the rods is 18 cm. long and 1 cm. in diameter. In order to be exactly duplicated they are made in a milling machine. At one end each rod is modelled to screw into a wooden or metal block (A, Figs. 3 and 4) which carries it in a vertical position along one of the parallel grooves. When set in the carrying block the lower end of each rod is about 1 cm. from the floor to give opportunity for unrestricted play and easy removal. The rods are painted a dead black or some other neutral color.

3. On top of the box, extending in the median line the length of the front compartment, is a millimeter scale. The zero mark on the scale is located at the center of this compartment, viz: 20 cm. in front of the milk glass partition.

4. The mechanism for the transmission of motion to the rods is shown in Fig. 2. This mechanism consists of several parts:

(a) Each of the two sliding blocks (A) is 20 cm. long and 4 cm. wide and is made to fit a groove cut in the top (B) of the box. According to Fig. 4

*Authority to make, according to specifications, granted June 9, 1919, to Bausch & Lomb Optical Co., by the Supply Department, Hazelhurst Field, Mineola, L. I., N. Y.

there are three holes (1, 2 and 3) drilled in the under surface of each block to receive a rod 1 cm. in diameter. This makes it possible to put one rod in the extreme anterior position on one block and the other rod in the extreme anterior position of the other block, so that a total antero-posterior separation of about 36 cm. may be obtained. Attached to the upper surface of each sliding block and opposite each one of the three possible positions of the rod is a scale marker or indicator which projects toward the median line of the box over the millimeter scale. During an experiment only that scale indicator

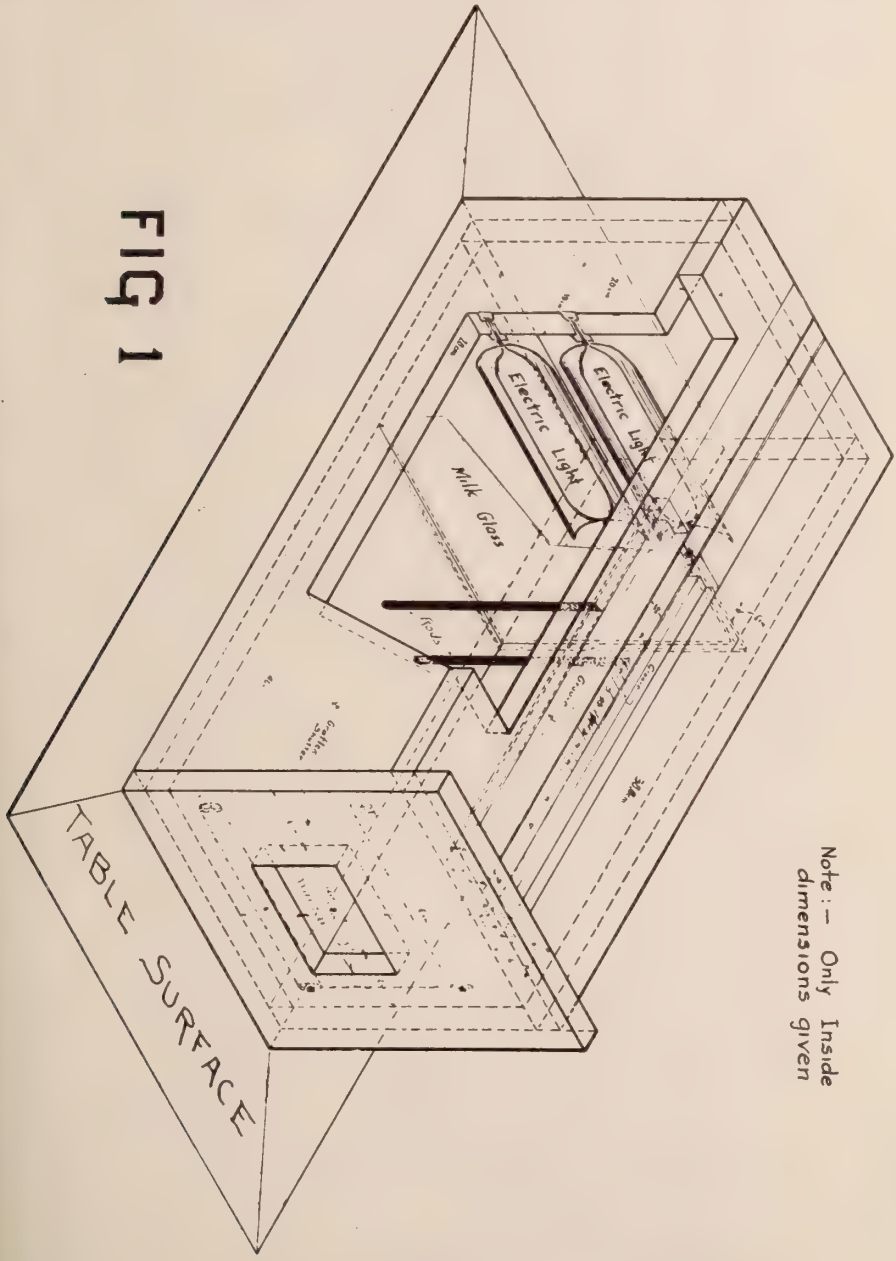


Fig. 1. For explanation see description on page 850.

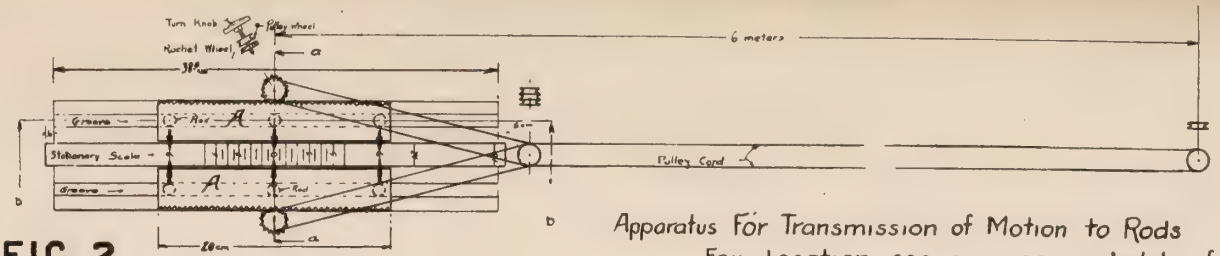


FIG 2

Apparatus For Transmission of Motion to Rods
For Location see grooves in sketch of
SIX METER STEREOSCOPE

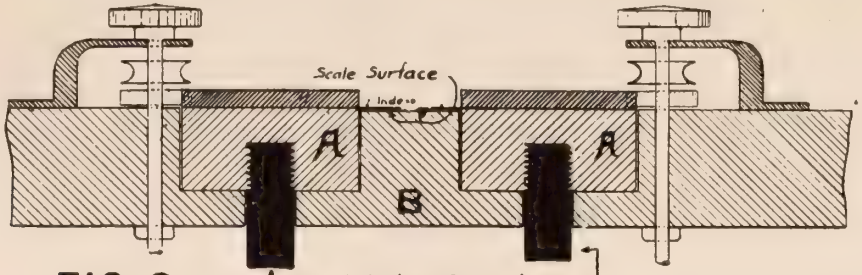


FIG 3

Rod to be 18 cm Long

Cross Section aa

Light Material
Metal
Rods shown in Black

Cross Section bb

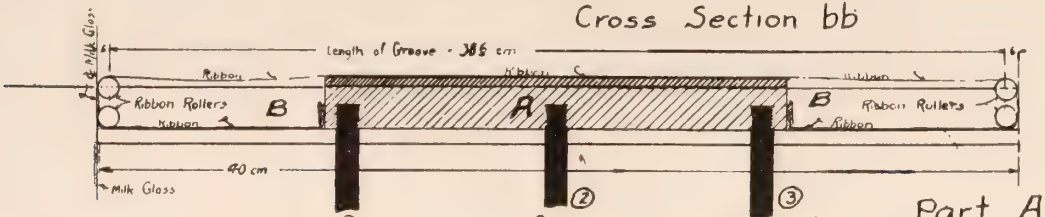


FIG 4

① 3 Locations for One Rod - Part A

Part A - Slide
Part B - Top of Stereoscope containing groove

Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. See explanation pp. 850 to 853.

is used which has a test rod opposite it.

(b) Each one of the blocks is propelled by a rack and pinion located on the top of the box. To the shaft of each pinion is attached a pulley wheel and a turning knob (Figs. 2 and 3). Just behind the front elevation at the midpoint there is a coordinating triple wheel pulley. One wheel carries a cord from the pulley of the right rack and pinion shaft, the second wheel a cord from the pulley of the left rack and pinion shaft, and the third wheel a cord from a pulley wheel is attached to a table six meters away from the center of the compartment. Two holes in the front elevation are boxed to receive the cord from this pulley on the table.

(c) In order to prevent the emission of light thru the slits in the top of the box, ribbons about 2.5 cm. wide are attached to the sliding blocks and run over the wheels as indicated in Figure 4.

TWO METHODS OF EMPLOYING TEST.

(1) A subject sitting at the table with his head fixed in a head-rest may move the rods by simply manipulating the turning knob of the pulley wheel attached to the table in front of him. As a preliminary to each observation the examiner sets the rods at unequal distances from the subject's eyes. The shutter is then opened and the subject adjusts the rods into what he considers is the same reference plane, i. e., equidistant from his eyes. After a number of such trials the average error is recorded as his depth-difference threshold.

(2) In the second method the cards are removed. The examiner adjusts the rods and raises the shutter the same as before, but the subject is required to state which rod is nearer to him, the right or the left. The rods are first placed at a depth-difference of 30 mm. If the subject makes several judgments at this station correctly, the rods are placed successively at smaller intervals apart until the subject no longer is able to perceive a difference in distance. The shortest depth-difference at which he is able to judge correctly not less than 75 per cent of the trials is recorded as his depth-difference threshold.

PRINCIPLES AND FORMULAE INVOLVED.

For an understanding of the term "depth-difference" see Figs. V and VI. It will be observed that the greater the depth difference the greater will be the binocular parallax. Table 1 (see p. 662) is a computation of binocular parallactic angles based upon interpupillary distances ranging from 57 mm. to 72.5 mm., and upon depth-differences ranging from 5 mm. to 360 mm., when the near object is six meters distant.

IMMEDIATE CAPSULOTOMY IN THE EXTRACTION OF SENILE CATARACT

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BUFFALO.

This is an account of the author's technic and experience with a cataract operation that he believes is not so widely used as it should be. It was presented to the Section on Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, June, 1919, and is here published thru the courtesy of the JOURNAL OF THE A.M.A.

No originality is claimed in this paper, but I venture to draw attention to an old procedure that possesses advantages and is not beyond the skill of the average operator.

Years ago I was told by friends who had visited the Paris Ophthalmic Clinics, of Dr. Trousseau, who performed the operation of extraction of senile cataract with one instrument. Using his fingers to steady the globe and also the lids, with the knife he opened the capsule as he passed thru the anterior chamber and expressed the lens with his fingers. While this *coup de maitre* is spectacular, it contains several elements of risk that are unnecessary and which the use of a few more instruments would eliminate. The one essential feature, the immediate capsulotomy during the passage of the knife across the anterior chamber, is, I believe, worthy of consideration.

Few practicing ophthalmologists in America, outside of the large centers of population, see a sufficient number of patients to belong to the class of experts qualified to do the "Smith-Indian" operation, since, according to the gentlemen who do perform it, nobody extracting less than 100 cataracts a year can possibly acquire that dexterity of manipulation or that delicacy of touch, without which success is impossible. Therefore to the vast majority of operating oculists this method is barred, and also to the greater number of patients is denied the luxury of a clear pupil, even tho it be a dragged up and distorted one. Dr. Bulson, in discussion before this section, some years ago stated that the average operating oculists performed about twenty-five extractions per annum. This I believe to be the truth, perhaps an overestimate rather than an underestimate. Outside of the large cities of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, and possibly towns like Dayton, Ohio, where a large number of elderly people are congregated, few of us have the opportunity to see more than two or three cataracts a month.

In a fairly large practice this is about my average; therefore I have despaired of ever acquiring the skill to perform the Smith-Indian operation and have renounced all thought of ever attempting it. Recently, however, I have been tempted to depart from the classic capsultomy, not opening the capsule with the forceps or the capsulotome, but using the point of the knife in its passage across the anterior chamber. I have been so much pleased with the result that I venture to urge the procedure on the respectful attention of my colleagues who are in my class, and have not reached the minimum annual extractions to qualify them to enter the class of experts who so ably remove the lens in its capsule.

I have performed this operation twenty-six times during the last fourteen months and believe the advantages to be the following:

1. Only one instrument is introduced into the anterior chamber, thus minimizing the chances of infection.

2. The lens is supported by the aqueous humor so that there is less danger of rupturing the suspensory ligament and thereby losing vitreous. In twenty-six cases only twice have I lost any vitreous at all, and then only a small quantity.

3. The clean-cut opening in the center of the capsule gapes open, leaving

a clear center; and unless the posterior capsule is opaque, no secondary needling is necessary.

AUTHOR'S TECHNIC.

There is a certain technic to be followed in doing an immediate capsulotomy, and the method to be described has been found the most advantageous:

In the preparation of the patient the pupil should be thoroly paralyzed, not merely dilated, to permit of as large an incision being made in the capsule as possible, and further, the pupil should be so wide as to permit the lens to escape without being squeezed by the contracting fibers of the iris, and cortex retained. This point is an important one from another standpoint. I believe that a dilated (paralyzed) iris is much less liable to prolapse than a contracted one, and also that an unbruised iris is less prone to develop iritis. A dilated iris is, of course, thicker than a contracted one; and during the period that elapses until the wound is healed, while the aqueous is still escaping, there is much less danger of prolapse taking place. I do not subscribe to the doctrine that physostigmin (eserin) should be used after a simple operation to prevent prolapse, because I believe that it really encourages it, producing, as it does, a greater surface for the escaping aqueous to push against. In consequence of this conviction, therefore, I have atropin sulphat, 1 per cent, instilled in the patient's eye twice, two hours before operation. This is usually sufficient to paralyze completely the iris as shown at the time of operation by the pupil's remaining dilated after the lens has been extracted. Of course, the usual preoperation preparation of sterilization now practiced by all of us is carried out, and the cleansing of the eye by a boric acid douche when the patient is on the operating table.

One very necessary part of the correct performance of any cataract extraction is perfect local anethesia, and this is best secured by the subconjunctival injection of cocain and epinephrin administered after the instillation of cocain until the conjunctiva is insensitive. I have never seen any harm come from this injection, and it certainly prevents sudden jerks by a nervous patient, that do occur if there is even a suggestion of pain.

In making the incision I take nearly one-half of the cornea, and immediately the knife has passed the edge of the pupil, the point is depressed and the capsule entered; the point should not be carried in deeply, only just under the capsule, and made to emerge just at the opposite edge of the pupil. Then it is carried over to the other side of the cornea, the counter puncture is made, and the section is completed with a conjunctival flap. The conjunctival flap gives me a sense of security that I do not have if I make a purely corneal incision.

The speculum is now removed and the patient instructed to look down. Then, with one thumb on the upper lid and the other on the lower, the lens is gently expressed. I have been astonished to find how much more cleanly one can express the lens with one's fingers than by the intervention of spoons and spatulas. The contour of the lower lid, fitting as it does the curve of the cornea, seems to make a more even pressure on the whole surface of the lens, and expresses it in a more compact mass than the Daviel spoon. Rarely have I seen any cortex remain, even in immature cataracts. It has not been necessary to wash out a single anterior chamber in any of my cases, and with the classic capsulotomy this was a frequent procedure and an added danger.

After the lens has been extracted, inspection of the eye is made to see if any cortex is remaining and if the iris is in place; frequently nothing more remains to be done save to apply the dressings. Occasionally the iris may not have returned to its proper position; then a few strokes of the spatula will release it from its entanglements, and the pupil will assume the normal round shape. atropin, 1 per cent, is then instilled,

White's mercuric chlorid ointment[1] is inserted between the lids, and both eyes are bandaged for forty-eight hours.

ADVANTAGES OF THIS OPERATION.

1. As no iridectomy is performed, a round pupil results.

2. A minimum of instruments are introduced into the eye, thereby lessening the danger of sepsis.

3. The gaping of the lens capsule, leaving a clear center, obviates the necessity of a secondary needling in the majority of cases.

4. The very short time that the speculum is used lessens the danger of loss of vitreous.

5. The ease with which the operation is performed. Any operator who can make a decent section can open the capsule more readily with the knife point than he can with either the capsulotome or the capsule forceps.

6. The lens can be more readily and more cleanly expressed with the fingers than with any instrument.

OBJECTIONS TO THIS OPERATION.

1. The anterior chamber is shallow. There is danger of the iris falling over the knife while the section is being made. This, of course, applies equally to any form of cataract extraction, and can be met by a preliminary iridectomy. However, if a round pupil is desired it can be obtained by a method described by Brudenell Carter many years ago, which I have used several times, with two keratomes. The cornea is opened simultaneously on opposite sides just above the usual point of puncture and counterpuncture, and the wounds are made so that the upper portion of each approach each other toward the summit of the cornea; one of the instruments may be made to enter the lens capsule, thereby making the capsulotomy. On the withdrawal of the keratomes there will be left a bridge of corneal tissue which can be divided with a blunt pointed cataract knife which can be made to glide between the iris and the posterior surface of the cornea, without wounding either. This is a very satisfactory method when the anterior chamber is so shallow that difficulty is anticipated.

2. The fingers or the thumbs are used to express the lens. The late Dr. Beard was very severe in his condemnation of the procedure, urging the danger of expressing bacteria from the meibomian follicles. The objection is, however, more theoretic than real. The force used is so slight, the gentlest pressure being sufficient to express the lens and totally inadequate to force out the contents of the meibomian follicles, that I have never seen any infection follow the use of the fingers and do not expect to. The use of an antiseptic dressing for some hours before operation also reduces this danger to a minimum.

3. There is danger of prolapse of the iris. Since I have insisted on the use of atropin until the absolute paralysis of the iris is obtained, I do not fear this danger, particularly if a conjunctival flap is made on completing the section. This closing of the wound in a few hours prevents sudden gushes of aqueous, which tend to carry the iris into the wound, particularly if the iris is not paralyzed, and more so if contracted by physostigmin.

4. Dislocation of the lens, with subsequent loss of vitreous, conceivably might occur if the capsulotomy were made too deeply; but if the capsule itself is cut and the lens merely touched, it is not liable to happen. The lens is well supported and held in position by the unescaped aqueous and, unless the knife is clumsily wielded, should not be dislocated. Still this has happened once with me in an overripe lens with an unruly patient, and the result obtained was a Smith-Indian pupil, as the lens escaped in its capsule. However, as the speculum was out of the eye but little vitreous was lost and a very good result was obtained. Unfortunately, however, this patient ultimately lost his vision from a severe retinal hemorrhage one month after operation. He was a man of 77 with hard arteries, and

1. The ointment is composed of 1:3,000 mercuric chlorid in petrolatum.

there is a legitimate doubt as to whether the operation was in any way responsible for his loss of sight. We have all seen retinal hemorrhage occur in cases of arteriosclerosis without any operation. However, I did learn a lesson from the case. I should not attempt an immediate capsulotomy in an overripe lens for two reasons:

(a) The weakened attachment of the suspensory ligament is liable to cause it to rupture easily and induce loss of vitreous.

(b) The capsule, which is generally thickened, does not divide easily, as it does in a lens that is not hypermature.

I therefore deprecate this method in such cases, preferring to open the capsule with the forceps and extract after an iridectomy to obviate the distorted pupil, which is so commonly the result when the lens escapes in the capsule. As to the ultimate results, the accompanying table compares favorably with others that I have seen published, and altho the number is small, may encourage my colleagues in my class to give this method a trial.

RESULTS OF OPERATIONS.

No.	Date	Initial	Sex	Age	Eye	Refraction	Vision	Remarks
1	12/ 2/17	C. V.	F	73	R	+10.00 sph.	20/20	
2	2/12/18	E. M.	F	80	L	Myopic .....No central vision		Central choroiditis
3	2/ 7/18	P. C.	M	72	R	+10.00 sph. ⊃ +2.00 cyl. ax. 15	20/50	Iris fell over knife, and excised piece fell to bottom of anterior chamber.
4	5/27/18	F. L. P.	M	70	R	+ 8.50 sph. ⊃ +3.00 cyl. ax. 15	20/100	Report eye injured 50 years ago and has been blind with this ever since.
5	6/20/18				L	+12.00 sph. ⊃ +1.00 cyl. ax. 180	20/30	
6	5/27/13	J. O.	M	66	L	+ 9.00 sph. ⊃ +3.00 cyl. ax. 165	20/25	
7	11/22/18				R			
8	6/19/18	L. A.	M	66	R	Not refracted	—	A secondary needling necessary.
9	7/11/18	W. S. M.	F	60	R	+ 9.50 sph. ⊃ +2.50 cyl. ax. 180	20/30	
10	6/18/18	R. J.	M	70	R	+11.50 sph. ⊃ +2.00 cyl. ax. 180	20/50	Lens immature
					L	+10.00 sph.	20/20	Acknowledges "a touch of syphilis"; paralysis agitans
11	6/12/18	L. J. S.	M	71	R	Dense capsule given +10.00 sph.		Right capsule should be needled, but patient is satisfied with present vision
12					L	+ 9.00 sph. ⊃ +2.50 cyl. ax. 180	20/30	
13	6/26/18	F. B.	M	72	R	+ 6.50 sph. ⊃ +3.50 cyl. ax. 165	20/40	A practicing dentist; has resumed professional work
14					L	+ 7.50 sph. ⊃ +2.50 cyl. ax. 20.	20/40	
15	9/18/18	C. F.	M	84	L	+ 7.00 sph. ⊃ +3.00 cyl. ax. 15.	20/50	
16	9/25/18	A. P.	F	64	R	Not refracted nearing +10.00...	.....	Right eye operated on later with small prolapse of iris; is satisfied with +10.00.
17					L	+ 9.50 sph. ⊃ +2.25 cyl. ax. 15.	20/40+	
18	11/ 5/18	J. S.	F	57	R	+ 7.50 sph. ⊃ +5.00 cyl. ax. 165	20/40	Iris caught on knife in making section
19	11/16/18	J. F.	M	77	L	Loss of vitreous.....	%	Retinal hemorrhage 1 month after operation.
20	11/21/18	F. S.	F	63	R	+10.00 sph. ⊃ +2.00 cyl. ax. 175	20/30	Patient had chronic glaucoma of both eyes; I trephined both eyes 12/14/17; both lenses became opaque
21	1/18/18	H. H.	M	69	R	Not yet refracted.....	.....	Right lens, hypermature capsule tough; slight loss of vitreous; left, no loss of vitreous
22	3/14/19				L			
23	1/19/19	J. S.	M	67	L	+11.50 sph. ⊃ +1.75 cyl. ax. 15.	20/40	
24	6/ 4/18	W. S.	F	61	R	+ 8.50 sph. ⊃ +4.00 cyl. ax. 180	20/40	
25	11/24/18				L	+10.50 sph. ⊃ +2.00 cyl. ax. 15.	20/30	
26	2/12/19	S. G.	F	60	R	Not yet refracted.....	.....	A case of ozena with dacryocystitis; both canaliculi destroyed with dichloracetic acid; healing uneventful

COMMENT.

An analysis of the twenty-six cases shows: Two eyes, 20/20 vision; one eye, 20/25 vision; five eyes, 20/30 vision; six eyes, 20/40 vision; three eyes, 20/50 vision; one eye, 25/100 vision; six eyes not refracted; three too early; two should be needled; one satisfied with +10.00 sph.; one eye, no vision because of central choroiditis; one eye, no vision from retinal hemorrhage.

Seventeen of the patients obtained 20/50 or better. The patient with 20/100 had been blind in this eye for fifty years from accident, and any vision was better than what he had for so long.

I was very much disappointed in Case 2, as it was ideal from an operative standpoint. The patient's projection before operation seemed perfect. However, when she came for refraction an old central choroiditis was discovered and the vision was eccentric.

I have referred to Case 19 earlier in the paper.

I wish briefly to call attention to Case 20: This woman had chronic glaucoma of each eye with tension of 56 mm. and a rapidly deteriorating vision. The lenses were slightly opaque. I trephined both eyes December 14, 1917, and stayed the glaucomatous process. However, the lenses continued to become more and more opaque, and, November 21, 1918, I removed the right one. In making the trephine operation I buttonholed the iris, leaving a round pupil. At the cataract operation the lens was removed through the intact pupil. The resulting vision is 20/30.

Patient 9 was a man of 70 who acknowledged specific infection; he was also a sufferer from paralysis agitans. At the time of operation my assistant was obliged to hold his head steady the entire time, and altho it was possible to control this, his lower jaw persisted in its agitation, and I can assure you that it is disconcerting to have a patient gnash his teeth at you all the time you are performing a delicate operation. However, the outcome was very successful. Vision is 20/20 with a +10.00 sph. with a perfectly mobile pupil.

Of the six cases on which I cannot yet give the ultimate vision, three were too recent to be refracted at the time this paper was written. Two should be needled because of opaque posterior capsule, and the remaining one is satisfied with a +10.00 sph., which was given to balance the weight of the lens prescribed for the first operated eye. All these six eyes promised to give an average result, when finally fitted, at least equal to those reported.

Finally, I wish to urge my confrères that are in my class to give this method a trial, and I can assure them that they will not be disappointed.

PARALYSIS OF ACCOMMODATION DUE TO FOCAL INFECTIONS.

CLARENCE A. VEASEY, M.D.,

SPOKANE, WASHINGTON.

This report of three additional cases was read at the meeting of the American Ophthalmological Society, June 17, 1919. (See discussion p. 879.)

At the meeting of the Pacific Coast Oto-Ophthalmological Society in June, 1916, I presented a paper on "Chronic Infections of the Faucial Tonsils as a Causative Factor in the Production of Paralysis of the Accommodation with the Report of Two Cases."

One of these cases was treated for some time for the paralysis of accommodation without result, and within four days after the removal of the infected tonsils, the patient was able to read Jaeger 3, and within six days from the time of the operation the accommodation was entirely restored.

The second case was given no treatment for the ophthalmoplegia and within three days after the removal of

his infected tonsils the accommodation was entirely restored.

In the same paper another case of paralysis of accommodation due to a focal infection is referred to as having occurred in the practice of Dr. T. B. Holloway, of Philadelphia, who was kind enough to give me the notes, the latter case being due to a streptococcic catgut infection.

Since the above report was presented, a number of other similar reports have appeared in the literature, not only from chronic infection of the faucial tonsils, but from focal infection occurring elsewhere, and I wish now to present briefly a report of three additional cases.

Case 1. Miss Blank, aged twenty-one, known by the writer all her life, while on shipboard returning from a three months' sojourn in the Hawaiian Islands, complained of difficulty in reading fine print. But little attention was paid to the complaint at the time and the condition gradually progressed.

The patient's general health was excellent. There had never been any trouble with the eyes before. She had a very moderate astigmatism, using in R. + cyl. 0.25 D. axis 90°, and in L. + cyl. 0.37 D. axis 90°. The vision of each eye at the time of refraction two years before was 6/5+, both with and without lenses.

After reaching home the patient's eyes were examined and she was found to have 6/5 vision in each eye, both with and without glasses, and there was found to be an almost complete paralysis of accommodation. The eye grounds were normal.

About nine months before the patient had had an infection of the right antrum which cleared up under a few irrigations. Examination at the time of studying the eyes showed no infection of the accessory nasal sinuses, no pus in the nares, and no pus could be expressed from either of the faucial tonsils. A skiagraph of the teeth showed slight absorption at the root of one of the central incisors, a tooth which had been filled, but the filling did not extend to the bottom of the pulp cavity. This tooth was opened and drained and within two weeks the accommodation had entirely returned.

Case 2. Miss B. M., aged about thirty, a graduate nurse holding a responsible position in a large hospital, first observed forty-eight hours before being seen by me that she could not read ordinary print with the right eye. At the time of the examination the vision was, R. 6/30, and L. 6/6. In the right eye the pupil was widely dilated and immobile. There was complete paralysis of accommodation. No gross fundus changes were visible.

In the left eye the pupil was 4 mm. in diameter, normal in reaction, and she could read Jaeger 1; p.p. 7″.

An examination of the nasal accessory sinuses was negative. All of them transilluminated well, and there was no free pus in the nose. Large quantities of pus could be expressed from each faucial tonsil, the latter being cryptic in character. The blood, Wassermann and urine were negative. The patient stated that she had formerly had an attack of appendicitis, the appendix not having been removed, but an examination by her surgeon resulted in the report that there was no trouble at the present time and it was not believed that any focal infection could have arisen from this portion of the body. An examination of the teeth also was negative.

With the belief that the chronic infected tonsils might possibly be the cause of the paralysis of accommodation, they were removed under local anesthesia. Three days later the accommodation was returning, the pupil was much smaller, and the patient could read large print on a magazine cover. Inasmuch as she was in bed at the hospital, no actual measurements of the accommodation were made at this time. Five days after the operation the patient read easily Jaeger 6. One week after the operation the accommodation had entirely returned and Jaeger 1 was easily read, both pupils being equal in size and normal in reaction.

Case 3. E. B. T., female, married, aged about 26 years, was first seen January 31, 1919. She presented a

history of great difficulty in reading from time to time, altho, according to her statement, her distant vision was fairly good. There was also a history of hemicrania and some complaint of gastrointestinal disturbance.

The vision for the right eye equalled 6/6, and the patient at the time of the examination read with great difficulty Jaeger 1, p.p. 14 inches. The vision of the left eye was 6/7.5, and the patient read Jaeger 3, p.p. 15 inches, with great difficulty.

Examination of the nose and throat showed marked deflection of the nasal septum, but no pressure was present and no free pus in either naris; there were chronically diseased tonsils and a large, ragged adenoid filled with crypts.

Further tests showed that the patient had an impaired accommodation, and the immediate removal of the tonsils and adenoids was advised. It was not believed by the patient, however, or the patient's husband that the tonsils and adenoids could have anything whatever to do with the ocular condition, and the removal of the tonsils and adenoids was therefore postponed until some months later, the eyes continuing in the same condition in the meantime. Within two weeks after the removal of the tonsils and adenoids, the patient was again examined, and the vision for R. was 6/6, the patient reading easily Jaeger 1, p.p. 9 inches, and for L. 6/5, reading Jaeger 1 easily, p.p. 7 inches. The general health was also very greatly improved.

This last case was not, at the time that she first came under observation, one of complete paralysis of accommodation, but one of paresis. It is understood that at times the accommodation had been completely paralyzed, and the fact that the condition cleared up so rapidly after the removal of the tonsils seems to place it in the same class with the other two cases.

It is believed that in each instance the paralysis or paresis of accommodation was due to a focal infection, in the first case the absorption at the root of the central incisor giving rise to the focus, and in the second and third cases the focus being found in the chronically diseased tonsils.

ACCOMMODATION IN THE LENSLESS EYE.

A. Edward Davis, A.M., M.D.,

NEW YORK CITY.

This discussion of apparent accommodation after removal of the lens is based upon the case of a woman, aged 73, who had been subjected to cataract extraction. Read before the American Ophthalmological Society, June 17, 1919. (See p. 881.)

In 1895[1] the author reported two cases of accommodation in the lenseless eye, one in a young subject, the other in a man 42 years of age, both following extraction of cataract, together with a review of the literature on the subject up to that date, 1895.

Having observed another even more remarkable case of the same nature, occurring in a woman 73 years of age, I have thought it worth while to report the case before this scientific body, and to have an expression of opinion on the question, to wit, *whether the lenseless eye has accommodative power.*

Förster, Woinow, von Graefe, Silex, Jaeger, Loring, the author, and many others maintain that accommodative power, in exceptional cases, is present in the lenseless eye; while such eminent authorities as Helmholtz, Donders, Manhardt, etc., oppose this contention, Donders[2] declaring that his investigations had convinced him, "that in aphakia not the slightest trace of accommodative power remains"; and further, "In old people, and with imperfect acuteness of vision, observers sometimes think they are able to prove the existence of a certain amount of range of accommodation; but in young persons, with perfectly clear pupils and great acuteness of vision,

in whom precisely we might still expect to find some accommodative power, it is quite evident that the latter is entirely lost."

Donders then reports two cases in young people in whom the lens had been removed by discission, with excellent result, the vision being extraordinarily acute in one case, in which no trace of accommodative power could be demonstrated. His method of testing the accommodative power was the familiar one of looking at a point of light in the distance with the refractive error properly corrected. "With glasses of 1/3, placed at 5″ from the eye, he saw, at a great distance, a point of light sufficiently round and perfectly defined. A sight (*vizier*) was placed in the direction between one of the eyes and the point of light, and when he looked with converging visual lines towards the sight, the point of light remained unchanged or became somewhat smaller and sharper, without changing its form. If the lens was removed only ¼″ more or less from the eye, the distant point of light had ceased to be a defined, round point, and was elongated in one direction, to the form of a line; now even with the most powerful exertion, and convergence in the point of sight, the line of light became only somewhat shorter, without, however, a point making its appearance. This shortening, as well as diminution of the acutely seen point, depended upon narrowing of the pupil, which was, indeed, directly observed[2]."

In a second case, a similar test was made with a like result, and an additional test was made, to wit: While the patient was looking at the point of light with his correction on, Donders interposed a weak plus (1/180) or minus glass (1/180) in front of the eye, which produced the well-known change in the point of light; the patient constantly stated that "by + 1/180 (.25D) the point of light was extended in the vertical, by — 1/180 (.25D) in the horizontal direction to a short line. On the other hand the convergence of the visual lines, with the effort to see near objects, was not followed by the slightest change of form, consequently, there was no reason to suppose the existence of accommodative power[2]. The same experiment was repeated with a lens of only 1/300 (about .12D) with similar results, consequently, Donders concluded that not a trace of accommodative power was left in the lenseless eye, even in young subjects.

Donders did not give the result of his tests with Snellen or Jaeger types, but used only a point of light.

I have given both of Donders' tests rather fully, in order to show the error made in the first; and the unreliability of the second. In the first he states that he moved the correcting glass 1/3 (or +12D) slightly (¼″) *from* the eye, then had the patient make accommodative efforts to correct the blurred image which had been brought about by moving the glass *forward*. I submit that the correcting glass should have been moved *toward* the eye (backward) if the accommodative effort was to be tested. In regard to the second test of interposing a very weak glass (plus or minus) in front of the correcting glass, and noting if the image is elongated in the vertical meridian by a plus glass, or in the horizontal meridian by a minus glass, is often most contradictory and unsatisfactory. In other words, I do not think Donders made sufficient tests to prove his contention,—that no trace of accommodative power remains in the lensless eye.

It is interesting to cite here the case reported by Loring, of an exactly similar type to the two reported by Donders, in which Loring arrives at diametrically opposite conclusions to those of Donders. The patient was a young girl, aged 18 years, in whom both lenses had been removed by discission: "The pupils were round, free from membrane and active. With +1/3½, the patient read with either eye fluently Snellen XXX, and was able, with both eyes, to pick out most of the letters of XX at twenty feet. She could read No. X at ten feet, and No. V. at five feet. With the same glass, and with no change of position on the nose, she read No. 1½ Snellen fluently, holding the book naturally at twelve inches, which was about the same distance at which she usually read. The book was then gradually withdrawn, the patient reading aloud while this was done. It was found that

twenty-one and a half inches was the greatest distance at which No. 1½ Snellen could be read. She read No. 1 Jaeger at twenty inches. The book was then advanced inch by inch, the patient reading aloud till the book was within five inches of the eye. Inside of this, reading was impossible. These experiments were tried over and over again by myself, and were finally repeated in the presence of a brother oculist. This would give the patient an adaptability of the eyes for different distances from twenty feet (or parallel rays) to five inches; or, in other words, an accommodation of 1/5 (A = 1/5) and a relative accommodation for the very finest print from twenty inches to five (A = 1/6½)."

One could not ask for more convincing proof of accommodation in the lenseless eye, than the report of the above case of Loring. However, one of the cases formerly reported by myself already referred to, is just as convincing[1]. Very briefly stated, the salient points in the case are: The patient, a man 42 years of age, had combined extraction of a black cataract in the right eye, January 17, 1894. Three months after the extraction V = 20/10 with + 11.50 D, and with the same glass, which he did not move on his nose, he read Jaeger No. 1 from 14" to 18". On February 4, 1895, the patient maintained his marked acuteness of 20/10 with + 11.50 D, and read Jaeger No. 1 from 8" to 22½". The shape of the pupil in this case was an irregular vertical oval from the iridectomy, and free from membrane, except a very narrow margin at the edge. The transverse diameter was 3½ mm., the vertical about 7 mm. This patient was presented before the New York Ophthalmological Society in October, 1894, but the members were divided in their opinions as to how the patient was able to accommodate for the near point.

REPORT OF PRESENT CASE.

Mrs. J. H. B., aged 73 years, in fairly good health, consulted me, January 18, 1919. Senile cataract in each eye, mature in the left; R. V., fingers 4 feet; L. V., L. P. projection, good.

February 7, under cocain anesthesia, a combined extraction was performed on the left eye. There was an uninterrupted recovery, and the patient was discharged from the hospital on the seventh day. March 22, six weeks after the operation, she was tested for glasses with the following result: Ophthalmometer—Astigmatism against the rule, 2.50D. L.V. = 15/30 with + 16D⌒ +1.50 cyl. ax. 150°. The patient reads Jaeger No. 1, 7" to 13" with the same glass without changing position or tilting the same. By preference, she holds ordinary newspaper print at 8 inches. The ophthalmoscope shows H. 16 D and the media clear. The pupil is closed by a membrane, except for a clear space at the center, vertically oval in shape, 2½ by 3 mm. in diameter.

The patient, when she came under my care, was wearing R. eye +6D⌒ +2C ax. 60°, L. eye +6D⌒ +2C. ax. 135°. She gave a history of having strabismus in childhood, which "was cured by having the ears pierced*."

It is significant that the patient later in childhood wore strong convex glasses which likely accounts for the cure of the squint without operation.

Extensive and rigid tests were made in the two former cases reported by me, and the same were repeated in the present case. Subjective tests: 1. (a) Acuteness of vision for distance and near point, with the distance glasses; (b) same with upper lid held up; (c) same with a few drops of cocain instilled and speculum to hold lids open; (d) adding weak plus or minus glasses to distant glasses and noting changes in acuteness of vision; (e) to repeat the

*Dr. A. E. Davis, New York City.

Dear Dr. Davis:—In answer to your letter of the 5th inst. regarding Mrs. J. H. B., I find that I examined her eyes on March 27, 1915. At that time her vision was:

O. D. 20/100 w + 6.00 D. Sph. + 2.00 D. Cy. ax 60.

O. S. 20/100 w + 6.00 D. Sph. + 2.00 D. Cy. ax 135.

The centers of both lens were sclerosed. Another peculiarity about this case is that when a child she had squint which was cured by piercing her ears.

With kind regards, I am,

Yours truly,

T. H. FARRELL.

above tests with the opposing eye uncovered, and with the visual lines converging. 2. Testing the acuteness of vision for a distant point of light (after Donders' methods), under the five conditions imposed in test No. 1.

Objective tests: 1. (a) Measurement, with the ophthalmometer, of the radius of curvature of the two chief meridians of the cornea at the point where the visual line intersects same; (b) same measurement five degrees to the temporal side of this point, which is close to the apex of the cornea, as the angle alpha is usually positive, and about five degrees in amount. 2. (a) With the Placido disc removed from the cylinder of the ophthalmometer, and with the patient looking five degrees to the inner or nasal side, to note if any changes are made in the relative position and size of the corneal images when the eye changes from looking in the distance to a near point, *the eye not changing its direction;* (b) the same test with the lids held open with a speculum; (c) with the opposite eye uncovered both of the above tests repeated. 3. Ophthalmoscopic measurements of the fundus were made, to see if any change in depth occurred when the eye changed from a state of rest to accommodative efforts. 4. The size and shape of the pupil, if clear, or partially filled with membrane, activity, etc., noted. All of the above tests were carefully made in the present case, with the visual results noted in the case report, that is, vision 15/30 w+16D⌒ +1.50 cyl. ax. 150°; and with the same glass, without being moved or tilted in any way, she read with ease, and as a matter of choice, Jaeger type (No. 1) at 7″. And after atropin had been instilled three times a day for three days, Jaeger No. 1 could still be read from 8″ to 13″, the near point having receded from the eye one inch, under the influence of the cycloplegic*. This would indicate that, in this patient at least, the ciliary muscle had some influence on the accommodation, even after the lens was removed; for without atropin in the eye, the patient could read Jaeger No. 1 at 7″, while with atropin in the eye, the Jaeger No. 1 could not be read closer than 8″. Now the difference between a lens of 7″ focus (5.71 D) and one of 8″ focus (5. D) is .71D; that is, the ciliary muscle exercised accommodative effort of .71D, about three-fourths of a diopter. (When the right eye was covered in these tests, it was seen to turn in, and the pupil to contract for the near point.)

Donders' test with a point of light in the distance, where weak plus or minus glasses were interposed in front of the correcting glass, proved unsatisfactory, as the patient made contradictory statements.

As to the objective tests in this case, the ophthalmometer showed an astigmatism of 2.50D against the rule, the lesser refracting meridian being at 60° (40.50 D), while the stronger refracting meridian was at 150° (44.D) in refractive power.

When the patient made accommodative effort on looking into the tube of the instrument (the images of the mires having been approximated just so they touched before the effort was made) the images would overlap about .75D in the meridian of 150° and became slightly blurred, and the instrument had to be pulled slightly away from the patient to get a clear image. But little or no change took place when this experiment was tried with the meridian at 60°.

It was impossible to detect any change in the depth of the fundus of the eye with the ophthalmoscope when the eye changes from a state of rest while looking in the distance and when making accommodative effort. However, that the curve of the cornea can be changed, by accommodative effort, to a slight extent at least, in the lenseless eye, is shown by two of my cases. In the normal eye the change in curvature of the cornea by accommodative effort is in some cases very marked. The most marked case of this kind that I have seen occurred in the person of Dr. C. H. Johnson, a former house-surgeon at the Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital. The ophthalmometer

*These tests were repeated in the presence of a fellow oculist, Dr. F. W. Shine.

showed him to have ordinarily an astigmatism .50D. ax. 90° + 180°—each eye. He could, however, without in any way changing the direction of the eye, voluntarily, by efforts at accommodation, change this astigmatism in the right eye to 2D., and in the left to 1.50D. He was able to do this while the upper lid was held up with the finger, showing that it was not due to lid-pressure. He did this many times, and the same change was observed by a number of the staff at the hospital. Desiring to know if this change was due to the action of the ciliary muscle or to that of the external muscles of the eye, I wrote to the late Dr. J. M. Ray, of Louisville, where Dr. Johnson resided, to put Dr. Johnson's eyes under the influence of a cycloplegic (the doctor permitting), and in that way eliminate the question of the ciliary muscle. I give his report:

"V. R. E. 20/20; V. L. E. 20/20. Ophthalmometer shows astigmatism with the rule, .50D ax. 70° 160° Rt.; 90° + 180°—Lt. When he made an effort at accommodation without changing the direction of his eye, the astigmatism can be seen to go up to 2D in R. and 1.50D in L. Scopolamin, four instillations of 1/5% solution, apparently paralyzed accommodation. Then with the ophthalmometer the astigmatism still seems to increase in the right eye to 1.50D, and in the left to 1.D."

From this it appears that, in Dr. Johnson's case at least, the change in the curve of the cornea was brought about mainly by the external muscles of the eye, as the influence of the lids and ciliary muscle was eliminated.

My own conclusion, from studying the history of the subject, and from the careful and complete tests made in the three cases reported by me, is that the accommodation present in the lenseless eye is due chiefly to the ability of the patient, in such cases, to interpret dispersion circles. The slight change in curvature of the cornea, and its slight advancement observed in some cases, may, in those cases, account for some of the accommodative power present, but it is such a small factor that it may be eliminated entirely, especially since in some of the most marked cases of accommodation in aphakic eyes no such changes have been observed. How the change in the curvature of the cornea and its advancement are brought about have been discussed in this paper already.

Altho, as Loring says, "It would seem impossible that the ability to read the finest print at five inches (which was done in his case), even taking into consideration the magnifying power of the glass, could be due to the overcoming of the circles of dispersion," yet I believe such to be the case, and for the following reasons: First, to the great increase in size of the retinal images by the removal of the crystalline lens and replacing it with a lens in front of the eye. By this procedure the united nodal point is moved forward, and this, with the magnifying power of the glass in front of the eye, greatly increases in size the retinal images. Donders[2] has shown by calculation, that a convex lens of three-inch focus, placed one-half inch (usual distance) in front of the eye increases the retinal images in size one and one-third times. By this one factor alone, then, the images of Jaeger No. 1 would be increased in size until they equaled (for the unoperated eye) Jaeger No. 2, or a little larger. Second, to the narrowing of the pupil. Where no iridectomy is done, this is due to contraction of the iris as the result of convergence and an effort at accommodation; where an iridectomy is done to a partial filling up of the pupil by membrane, except the central opening. It is a well-known fact that if the pupil is narrowed from any cause such narrowing acts as a diaphragm to cut off the peripheral rays of light entering the eye, and serves in this way to lessen the dispersion circles. Third, to the extraordinary acuteness of vision present sometimes after cataract extraction, e. g., as happened in one of my cases, where it was 20/10, double the ordinary acuteness of vision. I believe this fact contributed largely to the

power of interpretation present in this case; for he had an iridectomy and a clear pupil. Fourth, in some cases, to the patient not looking directly thru the center of the glass, but slightly outside of the center, either by tilting the glasses, tilting his head, or not holding the reading matter directly in front of him. In my opinion, this fourth factor in effect, a slight tilting of the strong plus glasses, assists the individual in interpreting dispersion circles chiefly by neutralizing the monochromatic aberration present in such cases. This is a point which no writer has hitherto called attention to in discussing this subject. Wm. Harkness[3] has shown that, "with a pupil four millimetres in diameter, the normal cornea produces monochromatic aberration to the extent of 1/33; and as there is no confusion of images in the normal eye, it seems probable that the crystalline lens exerts some compensating action. This suspicion is strengthened by the well-known fact that in aphakia the acuteness of vision is nearly always improved by giving a certain inclination to the powerful convex glasses which are then necessary[3]." Furthermore, this very fact of monochromatic aberration in the lenseless eye, to my mind, renders Donders' light-point test more or less unreliable.

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NOTES, CASES AND INSTRUMENTS

ASSISTANTS IN SMITH'S CATARACT OPERATION.

MAJOR A. E. J. LISTER, M.B., B.S., LONDON, F.R.C.S., ENGLAND. I.M.S.
LUCKNOW, INDIA.

It is, I think, urged with justice that one of the drawbacks to Smith's operation for the intracapsular extraction of cataract is that it requires a very highly trained and experienced assistant for its safe performance. I agree fully with this opinion, as the result of my own experience. Some three and a half years ago my house surgeon fell ill in the height of the cataract season. I was, therefore, forced to devise a method of using less skilled men, as I had no time to train another man.

From practical experience in assisting at Smith's operation I knew the only real difficulty was to control the orbicularis muscle with the third and fourth fingers, while at the same time with the thumb and first finger holding up the lid with the strabismus hook. It is quite a simple matter to do either of these duties separately, the difficulty lies in doing them at the same time.

I therefore determined to use two men, one for each of these duties. I had available two men called compounders, who in India dispense medicine and help in dressing cases.

I made one control the orbicularis muscle with his thumb; for the right eye the thumb of the assistant's left hand is used, his arm being extended at full length, so as to remove his body out of the way of the operator. For the left eye the right thumb is used in a similar manner.

The other assistant finds it very easy to hold up the upper lid with the right hand and with the left hand to slightly pull down the lower lid. As the eyelids and eyebrow are wet the thumbs and fingers of both assistants should be well dried after sterilization, to allow them to grip more firmly. I regard this as a point of some importance.

I always allow them to do this on the far edge of the sterilized towel which I place over the patient's head. This portion of the towel does not come into the field of operation and if the operator makes a practice of presenting this corner to the assistant before he places

it over the patient's head, it serves as a reminder to the assistant. It ensures the use of a perfectly sterile towel each time, altho only one is required for each operation, a consideration, if there are a large number of operations, as in India.

I find a small piece of sterilized cotton wool placed under the thumb of the left hand of the assistant who is controlling the lower lid, gives a firmer hold and prevents slipping upwards of the lid if the patient strains.

The assistants can learn their duties in a very short time, whereas it takes a long time to train a single assistant.

At first the use of two assistants may seem complicated to an onlooker, and they may appear to be in the operator's way, but if anyone will try this method in a simple iridectomy case first, to get accustomed to it under easy conditions, I am sure he will not care to go back to the old method. Apart from the fact that the old method is no better, if as good, it makes him dependent on the presence of a single person. If this person is absent he cannot do an operation in safety or comfort. If either of the two assistants be absent anyone can place his thumb on the orbicularis muscle and the operation can be done in comfort.

In Europe and America, where the assistant is usually a house surgeon, whose tenure of office is generally a year, and the number of operations for cataract not very large, there is not time to train a man properly during his term of office. A man can learn to assist with safety after a few operations by this method. The advantage of this will appeal to all practical surgeons.

I have now used this method for two and a half years and I prefer it to the older method of using only one assistant, as described by Colonel Smith in his book and other writings. I know from personal experience as an assistant and from painful experience as an operator, that in a very bad patient in which the operation is sometimes necessarily prolonged, the fingers of the assistant get a little tired and the firmness of their grasp relaxes. This allows the orbicularis muscle to act and escape of vitreous may result. By this method the assistant can control the orbicularis muscle and hold up the upper lid quite steadily for a long time.

I have used this method also in capsulotomy operations in bad patients with great advantage.

I have seen what are called bad patients on the operating table in England and on the continent, but I have never seen anything to even approach a really bad Indian patient. Some European writers have written about the docile Indian patient. In my part of India these are few and some of them are so bad that I cannot imagine anything worse.

I can therefore confidently recommend this proceeding. Many surgeons who have visited my clinic and seen this method in use have expressed the opinion that it is a valuable one, and in their opinion removes one of the chief drawbacks to Smith's operation.

The assistants change their duties daily. This keeps both in practice. If one happens not to be able to come, a nurse can control the orbicularis muscle quite well. I, however, usually teach my theatre nurse how to do this as well as the usual assistants, so that I may have her to fall back on, if required. Letting her do it once or twice is quite enough to make her efficient.

In my opinion, in spite of the many other appliances which have been advocated, the use of the strabismus hook for lifting up the upper lid has the great advantage, that it does not take up much room. A very essential point, especially in some cases. In the method I advocate, if one wants a little more room at one side, when replacing the iris, it is a very simple matter for the operator himself to adjust the hook in such a way as to give this. The assistant soon learns to allow him to do this, and when the hook is in the desired position, he lifts it up a little, which gives a good exposure of the upper surface of the globe.

A good assistant will do this himself but it is a great advantage to be able to do this one's self, if he does not see what is required.

TESTS FOR DETERMINING THE SIGHTING EYE.

CAPTAIN PERC. DOLMAN, M.C.
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There is considerable literature devoted to the subject of the sighting eye, but reference to specific tests for determining which eye is habitually used for sighting are difficult to find. This is probably explained by the fact that the act of sighting or aligning two objects is such a common experience in life that tests may easily be borrowed from this source. Few of these tests, however, meet the exact requirements of research work.

The possible coordination between the sighting eye and right- or left-handedness must be considered in selecting a test. Serious attempts have been made to establish this association between the dominant eye and the dominant hand in spite of the fact that no anatomic relation can be demonstrated. Until our knowledge on the subject is increased by scientific experiment, the possible influence of either hand should be eliminated from the adopted procedure. Tests made by pointing with either forefinger or with a pencil held in either hand or by sighting thru a ring held in either hand are open to criticism for this reason.

In another form of test the observer approaches a stationary object such as a vertical rod and aligns it with another object located some distance away. This procedure is free from the influence of either hand but it frequently happens that, in walking toward the first object, the nonsighting eye is carried in line with the two test objects by a mere accident of head position. Such a test is unnecessarily inconvenient in addition to being unreliable.

During a recent investigation of the influence of fixation on the measurement of heterophoria, on the relation of the sighting eye to the measurement of heterophoria, it was necessary to test each observer for his sighting eye. Experiments were made with various tests and a conclusion reached that the possible influence of either hand would be greatly reduced by holding the first test object in both hands. A 13x20 cm. card with a 3 cm. round hole in the center was employed instead of the customary pencil or pointer. The use of such a card compels the selection of one or the other eye for sighting thru the hole, thus eliminating a certain percentage of negative results which are obtained when the first and second test objects are aligned with some point between the two eyes.

The test is performed by having the observer grasp the short ends of the card with both hands and raise it slowly at arm's length while looking intently at a spot of light six meters distant. He is instructed to keep both eyes open and locate the light thru the hole in the card. The eye selected for this purpose is the sighting eye.

This test has been made repeatedly on the same observers with intervals of several days between trials. The eye that was selected the first time, whether the right or left, was invariably selected at the later tests.

The apparatus required for the test just described is both simple and convenient. It does not permit the selection of a sighting point situated between the two eyes but forces the use of one or the other eye for the act of sighting. The possible influence of the right or left hand on the test is greatly lessened by having the card held in both hands. The results obtained with it are consistent in repeated trials with the same individual.

SOCIETY PROCEEDINGS

AMERICAN OPHTHALMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

FIFTY-FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING

Atlantic City, June 14-17, 1919

President, DR. LUCIEN HOWE, of Buffalo.

(Concluded from page 763.)

Lethargic Encephalitis.

DR. HIRAM WOODS, Baltimore, reported six cases in which the diagnosis of this curious disease seemed justified. A seventh case was included because of the characteristic eye disturbances and negative pathologic findings on thoro study. Lethargy, however, was not present to any extent. The case was the only one which terminated fatally, apparently thru involvement of the respiratory centers. Autopsy was not allowed.

Of the six cases, lethargy was the first symptom in three. This was soon followed by ocular disturbances. In three the eyes were first affected. Eye symptoms divide themselves into tw classes: (1) Those without paralysis, but showing curious spasmodic movements of certain muscles when others were called into action. (2) More or less complete ocular palsies. These included ptosis, convergence, pupillary action, accommodation, inferior recti, and a transient paralysis of the externus in one case. The nuclei of the third nerves seem the points of most frequent attack. In but one case was there optic neuritis.

Recovery was slow; indeed, after two or three months some of the patients were not well. Apparently this disease is not well understood; and it is especially likely to come under the observation of the opthalmologist.

DISCUSSION.—Dr. Arthur J. Bedell, Albany, N. Y.—Dr. Woods' paper has been of much interest to me for, during the past six months, it has been my privilege to see forty-eight cases of lethargic encephalitis. The variation in the severity of symptoms is one of the most marked features of the disease and doubtless many of the mild cases have either passed unrecognized by physicians or even without medical advice.

Three more or less distinct types have been clinically noted in my cases. The mildest characterized by sudden diplopia often so transitory and slight that before all serologic tests were completed marked improvement or recovery had been reported. On examination, these showed a rapid nystagmus, usually lateral but the vertical not uncommon. There was a tendency to convergence, with sixth nerve paralysis, headache and the usual sense of insecurity.

The next severer type had diplopia practically for all distances, the general discomfort such as headache and mental depression greater, the nystagmus more marked and usually accompanied by other nerve pareses such as the third, fourth, eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh nerves. The duration is longer and in some of my cases the mental side was so great that the patients were unfit for work, and two of them were confined to institutions of detention.

The severest type is illustrated by a case, first seen by me, in a sleeping state, having given a history of progressive somnolence with diplopia. The sleepiness progressed and despite all treatment, the patient died. Autopsy revealed the findings considered characteristic in this disease.

The clinical condition of lethargic encephalitis is more commonly recognized by the ophthalmologist and it is proper that Dr. Woods' paper be given prominence.

Dr. G. E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia. I have had the opportunity of seeing a number of ocular complications in connection with socalled lethargic encephalitis. All had the lethargic and somnolent stages; but in all, the first ophthalmic symptom was diplopia. Mostly the only muscle affected was the external rectus. There was one case in which, I believe, the muscle affected was the superior oblique. Then there were a few cases in which oculomotor palsy, with ptosis, was the ocular phenomenon. In all these cases,

one of which I have studied since the onset of the somnolent stage, there has been a marked impairment of accommodation.

The third group is a very severe one, in which there is practically complete ophthalmoplegia externa. The most of the cases occurred in one of our camps, some of these cases proving fatal, and some being in the process of recovery. They formed part of a report not yet liberated from the Surgeon General's Office.

Dr. E. A. Shumway, Philadelphia. I have seen, during the past winter, six cases of lethargic encephalitis, three in private work, one with Dr. Spiller, one in the University Dispensary, and one in the Lankenau Dispensary. In four, the sixth nerve was involved alone. One had the oculomotor affected with the sixth; and later the lower centers became affected, and death occurred, apparently from sympathetic failure caused by involvement of the medulla. One had fourth nerve paralysis, and then the oculomotor became involved; then the sixth and seventh nerves; and then there was respiratory failure.

One case was seen with Dr. Spiller. We thought that death would ensue, but he has recovered, and is nearly normal, except for his mental condition. He showed marked lethargy. One was a fatal case, in which the patient could be aroused only with difficulty. One was in a stupid condition, which seems characteristic of some cases. He could be aroused, and would answer questions properly; but would immediately lapse into the same condition again. If left alone, he would have a muttering delirium, and talk to himself; and if spoken to, would arouse and answer questions. The delirium persisted for weeks, until he recovered. He is practically normal now, but has no confidence in himself and does not feel that he can go on with his work.

In one case with optic neuritis, death ensued, but no autopsy was permitted. This case occurred in the Lankenau Hospital. In four cases, there was a definite history of influenza. One was the fatal case. One was complicated with positive Wassermann findings, and an increase in the cell count in the spinal cord. These symptoms had appeared very suddenly, and Dr. Spiller, who saw the patient, thought that the case could be considered as of the lethargic encephalitis type. He recovered, and his oculomotor palsy disappeared; and, with the exception of weakened accommodation, the ocular condition has cleared up.

At a meeting of the Philadelphia Neurological Society this spring, Dr. Spiller reported, in addition to two of these included among my cases, one other case; and two fatal cases were reported, one from the Philadelphia Hospital, in which typical autopsy findings were obtained; increase in the cells around the blood vessels, and hemorrhage around the nuclei in the bulbofrontal region.

Dr. Spiller at one time felt that the influenza should be very strongly considered as a cause of these cases. It was not definitely positive in all cases; but he felt that it might be considered, as the infection from the toxin of influenza affecting the cord and brain, rather than localizing itself in the respiratory centers or the intestinal tract.

Dr. T. B. Holloway, Philadelphia: I think that Dr. Shumway, in referring to what Dr. Spiller had said, has hit upon one of the affections from which it is difficult to differentiate the milder forms of this condition. It is almost impossible to wholly eliminate influenza as a possible source of confusion in these cases, unless we include it as an important factor in the production of this condition. It is by no means an easy matter to differentiate mild specific cases. The diplopia fields are also difficult to work out, especially if the patient has a partial ptosis which may increase during examination.

Dr. Hiram Woods, Baltimore. What Dr. Holloway says about the diagnosis is undoubtedly true. My last case was in a young man who had been in good health all his life, but who developed a facial neuralgia on the right side. That was followed, in a week, by right ptosis; then by paralysis of the oculo-

motor nerve; then by a paralysis of the left external rectus. Vision was normal. The intrinsic muscles were spared. That man was sent to the hospital, and all possible examinations made. The results were typical of the general findings, but the patient died of respiratory paralysis. A few days before his death, we discovered some little nodules, barely palpable, on the scalp. One was excised; and after examination, it was found to be a leucosarcoma. The question is, Did he have this disease, or a sudden metastasis of an absolutely malignant growth? An autopsy was not allowed.

A telephone operator suddenly saw double. She went to see a retired oculist, and he found a decided left internal squint. He put atropin in her eyes; and when she came to see me, a day later, she had complete cycloplegia. Her refraction was measured. She had an internal squint, a partial paralysis of the external rectus, and a complete atropin cycloplegia. That occurred the second of March. She still had a maximum accommodation of only 2 to 2½ diopters. The thing cleared up. The way the diagnosis was made was that she went home from my office and slept continuously for ten days. Then they woke her up and brought her to see me; and I found that the accommodation was paralyzed still. She went home and slept for another ten days. Nearly three months afterwards, she still has only a very low range of accommodation.

Coloboma and Congenital Dislocation of Lens.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus, Ohio, reported the farther history of a case of coloboma described by him in 1894. This patient had shown little increase in myopia, but decided increase of astigmatism. His lenses remained clear but he showed slight evidence of early presbyopia before his death at the age of 34. In a case of dislocation of the lens then reported, there was myopia and a modification of the astigmatism apparently due to tilting of the lens. The cases of this kind encountered in 35 years numbered 11, of which 8 showed coloboma, and 4 dislocation, one patient showing both conditions.

Seven cases occurred in the children and grandchildren of one man, who was probably similarly affected, and his father also.

It seemed remarkable that in some of these cases of coloboma, where as much as one-third of the suspensory ligament seemed to be absent, there was good power of accommodation. In one case of dislocated lens, R. + 18. sph. ⌒ 1 cyl., and L. + 18.5 sph. gave standard distant vision, and with same glasses the patient read small print.

Discussion.—Dr. W. E. Lambert, New York. In two cases in which I have operated by excision of the lens, the visual result has been most excellent; and in all the background of the eye has been normal. One of these children, a girl of ten, had such poor vision that it prevented her from attending school; and for that reason, operation was decided on. The mother had a luxation of the lens, but so slight that it did not interfere with vision. Both of these children were needled. The visual result in the girl was 30/40 plus, in one eye; and 20/50 in the other. In the boy, the operative results seemed less favorable. In all these children, the phenomenon that Dr. Clark alludes to, of being able to use the same lenses for near as gave them this distant vision was noted. They were unable to read comfortably, and apparently had some interference with accommodation.

Dr. A. Edward Davis, New York. I wish to relate a remarkable case of this kind. The girl was eight or nine years old. It was interesting to observe the suspensory ligaments in that case, when she made efforts at accommodation; and also the shortening of the diameter of the lens. We gave her glasses. I have had her under observation for fifteen years. The lens is luxated upward and backward. The patient's vision has been gradually reduced, on account of cataract formation. I think that the accommodative power in some of these cases is good I believe even up to the normal.

Dr. Lucien Howe, Buffalo. These cases seem to have three very interesting features; the questions that arise physically; the question of the treatment; and the particular interest of this group from the hereditary standpoint. The last is a phase of the subject the importance of which is just dawning on us. When defects of vision are transmissible and pertain to eugenics, and are of the dominant, instead of the recessive type, it is our business as ophthalmologists not simply to report them here to one another, but to attempt to evolve some method of procedure that we may recommend to our confreres, and to the Legislature if necessary, as to what shall be done in regard to this matter. Which are the characters that are dominant, and will be transmitted, which we should do something about; and which characters are of the recessive type, and do not interest us particularly? It is for us to express an opinion, if necessary a collective opinion, so that it may have some effect on the community and coming generations.

Dr. E. V. L. Brown, Chicago. In regard to the transmission of these defects, important work is being carried on at the University of Wisconsin. The triturated lens from the wild albino rabbit is introduced into the blood of roosters, thereby sensitizing the fowl's blood to the lens of the rabbit. Then this blood is reinjected into the rabbits, and has in a number of cases produced coloboma of the iris, and opacities of the lens. At first, the investigator got few results; but when he introduced the blood into the pregnant female and into litters in various stages of development, he produced these changes. In some cases, he carried these changes on, generation after generation.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus, Ohio. So far as the operative work is concerned, I did not go into the question of coloboma and dislocation with reference to that point of view. What I was interested in was this refraction problem, in the cases that have retained clear enough lenses to enable us to follow them thru a period of years.

Ocular Anomalies of Development.

Dr. William Zentmayer, of Philadelphia reported a case of multiple dermoids, there being bilateral sclerocorneal dermoids and a dermoid of the right cornea. There were also supernumerary tragi and macrostomia. The patient was female, and the various operations required for cosmetic purposes were described.

Retinal Tuberculosis.

The paper of Drs. Edward Jackson and Wm. C. Finnoff has been published in full, p. 715.

Discussion. — Dr. Arnold Knapp, New York. I have been very much interested in this subject of retinal tuberculosis — periphlebitis, socalled, and these cases bring up a number of questions I should like to ask in regard to the first case, how the writers explain the presence of the deep corneal lesions. It has always seemed to me characteristic of this process that the manifestations are in the anterior or posterior part of the eyes and if you have periphlebitis, you usually do not have lesions in the anterior part.

In the second case, if I understand corectly, the socalled mascular figure developed. That has always been associated with an exudate into the retina, irrespective of the etiology. I should like to know whether an exudate was present in this case. In regard to the third case, which I had under my care at one time, I should like to ask Dr. Jackson as to whether he is optimistic about what he can accomplish by means of tuberculin treatment in preventing a recurrence of these hemorrhages.

Dr. C. D. Wescott, Chicago. I wish that, in closing the discussion, Dr. Jackson would tell us his present method of using tuberculin especially in cases in which he continues the treatment over so long a period of time as he has mentioned in one of these cases.

Dr. H. M. Langdon, Philadelphia. A girl, sixteen years of age, came complaining of blurring of vision in the left eye. On examination, she was found to have a very slight haze in the vit-

reous, with, in the lower temporal branch, about a disc diameter below the macula, and about half the size of the disc, a well defined patch of exudate. She had been apparently in perfect health, but physical examination proved that she had a well advanced apex tuberculosis, as proved by the tuberculin reaction, temperature study, physical examination and the x-ray. On account of the lung involvement, it was deemed unwise, for the time being, to use tuberculin; and she was placed on the ordinary hygienic measures proper in such a condition. With these, in six weeks the ocular condition entirely cleared up, leaving nothing but a small, poorly defined scar in the retina. Vision was 6/5. Some cures that we attribute to tuberculin may not be due to this, but to the systemic measures taken, as well as the systemic reaction produced by the tuberculin.

Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver. The third case, as Dr. Knapp correctly surmised, was a case he had seen and in which I think, he first instituted tuberculin treatment. That man has apparently recovered. He was under a pretty strict regimen when he first came to Colorado, that has been gradually relaxed. After a time he was allowed to play tennis and take walks, and gradually play longer and walk greater distances. Then he was permitted to resume his studies. Finally, a few weeks ago, the question came up as to whether he could come East for about six weeks, to complete his studies to enter the priesthood. I advised him strongly against it. I said that while he was relatively in good health, his continuance in good health remained dependent upon his observing the conditions under which he had attained it.

This brings up the matter of the value of tuberculin in these cases. As will be noted, we concluded that the regimen, the life, or the general treatment of tuberculosis should be observed in every case; but that tuberculin should be reserved for those cases that are free from decided temperature changes. A variable temperature curve, dropping each day below normal, tho not going much above it, may have the same significance as a distinct daily rise in the temperature. To those that are free from this, and have no large active tuberculous lesion, it is wise to give the 1:100,000 or 1:500,000 of a milligram of old tuberculin. But this treatment is not applicable to a patient with large tuberculous deposits. When the patient is free from them, the cases I have been able to follow have given the impression that the ocular lesions did better and came to a final cure under tuberculin, when they would not without it. The tendency to relapse is the final test of a relative cure that is brought about by tuberculin.

With reference to the method of administration, I have had the assistance of an internist in all these cases that I have reported. Dr. C. N. Meader saw the cases that I referred to today. I am certain of the importance of small doses at long intervals. One of these cases began the therapeutic use of 1/500,000 of a milligram, repeated at intervals of a week. Another case was getting a somewhat larger dose; but in that case, when the dose was raised to 1/10,000 of a milligram, or more than that, he seemed to do rather badly. The interval was lengthened, and the dose dropped back.

In the present state of our knowledge, the use of tuberculin is experimental, and every case should be watched as an experiment. But the things that stand out most clearly in my mind are that the doses should be small (not to give a trace of a reaction is better than to give a big reaction), and that the intervals should be long. Tuberculin, if it does good, does it by starting a certain reaction in the system; and until that reaction has time to occur and be complete, the dose should not be repeated.

With reference to the question of the corneal lesion; this is the only case that I have seen in which there were distinct lesions in the anterior segment that were followed by retinal tuberculosis. But in this case, the connection seemed pretty definite. I have seen in one other case marked vitreous exudates entirely free from any con

nection with the retina, there being apparently no diseased tissue between them and the retina. They were far forward in the vitreous. I suspected that in that case there had been lesions in the anterior segment.

Subretinal Exudate Resembling Sarcoma of Choroid.

Dr. Arnold Knapp, New York, reported a case of this character in which the diagnosis was cleared up by anatomic examination of the enucleated eyeball.

The patient, male, aged 71 years, presented a sharply defined mass in the macular region, dull white in color, with some mottling, and an elevation of 3 D. In the absence of inflammatory or vascular changes in the eyeground, the diagnosis of sarcoma of the choroid was made and the eye enucleated.

The microscopic examination showed a subretinal mass of organized connective tissue between the choroid and retina. The choroidal and retinal vessels were normal.

The case chiefly resembles the type described by Coats as retinitis with massive exudation, except that the swelling occurred in the macular region in a patient of advanced years and with no vascular changes.

The other eye subsequently developed central chorioretinal changes consisting in deep retinal hemorrhages, pigmentation, atrophy of retina, superficial atrophy of choroid, and changes in the choroidal vessels.

Discussion.—Dr. F. H. Verhoeff, Boston. I have recently examined an eye from a case similar to this. I feel sure that this tissue is produced by the pigment epithelium. The socalled chorioretinitis is due to changes in the pigment epithelium, and do doubt, caused by arteriosclerosis. It is a hyperplasia of the pigment epithelium. While I have seen pigment epithelium in other parts of the retina, I do not recall having seen it here before; but I think that Dr. Knapp is undoubtedly correct in thinking that it is due to some changes caused by arteriosclerosis; and the fact that the other patient had senile chorioretinitis substantiates it.

Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver. I recall a case in which, on the first examination of a tumor of the choroid at the macula I made a probable diagnosis of sarcoma. The swelling was 1½ or 2 diopters, and pretty sharply limited at its margins. There was a history of central scotoma going on for several weeks. There was a negative Wassermann, but the patient was put on potassium iodid; and in the course of three or four weeks, the edge of the tumor was distinctly less abrupt. This went on; and within four to six months, all symptoms of a tumor in that region had disappeared.

Choroiditis from Sinus Disease.

Dr. John E. Weeks, New York, reported two cases of a typical disseminated choroiditis, due to disease of the nasal accessory sinuses. The first was that of a man seen in 1908. Three years before the right eye had become affected and now the left was involved. There was no history of nasal disease. The fields of vision were contracted, and R. showed a central scotoma. The choroidal exudate occupied a circular area.

In 1917 acute glaucoma set in. Under myotics the vision of the left eye was brought up from 14/200 to 20/90. X-ray examination showed the sinuses all cloudy. May 20th, 1918, a new attack of glaucoma occurred. A Lagrange operation was done and the antrum and ethmoid were opened. After this the eyes became clear of inflammation and vision rose to 20/20. At one time symptoms of a recurrence had arisen after blocking of the ethmoids.

The second case was that of a man aged 29 seen this year. There were patches of choroidal inflammation and vision was reduced to R. 20/200, L. 20/30. The X-ray showed the ethmoids and sphenoids cloudy. These were opened and found to contain many polypi. Drainage was followed by prompt recovery.

Visual Acuity at Low Illumination.

Prof. C. E. Ferrée, of Bryn Mawr College, presented a lantern for testing vision by exact illumination and read

a paper which will be published in full in this Journal.

Radium Treatment for Tumors.

Drs. Geo. E. Bell and Sinclair Tousey, of New York, reported a case in which a tumor of the orbit extended on to the brow, and it had followed trauma. The eyeball had been pushed out of the orbit. The application of 20 mg. of radium bromid was continued one hour and repeated every two weeks from Dec. 19th to April 1st. At first 5 tubes were used, but after the shrinking of the tumor was well started only two. The growth shrivelled, and an apparent cure was the result.

Discussing radium as a therapeutic agent, and its value in malignant and nonmalignant tumors of the orbit, they concluded that it should be used in all nonoperable cases. It should also be seriously considered in the treatment of intraocular tumors. The therapeutic value of radium is now well established, altho it is not used by ophthalmic surgeons so often as might be expected.

Discussion.—Dr. T. B. Holloway, Philadelphia: Dr. Bell has referred to the use of radium prior to operations on tumors of the orbit. I think that much would depend on whether the orbit is the primary seat of the growth or whether it has been encroached upon from neighboring structures. To my mind, radium may well supplement operative procedures, probably better than operative procedures may supplement radium, in certain types of tumor formation. You may recall that I reported, some years ago, the history of a case of sarcoma with bilateral orbital involvement, in which, immediately after the operation, radium was packed into the orbit with the primary dressing, 25 milligrams being allowed to remain for eight hours. That procedure has been used in another case, which was inoperable and where adjacent structures were involved. The patient was under treatment by Dr. Pancoast; and I think the treatment prolonged the patient's life, altho the result was inevitable. Since then, radium was used in another patient who had an inoperable carcinoma involving the temporal region. At times evisceration of the globe may seem preferable to evisceration of the orbit. Such was the case with this patient, but local applications of radium interspersed with X-ray treatment, was kept up in all the cases I have referred to except the infant with bilateral sarcoma.

I have another patient, an Italian, observed three years ago, whose history I have already reported. The growth in this instance was an epithelioma of the lids which had involved the orbit. In this case, excellent results were obtained by the application of radium after curettage and evisceration of the orbit.

Dr. F. C. Clark, Columbus. Five or six years ago, I ventured to use radium in an orbital growth in which I was making an exploratory incision. On examination, it proved to be a vascular growth; a mass of enlarged vessels in the apex of the orbit. The patient was a child of 2½ years. This was before the use of radium had been so well developed as it is now. I opened, to have access for a small tube; and I used it without protection around the tube.

I did a canthotomy, and detached the external rectus; and, by means of a speculum, obtained a fair view of the orbit. Finding this condition, a surgeon near at hand passed the radium over, and let me use his tube. I embedded it, and left it in for two or three hours, and then removed it. A few days later, I repeated the process. I had excellent results, and the eye receded. The eye was one that already had no vision, so it made no special difference, but he developed a zonular cataract. I should like those who can, to tell us what experiences they have had in that respect; and whether, in using radium for this purpose, we could guard ourselves against this accident.

Dr. Robert S. Lamb, Washington. I have had no experience with radium that has been completely satisfactory. I have been relying on the X-ray to supplement operative procedure. It seems that we can operate on almost

any tumors, even if we are unable to control the cosmetic effect. We can operate on tumors that are very extensive, by using the knife cautery outlining the mass, and going into the orbit.

Dr. Dunbar Roy, Atlanta. I should like to ask Dr. Bell what was the duration of the treatment.

Dr. Derrick T. Vail, Cincinnati. Mr. F. M. D., aged eighty-four years, came to me ten years ago on account of slight exophthalmos of the right eye, associated with ophthalmoplegia externa. He also had some complications in the eye, like cataract formation; and the vision in each eye was very much below par. In the affected eye, it was reduced to 21/100. He had never possessed robust health. I saw him from time to time, and this growth continued. It seemed to be in the orbit, behind the eyeball. The ptosis continued; the ophthalmoplegia persisted. Last September, he came in, presenting a very sad picture. He was very senile physically, but mentally very bright, and capable of enjoying life, and was desirous of being relieved of the tumor, which was very conspicuous. He was having no pain, but had come to find out what I could suggest. I advised him to go to Johns Hopkins and try the radium treatment. He went; and I did not see him until February, when he came with the mass entirely gone. The growth of the orbit had enlarged the orbital confines until it was one-third larger than the other. This permitted the eye to fall back, so that there was a suggestion of enophthalmos. The eye, which had been blind for a long while, had perception of light. Having received a demonstration of what radium is able to do in a case of this kind, I should try it in another instance. I do not know the character of the growth, but it had persisted ten years. The cure was complete.

I believe, however, that this treatment is not so desirable for cases of glioma. If the glioma can be diagnosed before it has produced increased tension, I think that it would be better to enucleate the eye than to try to cure it with radium.

Dr. George H. Bell, New York. In regard to what Dr. Holloway stated, I think it is better to use radium first. Then, sometimes, you will not have to operate at all. Try the radium again, after the operation, if an operation is necessary.

In regard to Dr. Clark's remark, so far, we have not got any cataract from the treatment of the tumors with radium.

Replying to Dr. Roy's question, I saw the woman eight months ago, and she was feeling fine.

Dr. Vail's case is very interesting and encouraging to all of us who are interested in radium. Dr. Tousey has got some wonderful results with it, and thinks that all these tumors can be absorbed by the use of radium.

Tuberculin Reaction in Sarcoma.

Dr. J. W. Charles reported the case of a man aged 24 years who gave the history of a burn of the right eye 8 years before. Deep seated ocular pain developed 5 years later. When first seen the eye presented exclusion of the pupil, cataract, ciliary staphyloma over the upper portion of the eye, and a small nodular swelling on the sclera in the lower inner quadrant. The Wassermann reaction was negative; but the eye gave a positive focal reaction to tuberculin. The eye was enucleated and the diagnosis made of spindle-cell sarcoma which had perforated the sclera.

Intraocular Tumor.

Dr. Howard F. Hansell, Philadelphia, presented a clinical and pathologic report of a case of intraocular tumor.

At the first examination the retina was totally detached from the choroid. No signs of intraocular inflammation, no pain, tenderness or injection, or history of traumatism. Gradual increase of tension and shallowness of anterior chamber; dilatation and immobility of pupil developed. Enucleation and implantation of a gold sphere were done. It proved to be a choroidal growth.

Epithelioma of Eyeball and Lids.

Dr. Dunbar Roy, Atlanta, reported two cases treated by removal in which there was no return after six years.

Case 1. W. A. F., farmer, aged fifty-four years. Seen in June, 1908. Inflammatory irritation of the left eye. At the sclerocorneal margin there was a gelatinous mass. Section of the same showed epithelioma. V. = 20/50. The growth was thoroughly removed and the base cauterized. Eight months later return with infiltration of conjunctiva. The eye was enucleated. Three weeks later, on account of the suspicious appearance of a remnant of conjunctiva, the orbital contents were eviscerated. Healing by granulation. Eleven years later the cavity is smooth and there are no signs of recurrence.

Case 2. Mrs. J. W. W., aged thirty-three years. Epithelioma at the inner canthus of the right eye. Treated for months by a dermatologist. Operation of evisceration of the whole orbitral contents with upper and lower lids. Healing by granulation. Six years since operation, no signs of a return.

Discussion.—Dr. R. S. Lamb, Washington. Prior to seven years ago, I used to cut first, and then use the X-ray. Since then, I have used the X-ray a short time before the operation. Sometimes I use it to relieve the excruciating pain, and then operate within twenty-four hours. I have used the X-ray prior to operation, also, to close the lymphatics and prevent the tumor from spreading in metastasis. At the time of the operation (stopping the ether long enough to do the work) I have taken the cautery knife and separated the tumor, after exenteration from the healthy tissue.

In cases of glioma in which extension has not gone beyond the globe and is not anterior to the equator, I find that enucleation with one-half or three-fourths of an inch backward on the nerve, and cauterizing the area from the sheath, is sufficient. I have had no recurrences in these cases.

Three weeks after the first X-ray, which was several days before operation, there is another treatment given; and so on for six months, every three weeks. After that, the treatments are given at intervals of six weeks.

Dr. Clarence A. Veasey, Spokane. In connection with this paper of Dr. Roy's on epibulbar epithelioma, I should like to exhibit the photographs of a case that is somewhat unusual, recently seen and recently operated on. This patient had apparently always been in good health. His age was fifty-six. Many years before, he had observed a small pigment spot on the sclera; to the temporal side, to which he paid no attention. For two or three years, it had been increasing in size; and by the time I saw it, the anterior segment of the eyeball was covered, and over it, the growth was roughened and covered with a crust, evidently ulceration.

Although the patient lived within a few hours travel of many ophthalmic surgeons, he had consulted no one until he appeared for operation; yet the small spot had been observed in childhood.

Dr. C. H. May, New York. It may be of interest to report a case similar to that of Dr. Charles, in which there was a decided focal reaction in a patient who had a tumor. A child three years old was admitted to the hospital; and a small dose of tuberculin was given which caused a violent reaction. The dose was exceedingly small, as it is known that children react very easily to tuberculin. The child's eye presented a dirty, yellowish exudate covering the pupillary space and the iris. Tension, normal or diminished. The child's physique gave one the impression of tuberculosis. Tuberculin was used in increasing doses for two or three months, and the result seemed good. The exudate cleared up; the details of the iris became visible; the pupil could be seen.

There were, at times, violent reactions to the tuberculin; but these were ascribed to the fact that children are very susceptible to tuberculin. There was no question in the minds of the men watching the case that it was one of tuberculosis.

At the end of three months, there was a violent reaction, which was at

tributed to the possiblity that one of the internes had made a mistake in the amount to be injected. Following this, there was increase of tension. The eye became red and sore; and it was concluded that since there was probably no sight there, it would be better to enucleate the eyeball. At operation, it was found to be a case of glioma; and the growth had extended beyond the optic nerve. I have no doubt that the case went on to a fatal termination. In that case, the positive reaction presented to tuberculin misled me and prevented me from adopting enucleation, which might have saved the child's life.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus. Early recognition of the exact character of an intraocular tumor, is of the utmost importance. I think that Dr. Hansell said that early enucleation does not prevent metastasis. I should like to know whether he really means that. I have under observation a case of melanosarcoma which will illustrate my point. The patient has been under observation for a long time. We used radium, with little effect; and I removed the eye as soon as I felt sure that I was dealing with a serious growth. But I was not positive until the patient came to me with beginning enlargement of the eyeball, of which there was no indication a few weeks before. I immediately enucleated the eye. The patient is a young lady; and there is no hope for her, if Dr. Hansell's statement is correct.

I have several eyes with sarcoma of the choroid, removed after they had attained the size of half a marble; and I have seen the patients six or seven years afterwards, with no metastases.

Dr. Hiram Woods, Baltimore. There are two points in Dr. Hansell's paper to which I should like to draw attention. One is as to the value of transillumination. Some time ago, I saw a child about five years old, who presented what was clinically a glioma of the retina; and there was no history of former inflammation—no clinical evidence of a uveitis. The transillumination was taken in a dark room, but when we reached the area of this growth (it was well forward, and there was no possible reason why we should not see it correctly), everything became dark in the pupil; and yet, when the eye was enucleated, it proved to be nothing but an inflammatory mass. It would have cleared up. The whole thing had been due to some former inflammatory trouble, which could not have been brought out in the history.

My experience with metastasis is very limited; but I think that it is much more frequent than Dr. Hansell has seemed to indicate. I ask an expression of opinion on this general question: Given an eye in which transillumination is lost, and in which there are definite evidences of a sarcoma, but in which vision is left, what is the consensus of opinion as to the use for any length of time of radium, Roentgen rays, or anything elese in the place of enucleation?

Dr. Wescott shakes his head, and I suppose he is right. He certainly is, according to my limited experience. But you have that question put to you. Dr. Harlan will recall a man who made the rounds in Baltimore, and everyone gave the same opinion concerning the case. He had a growth that caused loss of transillumination, but he had good vision. This is a primary question, and one that bothers us every time we see a case; and I should like some expression of opinion from the essayists, as well as others, as to whether their experience with radium, of which I have had none, shows that we have got to a point where we are justified in waiting any length of time after the diagnosis is made.

Dr. George F. Fiske, Chicago. Some years ago, I published a series of cases of tumers in the bulb, which were all melanosarcomas. Seven out of fourteen never recurred. The recurrence, when it did take place, was always a year after the operation. I believe in early enucleation, and that this is the thing to be done.

Dr. C. D. Wescott, Chicago. If I understand Dr. Hansell correctly, he said that he had not seen a metastasis, I want to congratulate him, because my experience has been so sad by

comparison. I have seen metastases that manifested themselves anywhere from a few months to seven years afterwards, and were proved by post-mortem to be metastases. I have reported before this society some cases of flat sarcoma in which the specimen showed that even in the presence of a very little tumor, tumor cells may pass thru the vascular channels entering the globe; and that we may have involvment of the extradural tissues when the tumor that we can see inside the eye is comparatively small. It has been my practice, as soon as I could satisfy myself that I had a malignant tumor in the eye, eliminating other things by the best means of diagnosis at command, to advise enucleation immediately; and if this is not consented to, to abandon the case. I have heard from a patient living fifteen years after the removal of a globe which contained a circumscribed, almost intraglobular sarcoma, as demonstrated by careful examination. So far as my knowledge goes, that is the only patient who has survived for that length of time in my experience of over thirty years.

The location of that tumor was almost at the equator of the globe. It was back of the ciliary body.

Dr. E. B. Heckel, Pittsburgh. Experience has taught me that with epibulbar growths it is best not to operate, but to try to remove the tumors by means of the X-rays. Their application has been difficult, on account of the length of exposure and the danger of burning and producing necrosis of the cornea. Some years ago it occurred to me to make exposures under constant irrigation with normal salt solution; and I reported this procedure in a case in which the cornea escaped and the eye was not injured in the slightest degree. The result was absolutely permanent; and the cure was perfect, and remained so for five years, after which the patient died from other causes.

Dr. Allen Greenwood, Boston. I am very glad to hear that Dr. Wescott recommends very early removal of these tumors; and I wish to justify Dr. Knapp's removal in the case that he said gave all the appearances of a sarcoma of the choroid. He immediately enucleated; and we should all do the same thing.

My experience has been also rather a sad one. I have two cases in which the sarcoma was removed in the primary stage; and in both, the tumor, on examination, was found to be of very small size and situated in the equator. In one, it was only a little larger than a bean. Both patients were men. One, after five years, died of sarcoma of the liver; and the other died of the same complication after four years. With that experience, I cannot help feeling that the sooner sarcoma of the choroid is removed, the better for the patient; and no matter how early it is removed, there is the possibility of metastasis in the liver.

Dr. J. W. Charles, St. Louis: I was sorry that no one said anything about Coley's fluid. In St. Louis, our surgeons feel that they have had some distinct successes with it; and I cannot help feeling that in these days of X-ray and radium treatment, perhaps Coley's fluid has been neglected to some extent in sarcomata. When neither operation nor radium, nor the X-ray, will prevent recurrences, Coley's fluid will perhaps do some good, and I would strongly advise that it be tried.

In that connection. I would say that Dr. McAmis wrote me that he had a boy of nine years, who had had the orbit cleaned out, and apparently the entire growth removed. He had had a recurrence, however, and was put on Coley's fluid; and, five years later, was well. Another case of nasopharyngeal sarcoma, Dr. McAmis saw also. It had recurred after being operated on twice. He suggested Coley's fluid; and when the patient was seen, some months later, he had remained well.

Speaking of positive focal tuberculin reaction in sarcomata, it occurs to me that this might arise without the patient's having tuberculosis. I had never heard of it, and have found nothing in the literature about it; but Dr. Dunn, of Asheville, told me yesterday that he had seen a report of some cases

by someone in Leipsic, that had positive tuberculin reactions in sarcoma.

Dr. Howard F. Hansell, Philadelphia. With reference to the statement of Dr. Woods concerning transillumination, I would say that I am quite in accord with him, and believe that the explanation of the mistakes made (and I believe that they are often made, when one depends too much on transillumination) is that they are sometimes due to the absence of pigment. The shadow is more likely to be cast when there is a great deal of pigment. I do not place much confidence in the value of transillumination as a diagnostic means.

Dr. Clark was correct in saying that I made the statement that early enucleation will not prevent metastasis. I looked up the authorities, tho I have not quoted any in my paper; and I found that they agree that forty to fifty per cent of tumors of the eyeball are metastatic, and that they quite agree that early enucleation will not prevent metastasis. It appears to me to be analogous to cases of syphilis, in which early excision of the primary sore will not prevent the general infection. These cases of tumor, however early discovered, must have existed long enough to permit of entrance of the germs, or whatever it may be that produces the growth, into the general system. I agree with all the speakers that early enucleation should be done; and that it is preferable, for fear metastasis may supervene. I believe that it is the best treatment, and is better than any treatment by which enucleation might be delayed. While the X-rays and radium may help to remove the tumor or to diminish it in size, the eye is usually blind and useless, and must be admitted to be a source of danger.

Dr. Dunbar Roy, Atlanta. While two or three cases are by no means a criterion on which to base a prognosis, I am convinced that when epibulbar epithelioma exists, and the diagnosis has been made clinically and microscopically, the best thing to do is to enucleate the eye and take all the suspected tissue possible, and then eviscerate the orbit in case the conjunctiva left is involved. I am convinced that you cannot remove radically an epibulbar epithelioma, and have it stand a chance of remaining cured without extension.

I am satisfied that where you can reach the growth, the electrocautery is one of the best instruments to be used in these cases. I have been using Coley's fluid in a number of cases, and have never found the slightest sign of improvement produced by it.

Paralysis of Accommodation Due to Focal Infections.

Dr. Clarence A. Veasey, Spokane, read the paper published in full on page 858.

Discussion.—Dr. H. F. Hansell, Philadelphia. A young man of thirty came to see me on account of not seeing well, and all that I was able to find wrong was myopia of a diopter and a half. I had him examined, and was told that he had diseased tonsils; and Dr. Lewis removed them. During the next six months, the myopia disappeared and vision became 6/6 without a glass and a concave glass made it worse.

Dr. Alexander Duane, New York. It has appeared to me that not the simple paralysis or paresis of accommodation, but the weakening of accommodation, accommodative asthenopia, must be frequently due to these focal infections. For a number of years, when I got a case of subnormal accommodation, I insisted on the nose being examined; because it has been my experience that this has been dependent on conditions of pressure within the nose, without, perhaps, any sinus infection. It has been surprising to see the effect that removal of that pressure would produce on the accommodative state.

It is only more recently that my attention has been called to other focal infections, particularly those of the tonsils and teeth, by one very striking case in which accommodative asthenopia occurred. The patient was a naval officer, whose refraction and motility had been gone over very carefully, and everything done in that regard. He had all sorts of tests made at the Naval Hospital without result, and went to the various specialists of New York without any benefit. The asthenopia continued, and he could not

read at all. He was put on duty at the Bath Iron Works, in connection with naval construction. While there, he went to Boston; and, remembering that I had said that he should have a most thoro examination, he went to a specialist and had his teeth examined. Incidentally, a tonsilar infection was found. The tonsils were removed; and almost immediately, his asthenopia disappeared. That is one of the most striking cases; but it has been paralleled by others, not so remarkable.

Dr. Lucien Howe, Buffalo. If such an affection can cause a paralysis of accommodation, there is no reason why it should not act in some cases to effect a spasm of accommodation.

Dr. T. B. Holloway, Philadelphia. Dr. Veasey was good enough to refer to the case notes that I sent him three or four years ago. It is hardly fair to include this case as strictly one of focal infection. The patient was admitted to the hospital for a series of operations. He developed a violent streptococcic catgut infection, so exceptions could well be taken to including this as one of focal infection. When he came under my observation he had a paresis of accommodation. It was the first time that I had seen one of such a character, and I have been watching for similar cases since that time. In discussing this case with Dr. Apple, of Lancaster, he said that a case of throat infection had come under his observation in which repeated cultures had shown nothing but the streptococcus. He sent the patient to me, and I found that she had a paresis of accommodation. This case would also come under suspicion because she had other paralyses, which are recognized as frequently accompanying a diphtheritic infection.

In testing the accommodation of what are apparently true cases of involvement of accommodation as well as of supposed hysteria or malingering, I have found that it is of great service to measure the near point with a series of lenses instead of with possibly one lens. At the next visit no regular order is used in placing these lenses before the eye. This method has been of service to me on more than one occasion in distinguishing between a true paralytic and a functional condition. Doubtless many members of the Society may resort to the same test, but I do not recall having seen it mentioned.

Dr. Hiram Woods, Baltimore. Dr. Hansell's case suggests another form of possible focal irritation. The cases of Dr. Veasey are paralytic. The case of Dr. Hansell seems to be one of dynamic myopia produced by some irritation; and the disappearance of it after the discovery of the focal irritation points pretty clearly to the cause. Some years ago, Dr. Theobald, in a personal conversation, called my attention to another form of this thing. We were speaking of the class of cases in which there is a tremendous difficulty in getting a satisfactory cycloplegia. You begin with homatropin, and do not get anywhere; that is, in the subjective examination. The axis of a low grade of astigmatism will vary from 65° to 110°; and the longer you keep the patient under examination, the more uncertain he gets, and the more annoyed you get. Then you wait, and go on with your cycloplegics, using atropin or hyoscyamin; and it is several days before you can get anything like a satisfactory agreement between the objective measures and the subjective tests.

Dr. Theobald asked whether I had looked at the child's teeth. To make a long story short, there were two or three teeth that needed attention. This was done, one being extracted; and since then, I have found, or thought that I have found, an explanation for this very troublesome class of cases—cases in which the ciliary muscle will not relax promptly and definitely. I have seen it associated most frequently with dental irritation, but I believe that it can come from other forms of focal irritation, and it is simply a different class of irritation. One is an irritative one; and the other, paretic—or, at least, inhibitory.

Dr. J. P. Worrell, Terre Haute. Some years ago, I made on a young man, twenty-eight years of age, for iridocyclitis, an evisceration, instead of an enucleation. At the time he had re-

jected a plus glass. A few weeks ago, he came saying that he had difficulty in reading. His vision for distance was 20/20 minus. He accepted a +0.25, with which the vision came up to 20/15. With plus 2, his near point was eleven inches, but for a moment. The vision receded rapidly. His teeth, nose, accessory sinuses and tonsils were all thoroly investigated, and were entirely negative, except that he had two bad teeth, which I had removed. Three weeks were allowed to elapse and no improvement was noted. The stump was removed. When two weeks had elapsed since the operation, he had vision for distance to 20/15, and he declined plus 0.25, which he had used when I first saw him. With plus 2, his near point was still in the neighborhood of eleven inches, but he maintained his vision longer.

Dr. George E. de Schweinitz, Philadelphia. It is interesting, in relation to focal infections and disturbances of accommodation, to distinguish between those appearing rapidly and those that come, after the focal infection may have long existed. The rapid ones, we are all familiar with. This was exhibited in a case in which, after eating some food stuff, the patient, after a short time, acquired paresis of accommodation. I have no doubt that the food contained an excess of sugar. It seems to me, as Rosenow has shown, that the area of focal infection is a depot in which is manufactured some sort of diffusible toxin, which passes out to certain cells with which it has an affinity. This is analogous to the physiologic action of drugs. Dr. H. C. Wood used to say that the time would come when we should speak of the histologic action of drugs. It seems to me that we must believe that, in some way from these focal infections, different irritative stimuli go out—call them diffusible toxins, if you like that somewhat vague term. Sometimes this irritative stimulus or diffusible toxin selects one place; sometimes another; and sometimes, none. Sometimes it finds its affinity in some particular nerve or cell. That is why these focal infections may last a long time and nothing happen; and then they find an affinity, with the result of the condition described this morning.

Apparent Accommodation in the Lensless Eye.

Dr. A. Edward Davis, New York, read the paper published in full, page 860.

Discussion.—Dr. C. D. Wescott, Chicago. I think that Dr. Davis has said nothing about the condition of the capsule in these cases. I have one case under observation, and have had for many years, in which both lenses were involved in trauma. Traumatic cataract was finally absorbed by repeated needlings. But a hard, dense capsule remained, in which there was a vertical small oval opening. This patient required a plus ten with the correction of astigmatism for distant vision, and got 6/9. He could read Jaeger 1 comfortably without any addition. The explanation was the pin point pupil. I have had a case in which I made an extraction for cataract. The patient required plus 10. There was vision of about 20/25; and she read with perfect ease the newspaper without any addition. But in that case, the capsule was dense, with a central opening that appeared to be not more than a millimeter in diameter.

Dr. C. F. Clark, Columbus. Owing to the strictness of our Chairman, I was cut short before I had time to report one of the cases that illustrated my paper on Dislocation and Coloboma of the Lens. This is an eye with dislocation of the lens downward, coming on in a patient evidently congenitally affected, but as the result of a slight traumatism. This man with a plus 18 glass, read with perfect satisfaction, and has carried on his business for fifteen years with a plus 18 spherical and a slight correction of his corneal astigmatism; and has an excellent range of accommodation, 5/7 in one, and 5/6 in the other eye. He reads fine print. I reported this case to our State Society. Dr. Risley happened to be present at the meeting. He tried to account for it by the stenopaic opening. The patient has a very small pupil. Dr. Risley mentioned the improvement in vision produced by looking obliquely through a lens.

Dr. William Zentmayer, Philadelphia. About a year ago, before the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, I showed a girl on whom I had performed a linear extraction. She is now able to read Jaeger 1 at any distance with perfect facility. I used that case as a basis for reviewing the whole subject.

I think the statement of Donders was misinterpreted. What he meant was that accommodation, in the same sense that we usually employ this term, was not present in the eye. There are a number of explanations for the condition. Slight changes in the distance of the correcting lens from the eye, which enormously changes the focus of the lens, and many other explanations, have been given. It seems to me that the explanation of a stenopaic opening is the one that meets most of the cases.

Dr. William Tarun, Baltimore. I remember seeing recently a case of lensless eye in which the patient could read at ordinary reading distance with distance correction. He was fifty-five years of age, and had been operated on with a good visual result. He could read Jaeger 1 without any difficulty; and my colleagues thought that they had a case of accommodation in the affected eye. I said to the patient, "Open your eyes naturally." He did so; and I said "Now read." He said "I cannot see anything on the card."

There are probably several factors present in cases of this kind. Some patients have a deficient vision for distance, particularly myopes, who improve their vision by a certain squinting of the lids. There are presbyopes who can do the same thing without presbyopic correction.

Dr. J. A. White, Richmond, Va. I reported a case in 1897. The patient was a man forty-six years old. Examination showed two openings in the capsule. Two other patients were sisters of this man. Both were operated on. Both have the same ability. Both use the same lens for distance and reading. Both get 20/20. One has an opening in the capsule, but the other has a perfectly clear pupillary area; but still she has the same ability to interpret the dispersion circles. She can read a newspaper and get 20/20 vision at a distance.

This has changed my mind about the explanation regarding the interpretation of dispersion circles.

Dr. Herbert Harlan, Baltimore. After reading the abstract of Dr. Davis' paper, I found this case in my clinic. The patient is a young woman of twenty-five years with a black pupil on one side, and a dense white one on the other. She stated that 11 years ago, when she was fourteen years old, she had the left eye operated on for cataract. I asked her what she could do with the one operated on, and she said, "It is perfectly good. I can read with it." She had 15/50 without correction. She never had had correction. She remarked that she had read all Mark Twain's books without a glass. Then I began testing, and found 4.5 diopters of hyperopia. That improved her vision to 15/30 minus 1. The pupil was fairly sharp, about 4 mm. long, and 2 mm. wide at the widest part. The other eye, she said, had never been operated on. The pupil was filled with a dense white membrane. Three days later, I pulled out this very tough membrane. She immediately smiled and said, "How do you do, Doctor? I see you perfectly, as well as with the other eye." There is no doubt that this girl had 4½ diopters of hyperopia, and could read Jaeger No. 1, without any glass, at 8 inches.

Dr. Derrick T. Vail, Cincinnati. I should like to say something of accommodation of the lens to the lenseless eye. I have had a number of patients, wearing their full standard glass, who are able to read naturally. I have told them that all they need to do is to pull the frame slightly down, and they can read; and that if they wish to see off, they can pull the lens back. I have a large percentage—fifty per cent—who are enjoying the result of near vision by accommodating the lens to the eye. They can go into a library and look for a book, and do not have to look through a special glass. All they have to do is to pull the lens slightly down on their nose. In the same way, in a picture gallery, they can focus for an intermediate distance by just giving a

slight movement to accommodate the lens to the eye. Some of these patients think that they have accommodation in the eye, but their accommodation is that of the lens to the eye.

Dr. W. E. Lambert, New York. I do not recall a case in adults in which this condition has been observed; but I do in young people, particularly in cases of congenitally dislocated lenses, and also in congenital cataracts. There is no question about these cases. I see them in greatest number in New York, and demonstrate them frequently at our clinic. The explanation of a stenopaic opening does not in all the cases explain the condition. There was in some a certain effort on the part of the patient to reduce the diffusion by the action of the lids on the cornea. It seems to me that the change may be due largely to the action of the extrinsic ocular muscles in producing a change in the axis of the globe, and possibly in the curvature of the cornea, increasing the convexity and giving the effect of an increased spherical refraction power.

Dr. Edward Jackson, Denver. To bring the discussion back towards Dr. Davis' paper, I want to mention a case that supports his view regarding the interpretation of images. Some years ago, I examined a man with about six diopters of myopia, who had the ordinary impairment of vision that goes with myopia, and improvement of vision when I put on glasses. In the course of the examination, it came out that he was quite a rifle shot; that he had made record scores, and had been a valuable member of rifle teams, shooting without any glasses. He could not bring his vision up to anywhere near normal by any manipulation of his lids. But in a strong light, out of doors, his pupils contracted decidedly; and he had learned to interpret his diffusion images of the target where most of us would not notice there was a target. Diffusion circles are often capable of more accurate interpretation than one who had not experienced them thru a long period would suppose possible.

These cases should be spoken of, however, as cases of ability to read without accommodation. Accommodation, since the time that Donders brought out his work, has had a definite meaning. These cases are not vision with accommodation but without accommodation, by means of compensatory devices or tricks.

Dr. A. Edward Davis, New York. Regarding the capsule in these cases, there was a capsule in each case, but a single opening. It was not stenopaic. In one case, there was no astigmatism; so it could not be due to the patient's using first one meridian, and then the other.

ABSTRACTS

E. Török. Tuberculin in Diagnosis and Treatment of Eye Diseases.— Archives of Ophthal., v. 48, p. 242.

Because there is tuberculosis somewhere in the body it does not follow that the eye condition is of the same origin. The demonstration of the tubercle bacillus is but rarely possible and the microscopic examination of excised diseased tissue is feasible only in some anterior affections. From a practical standpoint, the most important factors in making the diagnosis of a tuberculous affection of the eye are the clinical appearance of the eye and the tuberculin injections. Tuberculous affections are characterized by their chronic course, low inflammatory symptoms, and the appearance of small nodules (tubercles) in the affected tissues. The latter are of the greatest importance, their presence being almost positive proof of a tuberculous affection.

To confirm the diagnosis the resort is made to tuberculin. The Calmette reaction is mentioned only to be condemned; the von Pirquet test has its limitations and when positive gives no clew to the location of the tuberculous focus in the body.

The subcutaneous test is the most reliable. For this Török gives ½ mgm., 1 mgm. and 3 mgm. in children,

and 1 mgm., 3 mgm. and 5 mgm. in adults. A local or general reaction simply means a focus exists somewhere in the body. The focal reaction is the most important and is the one which indicates that the tuberculous focus is in the eye. In those cases in which a local and general reaction is observed, the diagnosis of tuberculosis cannot be positively established. In such cases in which all other causes can be excluded, it is justifiable to consider the eye condition as of probable tuberculous origin. Török gives a resumé of 100 cases diagnosed and treated as tuberculous eye affections.

One of the outstanding facts was the length of treatment necessary; in many cases lasting a number of years. Another point was that the cases, not responding to treatment generally, did not show a focal reaction. This was particularly true of exudative choroiditis. Of eight such cases with no focal reaction, 5 had dental infection and all recovered under appropriate treatment. All of the 11 periphlebitis retinae cases showed a focal reaction and all recovered under tuberculin therapy. In a number of cases of scleritis and sclerosing keratitis not responding to tuberculin treatment, improvement was obtained by subconjunctival injections of guaiacol cacodylat as recommended by Darier. It was thought worth while to further consider this agent and to investigate its healing qualities in stubborn tuberculous eye conditions. Tuberculin injections are commenced with a 1/10,000 mgm. dose and gradually increased, dependent on the condition and the reaction of the patient, to a maximum of 1 mgm. All general reactions are avoided. The frequency of the injections is regulated partly by the amount given and partly by the action of the tuberculin upon the patient, of necessity varying with the individual. As a general rule Török gives two injections a week until 1/1000 mgm. is reached; once a week up to 1/100 mgm; once in two weeks up 1/10 mgm; and once a month up to 1 mgm. No hard and fast rules can be laid down as to the length of treatment. being again dependent on the individual. It is a matter of years, however, and not months. After apparent cure it is well to give an injection every 3 or 4 months, for years. The following conclusions were reached:

We consider an eye condition tuberculous only when a positive focal reaction has been observed.

In cases where, for some reason or other, a positive focal reaction cannot be obtained, but the patient shows a positive general and local reaction, and every other possible cause for the eye condition is, with reasonable certainty, excluded, we consider the case of probable tuberculous origin.

For diagnostic and therapeutic purposes, tuberculin should always be used in fresh solution, not over two weeks old.

For diagnosis in eye conditions, only the subcutaneous injection is of value. It can be used in children as well as in adults with practically no danger.

Tuberculin is a valuable remedy in ophthalmic therapeutics provided it is used in very small doses, in positive tuberculous eye affections, i. e. in eye affections where a positive focal reaction was obtained. Used under these conditions, there is no danger involved.

The treatment should be started with a very small dose—1/10,000 mgm., increasing it slowly to the maximum dose that the patient can tolerate, which in no case should exceed 1 mgm. During treatment all reactions should be avoided.

Duration of treatment should be long. Relapses being frequent in those cases where treatment has been discontinued after an apparent cure following treatment of less than eight months.

Best results have been obtained in those cases where treatment was continued for several years, and in which, after the apparent cure, an injection of the maximum dose was given once every three or four months.

Tuberculin is of least value in chronic uveitis cases, with the exception of heterochromic cyclitis; while in the cases of scleritis and periphlebitis retinae the tuberculin treatment is most satisfactory.

Scleritis, deep and interstitial keratitis, and iridocyclitis are closely related to each other and have not a separate entity, but may change from

one condition to the other, a clinical observation which is borne out by the pathologic findings of Treacher Collins.

Exudative choroiditis cases are seldom of tuberculous origin, the source of infection often being the teeth.

W. F. H.

Mas Soewarno. Forms of Iris Depigmentation.—(Doctorate Thesis.)

Soewarno deals first with the different types of iris pigment in man, with the structure of the iris tissue and the pigment distribution, with the kinds of pigment as regards form, chemism and physiologic action and the relation in different race.

Numerous substances, which fluoresce, are capable of producing inflammations, which in albinotic animals exposed to light can go on to necrosis. The extraretinal ocular pigment of a very dark rabbit was sufficient protection against the light of a mercury lamp for 15 minutes, at 50 c.m. distance. An albinotic rabbit developed at that distance after 5 minutes a rather serious conjunctivitis, which required six days to cure. Greater differences occurred if a 1 per cent eosin-solution 1 c.m. was injected intravenously daily for a week or still greater if the animals were nourished with food stained with eosin for at least two weeks. In the dark "control" rabbit as well as in the albino the eosin injections produced a condition of photosensibility. The reaction in the dark animal was limited to a slight conjunctival redness, after 15 minutes illumination at 50 c.m. which returned to normal after four days. The albino under similar circumstances developed a serious inflammation of the conjunctiva, much opacity of the cornea and hyperemia of the iris; and after the acute disturbances had subsided a cataract was discovered which had not existed before the exposure. The reaction to the illumination was still stronger in rabbits, which had been fed with colored oats. With the other acute symptoms, hemorrhages in the conjunctiva and iris (in one rabbit also in the retina) appeared. The iris color became a dirty grayish red, and the pupil narrow, so that in these animals an acute hemorrhagic iritis developed.

Tyrosinase has not been demonstarted in the higher animals. The opinion of Nettleship and Usher, which would explain the absence of pigment in albinos through the trysoinase theory, does not rest on facts. Bloch could demonstrate the presence of a ferment in the human skin, connected with pigmentation, by bringing the skin into contact for 24 hours with dioxyphenylalanin. Where pigment is present, the reagent which was in the beginning colorless becomes transformed into an insoluble melanin-like black product. This ferment Bloch calls dopaoxydase, being the ferment which dioxyphenylalanin (in short: "dopa") oxydises. No investigations of the functions of ferments in the development of ocular pigment have been made. A few experiments made with pieces of the irides of rabbits prove that the dioxyphenylalanin reacts upon the iris stroma, as upon the skin. The piece of iris should be embedded in thick (10-20%) solution of gelatin, which has been neutralized with a 10 per cent solution of Na_2Co_3. However, sections can be improved upon, as good findings were got with the usual way of teasing. The writer accepts the theory, which explains the origin of the pigment through the action of a ferment.

In the second part Soewarno takes up the albinotic iris, heterochromia iridis, circumscribed depigmentations of the iris, glaucomatous iris depigmentation and depigmentations of the iris thru general diseases. A piece of an *albinotic iris* of a rabbit was treated according to the methods of Bloch and Ryniher with the "dopa"; and it was found that the iris stroma reacts to the reagents in the same way as to the control fluid (physiologic salt solution); that the stroma cells do not become stained thru the "dopa." It seems therefore that the cause of the albinotic iris must be found in the absence of the ferment of Bloch.

HETEROCHROMIA IRIDIS.

To verify Angelucci's statement of a direct connection between the sympathetic and iris coloration Soewarno extirpated the superior ganglion in three young rabbits, but did not see any dif-

ference in the color of the eyes after nine months.

The accepted, but partly contradictory, viewpoints regarding the pathogenesis of the unilateral, total depigmentation of the iris, and especially the question why in one case it is accompanied by complications and not in the other, lead to the study of heterochromia. From April, 1918, to December, 29 cases were examined in the Amsterdam Policlinic, partly with the help of the school physicians. The youngest patient was four years, the oldest nearly 70. Twelve of these were children of the elementary school. Among these four complications were found. Among the other 17, mostly adults, 15 had, besides iris depigmentation, some other pathologic change in the eye. The history often gave different colored eyes for the two parents.

The general condition of the patients was good, in only three cases did some indication exist for a general examination, which, however, did not demonstrate anything. In two cases the darker eye was the pathologic one. In No. 7 the cyclitis symptoms and the cataract were more pronounced in the darker eye; and in No. 29 the light eye was healthy, and the one with darker pigment showed Descemet's spots and vitreous changes. The writer accepts the idea of a double heterochromia and also a heterochromia iridis sine heterochromia.

Two types can be distinguished in the clinical appearance of the anterior surface of the iris. In the first the iris is, with the exception of the color, entirely like that of a normal similarly colored eye. The second type, which is generally considered typical, has a less moist iris surface, is less glossy, the relief is less distinct because the connective tissue bundles and bloodvessels are less prominent, in its totality it gives the impression of a very slight atrophy of the iris tissue. Of those examined, 11 belonged to the first type, the remaining 18 to the second type.

The Descemet spots retain a certain individuality in spite of their long existence. In one case the numerous precipitates could hardly be found after cataract extraction; they must have been washed away by the aqueous.

The iris in sympathetic heterochromia belongs to the first type, altho experimentally it has not yet been proven that removal of the sympathetic influence produces disturbances in the iris pigmentation, many clinical observations point to such a connection. However, one must be careful when only one symptom is present, and one must also accept the fact that removal of the sympathetic is not always sufficient to produce heterochromia and that probably other unknown causes exist. In this direction point the numerous sympathetic paralyses not associated with iris depigmentation. Perhaps climatic influences are present.

Soewarno cannot accept Fuch's opinion of a common cause for the depigmentation and the cyclitis, as it seems improbable, that one and the same agent should cause the stroma pigment to disappear in the period of development, should remain quiescent for a long time and much later should produce a cyclitis. It seems as if the cause has been too often sought in the organism itself, while external causes have been disregarded. The results of the investigations regarding changes and injuries to the eye by light rays should help our insight into the cause of heterochromia.

In a rabbit exposed for 15 minutes to a mercury vapor lamp (distance 50 c.m.) fine dust-like opacities appeared in the posterior cortex of the lens. The pigmentation of the iris in rabbits can be influenced by the mercury vapor lamp in two ways, namely, thru low dosage which causes hyperpigmentation, especially in the peripheric zone and pupillary margin, and then longer exposure at a shorter distance, which produces depigmentation. It is found that unpigmented rabbit eyes are much more sensitive to ultraviolet rays than strongly pigmented ones.

The pigment epithelium of iris and ciliary processes can be damaged by the diffusely dispersed light rays in the lens; which may, according to van der Hoeve, produce cataract. If the light which reaches the ciliary body along this indirect route, can menace this organ with disease, the more direct contact of light rays, which can be ex-

pected thru pigment-free irides, must be still more harmful. Perhaps the absence of pigment in the eye can produce a photosensibility. Once the ciliary body is suffering, it will not be long before the lens also is affected. The one-sided blue eye is contrary to both blue eyes, and congenitally of lower value. But because a part of the blue eyes in heterochromia are a physiologic heredity, they are not followed by symptoms of iridocyclitis.

Circumscribed depigmentations of the iris. Axenfeld described in 1911 a depigmentation of the visible part of the retinal layer of iris. Soewarno notes its frequent coincidence with cataract. He found it also in eyes with developed incipient cataract. He considers that they are not simple blue or gray eyes, but that the gray color of these eyes must be considered as a pathologic phenomenon.

Glaucomatous iris depigmentation. The conclusion is reached there is more evidence against Koeppe's theory than in its favor, and that the pigment changes of primary glaucoma must rather be considered the consequences of the pathologic pressure. An interesting finding is a peculiar nacre-gray discoloration of the pupillary margin located exclusively in the pupillary zone. It often begins on both sides of an artificial iris coloboma in the ciliary margin, goes parallel with the coloboma towards or to the pupil. Sometimes it is found in the region of the sphincter iridis. The discolored strips have sharp limits, are often a few millimeters broad and contain much pigment dust. The normal iris relief has been destroyed thruout these strips, altho on a careful inspection remnants of vessels are often distinguished. They resemble the small circumscribed spots of variola-vitiligo, and also the discoloration of an iridodialysis.

These distinct atrophies and mother-of-pearl discolorations appear after acute glaucoma, operated or not, some weeks or months after serious attacks, and are apparently the result of something acting during the attack on the iris, or its vessels or nerves and not of the pressure itself.

Depigmentations of the iris consequent upon general diseases. Four diabetic patients did not show any pigment disturbances. Among 169 female and 107 male luetic patients, 29 showed more or less distinct changes in the iris, 23 being females. The phenomenon of depigmentation could be followed in its entirety in 7 persons. Often without subjective complaints or objectively observable signs, small gray, gray-white or yellow-white foci, of pinhead size appear in the anterior surface of the iris, which enlarge often excentrically. They may coalesce, forming maplike fields, or normal iris tissue may remain between them. On the depigmented parts, their borders and around them fine pigment is often seen. The place of predilection is the ciliary zone. As a rule the white spots appear in both eyes. The bloodvessels appear as naked lines, best seen in light-brown and brown eyes. They cannot with certainty be recognized in totally gray or blue irides because of the absence of contrast. Krückmann has described this condition as leukiridia or leukopathia iridis. This syphilitic leukiridia appears between 3 months and 2 years. In the 7 patients where the entire cycle could be followed the average duration was about 5 months. Its frequency is twice as great among females as males. Light cannot be influential, as the greatest number was found among people, who are much indoors. The age of these patients was from 17 to above 40, half of the cases were between 20 and 30 years. In the great majority of cases the white spots were seen in the secondary period of syphilis. They appeared when most of the cutaneous eruptions had vanished. Never is it stated that iris roseola or even local hyperemia preceded. Among these 29 cases, in 17 a syphilitic leucoderma was found. These two conditions should be regarded as equivalent. Inflammatory symptoms are never seen in this condition, so that the treponema cannot be the direct cause. They may be caused by impoverished blood supply, the result of the general disease. It seems plausible, that the difference in sex explains the more frequent affection among women (Van Dar Kaaden).

E. E. B.

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OPTICAL ASPECTS OF PRINTING MAGAZINES FROM TYPEWRITER COPY

The strike of the printers has greatly interfered with publications, more particularly the weekly and monthly popular, trade and scientific magazines, some of which suspended publication.

The Literary Digest, one of the scores of periodicals forced to suspend typesetting by the lockout and strike in the local printers' trade, was the forerunner in a new method of printing directly from photo-tint plates from typewritten copy. This has been followed by Nugent's Weekly, a trade magazine, devoted to the manufacture of women's garments; the latter making the announcement that publication would be maintained by the same process every week until the strike is ended. The Literary Digest had all of its body matter reproduced in two columns as usual, the type reduced to about the same size as the regular type i. e. as small pica. The trade magazine used the same process of typewriting and photography, but by the use of a special typewriter, the lines were "justified" or equalized in length, an improvement on its literary confrère.

On reading these journals, the editor has noticed a difference in the legibility or rather the ease of reading from that of ordinary typesetting or the linotype printing, which is certainly not in favor of this temporary makeshift for publication. This reason lies largely in the difficulty of instantaneous recognition of the word symbols made up of letters. It goes without saying that we do not spell our words in ordinary reading; that the whole word, i. e. all the letters are taken in at a glance and form a word picture; but the clearer the definition of each letter, the more easily is the word picture recognized.

It is only those who have had great experience in reading, and particularly in proof reading, who detect at a glance individual letters which are errors in spelling or punctuation. The easiest face of type to read has been found purely from empiric use. It is a type in which the vertical lines are more ac-

centuated than the horizontals; i. e., the ordinary modified Roman type with its many varieties. For ordinary typewriting, this form is not used; but we have a modified block letter, its horizontal constituents being of the same or about the same weight as the verticals. In the large sized type of the type writer, as well as those used for headings, advertisements, etc., this style would be readily read, but when put in a mass as in close lined typewriting, or full page, it is not so legible and when reduced in size to small pica or brevier, the eye does not recognize the unaccustomed word symbols so quickly or so easily and hence a feeling of fatigue results.

Then again the typewritten copy, if magnified will be seen not to have the clear definition of the lead type print; the result of which is a slightly blurred image which requires more of a mental as well as more of an ocular effort, not alone the retinal and cerebral perception but likewise the muscular sense: The latter is certainly more on account of the eyes having to move to and fro more in reading typewriter copy, or a reproduction, than is necessary in lead type prints.

Certainly a large economic saving, resulting in cutting out of the linotype and hand setting operators, the expenisve machinery and materials, might be made by this form of book work; for the reproduction by photography by the methods of zinc etchings, et cetera, is much cheaper than hand or machinery work.

If however, clear copy in the form of type to which we are accustomed be given to the photo engraver, there is no doubt that a satisfactory, easily read page may be made, and this innovation bids to become a fair competitor to the ancient and accustomed process of bookmaking now in vogue.

H. V. W.

THE CONGRESS ON OPHTHALMOLOGY.

The Committee to plan and arrange for a World Congress of Ophthalmology has now been named and has begun its work. The last three of its members were appointed at the Cleveland meeting, and a week later the joint committee held its meeting for organization in New York City. It consists of:

George E. de Schweinitz, Chairman, Philadelphia.
Luther C. Peter, Secretary, Phila.
Lucien Howe, Buffalo.
William H. Wilder, Chicago.
William H. Wilmer, Washington.
Walter B. Lancaster, Boston.
Edward Jackson, Denver.
Fred Tooke, Montreal, Canada.
Francisco M. Fernandez, Havana, Cuba.

This committee is broadly representative. Three members were named by the Section of Ophthalmology of the American Medical Association, three by the American Ophthalmological Society, and three by the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology. It was a happy thought to include representatives of the profession of Canada and Cuba. For a committee chosen in this way different sections of the country are fairly represented, with a concentration in Eastern cities that will facilitate getting together and prompt action. However, it will be necessary for this committee at an early date to form a representative American committee, as it will be necessary to get committees to represent the movement in other countries.

A first step toward preparation for the congress will be the selection of the time and place for holding it. But these can scarcely be fixed until the situation has been considered, and European and other confreres consulted as to their best season for attendance. Meanwhile American ophthalmologists ought to begin to prepare for the entertainment of their visitors both as scientific men and as tourists.

In the coming Congress the United States should supply a larger share of the scientific program than in any preceding gathering of the kind. Not only is the number of ophthalmologists practising in this country larger than ever before, and larger than in any other country, in many ways they are

more generally organized and in touch with one another. Their hospitals, out-patient services, and teaching facilities altho still far from adequate are better than they have been in the past. Worthy papers and well prepared speakers in discussion should be forthcoming in sufficient number to give our guests a favorable impression of American ophthalmology. This preparation for a feast of scientific observations will require the longest, the most widely distributed preparation. It ought to begin now.

So far as possible we want our visitors to get acquainted with North America. Where there are medical and ophthalmic institutions to show, these should be put in order and brought to the highest state of efficiency, by way of preparation. Where there are scenery, natural resources or curiosities of nature to be exploited the local ophthalmologists should prepare to offer every assistance to those foreign guests who may be interested in them. There is time between now and the holding of the Congress for one to acquire some speaking facility in either of the languages likely to be official in the Congress, English, French and Spanish. But the sooner we get about such preparations, the better will be the result. E. J.

OUR SECOND YEAR.

Altho the past year has been one of especial difficulties of publication, the American Journal has come thru it without losing ground, and has made some substantial gains.

It has gained in the number of subscribers, both in the United States, and especially outside this country in all quarters of the globe. It has gained in the assistance of new collaborators and in the increased activity of some already on our list.

In a year when many of the prominent magazines of America like the Century and Collier's have been forced to suspend; it has been issued each month, and has suffered no deterioration in paper or typography. It has been able to publish more colored plates and some of these have reached the highest standards of excellence in color reproduction. It has done this, and yet maintained its cash reserve, and met the increased cost of all materials and labor.

It comes to the new year better organized, better supported, with a better class of articles ready to fill its pages, with better command of the world's literature of ophthalmology than it has ever had before. Modifications will appear in the coming issues, which represent a better understanding of the needs of our subscribers. The Journal has been made and will be kept something that no progressive English speaking ophthalmologist can afford to do without.

INDEXES.

The various indexes, to this Journal and its year book supplement, occupy a large part of this number. As last year the indexes for the Journal are at the beginning and those for the year book supplement at the end of the issue.

In each case there is a name index and a subject index. The name index for the year book replaces the bibliography; which this year has been published from month to month for convenience in connection with the sections to which the various parts belong.

A glance over one of these indexes gives some indication of the amount of literature relating to ophthalmology; that is thus opened up to the student of any particular condition or procedure. The explanation appended to the year book is designed to help those unfamiliar with it to the method of using this as a work of reference.

BOOK NOTICES

The American Encyclopedia and Dictionary of Ophthalmology. Edited by Dr. Casey A. Wood, M.R.C., U. S. A., assisted by a large staff of collaborators. Fully illustrated, Volume XV, Chicago; Cleveland Press, 1919.

Volume XV carries the work from "Retina, Detachment of" to "Solution, Carrel-Dakin." Doubtless the editor begins to see the finish of his gigantic task; and his readers can begin to appreciate the value of a library of ophthalmology always alphabetically arranged for immediate use. Imagine for comparison any fifteen volumes of the literature of ophthalmology, or better any 12,000 pages which might well constitute 25 or 30 volumes of ordinary size. Consider the duplication such a collection would represent, the confusion, the uncertainty of where to look for anything in such a miscellaneous collection, the years that it would have to be studied before its possessor could command its resources.

In contrast with such a collection the Encyclopedia is not free from duplication, requires some familiarity with its contents before one has them at command. But how enormously better the command the reader has at the start, and how much sooner can he make available the unrivalled collection of facts relating to our specialty that it contains.

The first topic considered in this volume is one which immediately arrests the attention of the practical ophthalmologist; and it receives attention commensurate therewith. The 65 pages devoted to detachment of the retina seem to have been written by Dr. Wood. The section is opened by a sort of table of contents filling two-thirds of a page; which will be a great help to the reader who uses the volumes as a work of reference. Beginning with a historical review of the subject the article seems intended to end with a summary of treatment. But to the latter has been appended an abstract of an important article by Birch-Hirschfeld appearing during the current year. Among the illustrations is the colored plate from the July number of this journal, illustrating both the article and the strenuous effort that has been made to bring the work up to date.

The other long articles in this number are upon Serology, 34 pages, Dynamic Skiametry, 105 pages, and Skiascopy, 57 pages. The one on Serology seems to be by the editor, and constitutes a very valuable aid to the ophthalmologist who wishes to make himself familiar with this new field in medicine.

The article on "Skiametry" by C. S. Sheard may justify its length more by its novelty to the ophthalmologist than by its permanent relative importance. In a general way it is an aspect of skiascopy that has been neglected by the oculist and exploited by the optometrist. The claims made for it have some foundation, but will not appeal very strongly to men trained in general physiology and pathology. The introduction of case details into an encyclopedia article might be adversely criticised. But it undertakes to carry over into practice the theoretic facts of relative occommodation; and on the whole may be found most profitable reading as new matter. On the other hand the article on skiascopy contains almost nothing that has not previously appeared in the literature on the subject, it is a summary of what has been previously worked out.

There are many other sections in this volume that will be of interest to the ophthalmic practitioner such as: Retina, Injuries of; Retinitis Albuminurica, Exudative, Pigmentosa, etc.; Retrobulbar Neuritis; Rupture of the Eyeball; Salvarsan; Sarcoma; School Hygiene; Siderosis; and many others. The new subscriber to the Encyclopedia will have the advantage of being sure of a completed work and of receiving it at an early date. It is now evident that this is the proper foundation for any working library of ophthalmology. E. J.

American Encyclopedia, Volume XV.

Truly a complete book is given on the retina, embracing nearly two-hun-

dred pages, the principal part written by Wood and "Injuries of" by Würdemann, of course with abstracts from many other authors.

The section on Serology probably by the editor, Casey Wood, is quite complete; that on Skiametry, Dynamic is certainly complete, and that on Skiascopy by Edward Jackson is a condensed but clear and complete exposition on the subject. Advantage has been taken to bring the subject up to date under subsidiary titles such as additional matter under sarcoma of the choroid; the main description of which is published under "Choroid-Sarcoma."

On the whole this volume keeps up the high class of its contents, and shows the controlling mind of its principal editor, Casey A. Wood. Certainly the series makes an exhaustive treatise on ophthalmology and one from which the practice and application of scientific medicine may be safely drawn. H. V. W.

CORRESPONDENCE.

ACRIFLAVINE AS A STAIN FOR CORNEAL ULCERS

To the Editor: Considerable interest has recently been manifested in the therapeutic properties of some of the acridine dyes. Most of these derivatives have no amebicidal properties. One of them, however, known as "Acriflavine," is claimed to possess high antiseptic power. It is derived from a coal tar base. If this claim is substantiated by further investigation, its value and desirablilty as a stain for corneal ulcers is apparent.

In order to determine its staining power I recently had a quantity made up of two per cent strength in normal salt solution, and used it just as fluorescein is used for this purpose. A single drop on the upper part of the eyeball was allowed to flow down the ulcer, the eye kept closed for about two minutes and then the eye and conjunctival sac thoroly irrigated with warm boric solution.

The result has been uniformly satisfactory in the few cases in which I have been able to try it. The stain is a bright emerald green. Its freedom from toxic properties, and the absence of any irritation to the cornea or conjunctival membrane, would make it appear that in this preparation we have a valuable addition for our use in ocular therapeutics.

Proflavine is a substance having similar properties, but its antiseptic power is not as great as that of Acriflavine.

CHAS. P. SMALL.

INVERSE ASTIGMATISM AND ASTHENOPIA.

To the Editor: Under the caption, "Observations on Astimatism" by John Green, Jr., and William F. Hardy (January issue of the "Journal," page 64) I note the following:

"One of the reasons for the greater degree of asthenopia in eyes with inverse astigmatism is the greater interference with the legibility of ordinary printed type. In direct astigmatism the vertical components of letters are distinct, whereas the opposite is the case in inverse astigmatism. Letters with vertical components distinct are more easily recognized than those with horizontal components distinct."

As the authors base many of their conclusions upon the above statements, it is obvious that if their premises are incorrect their views require substantial revision.

Is it true that in all instances, or even in the majority of cases, of direct astigmatism, the vertical components of letters are distinct? When one recalls the physiologic optics of the principal dioptric meridians of the eye, namely, that the vertical meridian is used for seeing the horizontal aspect of the object looked at, while the horizontal meridian deals with the vertical aspect of the object, it is evident that if the horizontal meridian is at fault (as obtains in direct hyperopic astigmia) the vertical components of the object are less distinct than any other part of it and, consequently, less clearly perceived; while in reverse hyperopic astigmia (where the vertical meridian is subnormal) the vertical parts of the

object are more easily seen than the horizontal parts and consequently the object is more readily recognized, the very reverse of what the authors assert. One can quickly convince himself of this by simply placing before one eye (the other being closed) a minus two cylinder axis 90 degrees, which renders his refraction that of direct hyperopic astigmia; and he will observe that under these circumstances, when, looking at Snellen's test type for distance, or Jaeger's for near, his vision is much more impaired then if the same glass is put before his eye axis 180 degrees (which makes the eye inversely astigmatic). The author's reasoning is sound when the case is one of myopic astigmia, but when applied to hyperopic astigmia, it runs counter to well known principles of physiologic optics.

JOHN H. BAILEY.

Brooklyn, N. Y.

[The meridian seen most distinctly will depend on the exertion or relaxation of the accommodation. It would be worth while to observe and record the actual facts regarding these cases, to ascertain when inverse astigmatism does cause greater asthenopia, and when it does not.—Ed.]

NATURAL HISTORY OF CATARACT.

To the Editor: The undersigned would like to announce that 1,200 return postal cards, like the following, have been sent out.

"I am preparing a paper on the Natural History of Cataract. I hope to show what per cent of untreated lens opacities disappear, remain stationary or increase. Should a suficient number submit data such a table would be useful in determining by comparison the value of different therapeutic measures. If your reply shows that you have any available statistics, which you are willing to contribue, a more detailed questionnaire will be submitted.

Reply Card.

"Do you always treat incipient cataract?

"Have you records of any number of untreated cases?

"Do you make sketch of opacity as well as test vision?

"Are you willing to co-operate?"

Anyone who failed to receive one of these postal cards, and wishes to co-operate, please send his name and adress to Hotel Westminster.

DR. DAVID W. WELLS.

Boston, Mass.

NEWS ITEMS

Personals and items of interest should be sent to Dr. Melville Black, 424 Metropolitan Building, Denver, Colorado. They should be sent in by the 25th of the month. The following gentlemen have consented to supply the news from their respective sections: Dr. Edmond E. Blaauw, Buffalo; Dr. H. Alexander Brown, San Francisco; Dr. V. A. Chapman, Milwaukee; Dr. Robert Fagin, Memphis; Dr. M. Feingold, New Orleans; Dr. Wm. F. Hardy, St. Louis; Dr. Geo. F. Keiper, LaFayette, Indiana; Dr. Geo. H. Kress, Los Angeles; Dr. W. H. Lowell, Boston; Dr. Pacheco Luna, Guatemala City, Central America; Dr. Wm. R. Murray, Minneapolis; Dr. G. Oram Ring, Philadelphia; Dr. Chas. P. Small, Chicago; Dr. John E. Virden, New York City; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. Edward F. Parker, Charleston, S. C. Volunteers are needed in other localities.

DEATHS.

Clinton Brotemarkle, Salisbury, Md., aged 59, died in a sanatorium in Philadelphia, about October 23rd.

Stephen O. Richey, Washington, D. C., aged 70, a member of the American Opthalmological Society, died at his home, October 8th, from cerebral hemorrhage.

James F. Smith, New York City, aged 62, died at his home October 18th, from pneumonia. He was assistant surgeon of the eye department of the Manhattan and a member of the staff of the Post-Graduate Nose and Throat Hospital.

Charles F. Sterling, Warrenton, Virginia, aged 73, once professor of the eye and ear, University of Michigan, died October 28th from cerebral hemorrhage.

Francis Valk, of New York City, aged 74, died in St. Luke's Hospital, November 5th. Dr. Valk was a noted author and teacher, for many years Professor of Ophthalmology in the New York Post-Graduate School.

PERSONALS.

Drs. Cyril Barnert and David Newman, of New York City, have returned from service.

Dr. William M. Bane and Miss Elisebeth N. Evans, both of Denver, were married on the evening of October 8th.

Dr. Frank R. Spencer, of Boulder, was elected president of the Colorado State Medical Society at its last annual meeting.

Dr. A. C. Bartholomew announces his return to civil practice with offices in the Home Guards Temple, Van Wert, Ohio.

Mr. and Mrs. Henry Sahlein, of San Francisco, announce the marriage of their daughter, Rose Winifred, to Dr. Louis D. Green, of San Francisco, on October thirtieth.

Dr. Edward Jackson, of Denver, after forty years of active practice in ophthalmology, announces that hereafter he will confine his practice to consultation and diagnosis, including measurment of ametropia.

At a recent meeting of the Board of Regents of the University of Minnesota, Dr. William R. Murray, of Minneapolis, was appointed professor and chief of the department of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology to fill the vacancy created by the death of Dr. Frank C. Todd.

Dr. William A. Sedwick, of Denver, went into the service October 11, 1917, as a lieutenant, and was discharged October 3, 1919, as a captain. During this time he served at Oglethorpe, Camp Grant, U. S. General Hospital No. 12, Baltimore, and Fort Thomas, Kentucky.

Dr. L. G. Dunlap has recently been released from the service after twelve months' service as chief of eye, ear, nose and throat, at the U. S. Army General Hospital, No. 25, Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana. He has now located at Anaconda, Montana.

Dr. Ralph A. Fenton, late Senior Consultant in Ophthalmology with the American Army of Occupation, and during active operations, ophthalmic surgeon with Evacuation Hospital No. 1, Toul sector, reviewed the special service of the American front and the Army of Occupation before the Portland Oto-Ophthalmological Society on October 20th.

Dr. Howard Ford Hansell has resigned his position as Ophthalmic Surgeon to the Philadelphia General Hospital, after a continuous and valued service of over twenty years. Dr. Hansell will continue his work as Professor of Ophthalmology at Jefferson Medical College.

Dr. C. E. G. Shannon has been appointed visiting Ophthalmic Surgeon to the Philadelphia General Hospital, to fill the vacancy on the staff caused by Dr. Hansell's resignation. Dr. Shannon has been associated with Dr. Hansell's services for some years, both at the Jefferson Medical College and the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Dr. Samuel D. Risley, of Philadelphia, will address, by invitation, the Buffalo Ophthalmic Club on the afternoon of November 19th, upon the subject "Asthenopia—a Problem of Binocular Vision," and on the eve of the same day he will address the Academy of Medicine of Buffalo upon "Disease of the Uveal Tract and its Relation to Systemic Affections." During Dr. Risley's stay in Buffalo he will be the guest of Dr. F. Park Lewis.

SOCIETIES.

The meetings of the Société d'Ophtalmologie de Paris, November 16th, was the thirtieth anniversary of its foundation. Discussion of a paper on "Circulation in the Retina in Health and Disease" was opened by Dr. Bailliart.

Dr. Harry S. Gradle, of Chicago, gave a talk before the Minnesota Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, on the "Indications for Operative Treatment of the Various Types of Glaucoma," and Dr. E. J. Brown exhibited his new tonometer.

The Minnesota Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology, held its annual meeting at the Town and Country Club, St. Paul, October tenth, and elected the following officers: Dr. J. S. White, president; Dr. J. S Macnie, vice president, and Dr. John Morse, secretary.

On November 17th, in the Section on Ophthalmology of the New York Academy of Medicine, Dr. H. H. Janeway, presented a paper on "The Therapeutic use of Radium in Ophthalmology," based on his experience at the Memorial Hospital. Dr. J. H. Claiborne presented a paper on "Retinal Hemorrhage from Intestinal Intoxication with Complete Recovery."

The October reception of the Philadelphia Medical Club, was held at the Bellevue Stratford Hotel, on the evening of the 17th. The guest of honor was the Hon. William C. Sproul, Governor of Pennsylvania, Addresses were made by Governor Sproul, William I. Schaffer, Attorney General of Pennsylvania, and Hon. J. Hampton Moore, Mayor of Philadelphia. The reception was preceded by a dinner at the Union League in honor of Governor Sproul by the President of the Club, G. Oram Ring.

At the twenty-fourth annual meeting of the American Academy of Ophthalmology and Oto-Laryngology held in Cleveland, Ohio, October 16, 17, 18, 1919, the following officers were elected for the year 1920: President, Dr. Lee Masten Francis, Buffalo, N. Y.; First Vice-President, Dr. Hal Foster, Kansas City, Mo.; Second Vice-President, Dr. William E. Bruner, Cleveland, Ohio; Third Vice-President, Dr. Robert E. Lynch, New Orleans, La.; Treasurer, Dr. Secord H. Large, Cleveland, Ohio; Secretary, Dr. Luther C. Peter, Philadelphia, Pa.; Editor of Transactions, Dr. Clarence Loeb, Chicago, Ill.; Members of the Council, Dr. W. P. Wherry, Omaha, Neb., Dr. H. S. Gradle, Chicago, Ill.; Necrologist, Dr. Joseph C. Beck, Chicago, Ill.; Committee on Exhibits, Dr. Joseph Lichtenberg, Kansas City, Mo.

OPHTHALMIC LITERATURE

These lists contain the titles of all papers bearing on Ophthalmology received within the preceeding month. These titles are all in English, some of them modified to indicate more clearly their subjects. These subjects are grouped under appropriate heads, the succession of groups being the same from month to month. In the group the papers are arranged alphabetically usually by the name of the author in heavy-face type. After the subject of the paper (Ill.) indicates the number of illustrations. (Pl.) the number of plates, and (Col. pl.) colored plates illustrating the article. (Abst.) shows that it is an abstract of the original article. (Bibl.) tells that the paper is accompanied by an important bibliography. (Dis.) means that a discussion of the subject is published with it. Under Repeated Titles are indicated additional publication of papers already noticed. To secure the earliest possible notice writers may send copies of their papers, or reprints, to 518 Majestic Bldg., Denver, Colorado.

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Darier, A. Recent Progress in Ophthalmoloscopy. (Bibl., 3 ill.) Clin. Opht., 23, pp. 497-514.

Hartridge, G. The Ophthalmoscope. London, 6th Edition, 12 mo., 160 pages, 6 ill., 4 pl., Philadelphia, P. Blakiston's Sons and Co., Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 678.

Howard, H. J. Test for the Judgment of Distance. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 755.

Lancaster, W. B. Research Work of the Air Service. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 755.

Snellen, H. Visual Acuity as Measure of Function of the Retina. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 750-751.

Standards of Vision. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 510.

Weve, H. Instrument for Examination of Hemianopic Pupillary Reaction, to be Attached to a Corneal Microscope. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 749.

Wilmer, W. H. Vision of Aviators. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 753-755 and 758.

THERAPEUTICS.

Carreras, B. Injections of Milk in Ocular Affections. Los Prog. de la Clin., v. 7, p. 71.

Harris, S. J. Electrotherapy in Ophthalmology. Amer. Jour. Electrotherap. and Radiol., 38 p. 247.

Nakamura and Myake. Action of Adrenalin on the Retina. Nippon Gank. Zasshi. Feb., 1919.

Nakamura and Mukai. Comparison of Action of Iodin on Rabbits' and Human Eyes. Nippon Gank. Zasshi. Feb., 1919.

Netto, O. C. Caution Necessary with Thermal Mineral Waters in Treatment of Disease of the Eyes. Arch. Bras. de Med., v. 9, p. 504.

OPERATIONS.

Onishi. New Surgical Mask. (4 ill.) Nippon Gank. Zasshi. January, 1919.

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Brown, H. H. Heredity in Myopia. Ill. Med. Jour., v. 36. pp. 230-233.

Cheatham, T. A. Psychology of Asthenopia. Southern Med. Jour., v. 12, pp. 626-629.

Eye Strain and Cinemas. Lancet, Oct. 25, 1919, pp. 744-745.

Jackson, F. D. Cross-cylinder in Testing Astigmatism. Optic. Jour. and Rev., 43, p. 1051.

Loomis, E. A. Refractive Needs in Children. Minn. Med., v. 2, p. 435.

March, C. A. High Myopic Astigmatism. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 817.

Marquez. Mechanism of Skiascopy. (20 ill.) Arch. de Oftal. Hispano-Amer., v. 19, pp. 525-597.

Rönne, H. Determination of Astigmatism in High Degrees of Ametropia. Hospitalstidende 62, p. 933.

Transitory Condition of Refraction. Hospitalstidende, 62, p. 933.

Sakai. Berlin's Opacity and Traumatic Myopia. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, February, 1919.

Shibuya. Lowered Visual Acuity in Low Hyperopia. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, April, 1919.

Wilson, J. A. School Myopia. Brit. Med. Jour., Oct. 18, p. 512. 1919.

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Dolman, P. The Maddox Rod Screen Test. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 757-758.

Hill, E. G. Distortion of Stereoscopic Images. Arch. of Radiol. and Electro., v. 24, p. 112. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 73, p. 1472.

Hayden, A. A. Vestibular Rotation Reactions and Examinations of Aviators in Signal Corps of U. S. A. (ill.) Ann. Otal. Rhinol. and Laryngol., v. 28, pp. 518-554.

Kashiwai. Congenital Defect of Ocular Muscles. (5 ill.) Nippon Gank. Zasshi, June, 1919.

Mazumoto. Ocular Muscles in Basedow's Disease. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, 1919.

Pulleine, R. Three cases of Ophthalmoplegia. Med. Jour. Australia, Sept., 1919, p. 217.

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Bowman, N. H. Diagnosis and Treatment of Conjunctivitis. Texas State Jour. Med., v. 15, p. 216.

Capps, C. M. Differential Diagnosis of Follicular Conjunctivitis and Trachoma. Jour. Tenn. State Med. Assn., v. 12, p. 208.

Goto. Tuberculosis of Conjunctiva. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, February, 1919.

Ito and Sukai. Streptococci in Normal Conjunctiva. Nippon Gank. Zasshi. January, 1919.

Harry, P. A. Treatment of Ophthalmia Neonatorum. Med. Times, v. 47, p. 87.

Jouveau-Dubreuil, H. Trachoma in Setchouen (China). Bull. Soc. Path. Exot., v. 11, p. 815.

McClanahan, F. C. Use of Mercuric Cyanid Solution Subconjunctivally. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 73, p. 1630.

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Nakamura and Mazumoto. Death from Hemorrhage of Conjunctiva in Newborn. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, April, 1919.

Nishioka. Parinaud's Conjunctivitis. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, 1919.

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Scott, George D. Adenoids, Chronic Conjunctivitis, Photophobia. New York State Journal of Medicine, v. 19, pp. 374-377.

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Verhoeff, F. H. Keratitis Profunda (or Disciformis) with Microscopic Examination. (Dis.) Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, pp. 759-760.

Wessely. Corneal Disturbances Caused by Cold. Arch. f. Augenh., 1917-1918, v. 83, pp. 1-11. (2 pl.)

ANTERIOR CHAMBER AND PUPIL

Espiño, J. M. Abnormal Reflexes of Pupil. Los. Prog. de la Clin., v. 7, p. 51.

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Bancroft, W. D. Colors of Colloids (Blue Eyes). Jour. Phys. Chem., v. 23, p. 356.

Betti, L. Colon Bacillus Infection of the Eye. Rif. Med. v., 35, p. 784. Abst., Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 73, p. 1478.

Color of the Iris During Infancy. Jour. Amer. Med. Assn., v. 73, p. 1445.

Jamamoto. Cyst of the Iris. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, 1919.

Okamura. Cases of Pupillary Membrane. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, 1919.

Snellen, H. Traumatic Aniridia. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 747.

Choroidal Tuberculosis. Amer. Jour. Ophth., v. 2, p. 747.

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Terson, A. Late Results after Equatorial Sclerotomy in Glaucoma. Ann. d'Ocul., v. 156, p. 528-537.

Woodruff, H. W. Glaucoma. Illinois Med. Jour., v. 36, pp. 228-230.

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Fleischer, B. Myotonic Dystrophy and Cataract. Graefe's Arch. f. Opth., v. 96, parts 1 and 2. Brit. Jour. Ophth., v. 3, p. 514.

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Kamai. Cataract from Electric Current. (5 ill.) Nippon Gank. Zasshi, June, 1919.

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EXPLANATION

This supplement to the American Journal of Ophthalmology is paged to be bound separately, so as to constitute a volume in continuation of the series of the Ophthalmic Year-Book. It consists essentially of the Table of Contents which precedes this page, the body of the work containing various sections, each with its bibliography and Digest of the Literature, the Name Index and the Subject Index completing the volume.

The Table of Contents shows the grouping of subjects in the body of the work. Not all subjects appear in this table; but enough are given to enable anyone familiar with ophthalmology to judge where in the volume a particular topic would be found, if it has been discussed in the literature of the period covered. The period covered is generally one year. At the head of each section is mentioned the period it covers. The title is always given in English, and often is abbreviated, or altered so as to indicate more clearly what the paper is about. The arrangement is by the authors' names, placed alphabetically.

The Digest of the Literature gives the essential discoveries or new ideas published on each subject, giving extended notice to important studies. Clinical Observations regarding important facts also make up a large part of the Digest; and papers that include nothing new, but may be worth consulting by some one engaged in the study of a particular subject, also are mentioned, with some indication of what they contain. Some papers which contain only what is already current in ophthalmic treatises and journals, and are intended for the instruction of those who are not ophthalmologists, are not mentioned. They may be found under the appropriate heading in the "Ophthalmic Literature" department of the journal.

The paragraph headings indicate the general subjects dealt with, or the particular one of several subjects that make the paper valuable. Other Subjects mentioned incidentally are often indicated in italics. The names of authors of papers are printed in heavy face type, to make them quickly discoverable when the statements made by a particular author are the matter of interest. Papers of joint authorship are placed below the name of the author first mentioned in the publication; and are cross-referenced under the name of the other author or authors.

The bibliography at the head of each section gives the names of authors and titles of papers referring to that department of ophthalmology with the journal volume and page on which they are to be found. The last figures (heavy face), given after each title, indicate the page in the digest on which the paper is referred to.

The Name Index gives the name of each author whose writings are referred to in the Bibliographies (ordinary Roman type) and in the Digest of the Literature (heavy face type).

The Subject Index is the ordinary alphabetic index of the book. It supplements the general arrangements of the "Digest" as shown in the table of

contents. It must be remembered in using it that a subject may be indexed by the use of any one of several leading words. "Acuteness of Vision" may be indexed under A; or under V as "Visual Acuity," or "Vision." If reference to the desired topic is not found under the word first thought of, look for it under some other word that might have been used instead. If not found in this way, one may fall back on the table of contents, and examine the sections of the digest in which it would naturally be considered.—E. J.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

METHODS OF DIAGNOSIS.

EDWARD JACKSON, M. D.

DENVER.

This section reviews the literature of 1918, on ophthalmic diagnosis in general. Papers referring to the diagnosis of any particular disease will be found mentioned under the heading of that disease or the class to which it belongs.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Ophthalmoscopy with Red-free Light.— Ophthalmoscopists generally are familiar with the changes in the color of the ocular fundus produced by variations in the color of the source of the light employed. Fifteen years ago Mayou (O. Y. B., v. 1, p. 196) called attention to the very striking changes of color produced by the mercury vapor lamp. Some five years ago Vogt (O. Y. B., v. 10, p. 271) reported upon the appearance of the fundus as seen with yellow-blue light, obtained thru a filter that cut out all the red rays. **Vogt** has continued his investigations bringing out facts of practical importance in diagnosis, which will make this method of examination one of our recognized diagnostic resources.

The light is obtained from a small arc lamp, and filtered thru two screens each being a layer of fluid 8 mm. in thickness. One is a 30 percent solution of copper sulphat and the other a solution of erioviridin 0.78 parts to 10,000 of distilled water. These screens cut out the red and orange light to beyond the line D of the spectrum. They also eliminate the short wave end of the spectrum, leaving only the yellow-green-blue portion. The light is used with an ordinary ophthalmoscope, by the direct method. But the patient's retina should not be subjected to it for more than one-half minute at a time, altho no evidence of harm from it, either objective or subjective, has been noted.

By means of such light Vogt has proven the yellow color of the living retina in the macula; and by experiment he has shown that such yellow

color is not perceptible under ordinary ophthalmoscopic illumination because of the red background. The general appearance presented by the normal fundus under such illumination is shown in Plate IV, Fig. 1.

The optic disc is white or greenish. The small vessels appear black, and are therefore, more clearly visible than under ordinary illumination. The macula is distinctly greenish-yellow, the retinal reflexes are especially abundant, and the nerve fibre layer is visible thruout the fundus. The fibers may be seen curving from the disc to the macula. The retinal reflexes, seen ordinarily in young persons, by this light become visible at all ages. The retina is less transparent than by red light, and hence more visible.

In many young eyes a pre-retinal striation was seen; supposed to be due to folds in the hyaloid membrane. This had been occasionally noted by earlier observers with the ordinary light. In the eyes of two albinos no macula could be found; and by cutting down the illumination with ground glass the yellow color seen in normal eyes disappeared, and left only a depressed spot. In pathologic eyes the most minute hemorrhages became strikingly visible. In retinitis and chorioretinitis the curving nerve fibers became concealed by edema. Disease of the retina or optic nerve, resulting in atrophy, causes disappearance of the nerve fiber layer of the retina, as shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3.

Affolter reports a series of cases with plates contrasting the appearances as seen by ordinary and red-free light. In a case of recurring hemorrhage into the vitreous, from disease of the retinal vessels, the ordinary illumination showed very dimly the optic disc and largest vessels and a cloud in the vitreous. But by red-free light the diffuse vitreous haze seemed to disappear, rendering the details of the fundus and the yellow macula distinctly visible.

In a case of exudation into the retina the red-free light revealed strongly glistening spheres in the vitreous, in front of the affected region, which were not seen at all otherwise. In retinitis punctata albescens the white spots were more clearly seen, much more numerous, and more widely distributed thruout the retina by red-free light than by ordinary illumination. In another case of retinitis followed thruout its course, the changes were much more striking as seen by the red-free light.

In a case of neuroretinitis the macular lesions gave a more characteristic appearance by the new method of examination, and the same was true of another case of macular lesion. In optic neuritis the minute hemorrhages which dotted the region of swelling were strikingly brought out. On the other hand certain lesions, especially of the choroid, and the star figure of white retinal exudate in renal retinitis, are better differentiated by the ordinary illumination.

In a controversial article of thirty-five pages **Gullstrand** supports the view he advanced twelve years before, in opposition to Dimmer, that the yellow color of the retina at the macula does not exist during life. The spot of yellow seen with the red-free light he explains as due to the intense illumination reflected from the sclera thru the choroid and the thinnest portion of the retina. But this explanation is disproved by **Vogt,** who has examined four cases of hole in the macula, three traumatic, one of unknown origin, with red-free light; and found the area where the retina was absent not at all yellow, but blackish.

Ophthalmoscopy of the Angle of the Anterior Chamber.—More than ten years ago **Trantas** described the appearances of the iridocorneal angle in a case of marked keratoglobus. Since the publication of Salzmann's papers (O. Y. B., v. 11, p. 18; vol. 13, p. 17), Trantas has given systematic study to the subject, and proposes to designate this form of ophthalmoscopy by the single word *"gonioscopy."* In the main his observations agree closely with those of Salzmann. This region is most easily explored in highly myopic eyes or those which present keratoglobus.

From his study of such eyes he recognizes, passing from before backward

or from without inward in the region of inspection, a white zone, the sclera, distinctly separated from a "whitish" zone, as tho a little pigment had been mixed with the white. The line or band separating them apparently contains still more pigment. The whitish zone he believes to be the pectinate ligament; the darker band the canal of Schlemm. Behind the whitish zone appears a band extremely white which may be crossed by black lines approximately perpendicular to it which he thinks are prolongations from the iris. Inside of this are seen the iris crypts; and, still farther in, the wavy folds of the iris periphery.

In one case by rubing the eyeball for a few minutes, or pressing upon it with the finger, the band marking the canal of Schlemm, one and a half or two millimeters wide, became very red; and this color remained for many minutes. He believes that this demonstrates that the canal of Schlemm usually contains lymph, but that blood may be forced into it by obstruction of the venous outflow.

In some eyes this region presents small isolated scarlet vessels, either against the sclera or the anterior surface of the iris. In the first case he described Trantas noticed a regular plexus of these vessels which he thought might be compensatory for an obliterated canal of Schlemm. The pigmented projections he has noticed and the general appearances closely resemble those described by Salzmann.

In response to Trantas' article **Salzmann** publishes a short note regarding priority, and the independence of his own work. Both these writers comment upon the remarkable similarity of the observations thus independently made.

Ophthalmoscopy. — As microscopy of the living eye-ground, with strong magnification in the focal light of the Gullstrand Nernst slit lamp, **Koeppe** discusses the conditions of this kind of examination and describes the apparatus he has employed to extend the illumination from the surface to the ocular fundus. He places on the cornea a contact lens, with a flattened anterior surface. This is, in a way, the opposite of the nearly hemispheric contact lens used by Salzmann, in the examinations referred to above. The illumination is effected thru one portion of the pupil, while another part transmits the emergent rays by which the details of the deep vitreous, retina, choroid, etc., are seen. A prism system, such as is used in the binocular microscope, permits the binocular study of the parts.

The Atlas of War Ophthalmoscopy of **Lagrange** contains a collection of 100 plates, 20 of them in colors, which will assist in the diagnosis of certain conditions of the fundus; particularly that of proliferating chorioretinitis, and other injuries produced by concussion and the appearances following avulsion of the optic nerve. **Masuda** has found that syphilitic appearances of the ocular fundus shown by direct ophthalmoscopy, especially dust-like opacities of the vitreous, have a diagnostic significance that is confirmed in five-sixths of the cases by the results of the Wassermann reaction.

External Examinations.—For the examination of the cornea, iris, anterior chamber, and crystalline lens a self illuminating *corneal loupe* has been arranged by **Von der Heydt.** The light from an electric bulb is concentrated by a condensing lens at the field focussed by a three-quarters aplanatic objective.

A form of the hydroophthalmoscope is proposed by **Koyanagi,** for the examination of the angle of the anterior chamber. He calls it an *anguloscope.* It consists of the usual water container with a glass front. It is to be applied to the margin of the orbit.

Koeppe has continued his studies with the *corneal microscope* aided by illumination with the Nernst slit lamp, by an investigation of the arrangement of the lymph vessels in the bulbar conjunctiva and episclera. This has been carried on with normal eyes, and also with eyes of persons of advanced age, and on eyes with pigment specks in or under the conjunctiva with melanosis, pathologic pigmentation, argyrosis, tattooing, siderosis and hemorrhage in or under the conjunctiva; and in the

choking of the vessels connected with glaucoma, and in lymphangiectasia.

He finds that the blood vessels of the conjunctiva and episclera, apparently even the finest capillaries, are surrounded by lymph sheaths. The perivascular lymph sheaths of the veins are almost twice as thick and numerous as those of the arteries. The capillaries of the marginal plexus of vessels show such perivascular lymph spaces. No transition of the lymph spaces in the cornea to the perivascular lymph spaces of the limbus was discernible.

Among simple *ophthalmic implements* **Schwarz** describes, beside an apparatus for taking the visual field, one for measuring the position of the pupils and that of the apex of the cornea. He also describes a *binocular loupe* formed by joining the parts of two 15 D. convex lenses at an inclination of 160 degrees.

Tonometry.—No modification of the tonometer, and no extended investigations with it have been published in the past year. **Morax** has advocated its use in connection with the symptoms of increased lacrimation without lesions of the tear passages and obscure pain in the face and orbit. **Uribe-Troncoso** urges that the tonometer will make clear the diagnosis in many obscure cases.

Radiographic Diagnosis.—By slightly modifying the method suggested by Rhese for examination of the ethmoid and sphenoid cells **de Kleijn** and **Stenvers** have been able to secure X-ray evidence of *fractures* of the base of the skull, implicating the optic foramen. The deposit of callus and a break in the normal outline in the bone were both perceptible in the case which they publish.

The unreliability of X-ray *localization* is illustrated in a case reported by **Ring**. One X-ray plate indicated the foreign body well behind the eyeball near the optic nerve. Ophthalmoscopic evidence having been secured of its presence in the fundus, the picture taken by another operator showed it within the eyeball, near the nerve entrance. The mistake of locating a foreign body outside the eye, which is really within it, has been made so frequently that there would appear to be a general tendency in that direction. This may be due to failure to allow properly for the divergence of the rays casting the shadow. The diagrams are made the size of the eyeball, but the shadow cast by diverging rays is necessarily larger.

Attention is called to a still more serious error of X-ray diagnosis by a case reported by **Bachstez.** In this case there was much evidence pointing to a tumor of the hypophysis, and the X-ray picture showed very marked enlargement of the *sella turcica.* On the support of such evidence a radical operation was done, and the patient died of basilar meningitis. Post mortem examination showed brain tumors, angiosarcomas, chronic internal hydrocephalus, atrophy of the hypophysis with marked widening and deepening of the sella turcica, and atrophy of its walls.

Beck and **Smith** have published a paper upon stereoscopic roentgenograms. **Salzer** has described a method worked out at Gullstrand's clinic for combining plates taken simultaneously by two X-ray tubes at comparatively widely separated angles for the localization of foreign bodies.

Visual Acuity.—It is pointed out by **Roelofs** that we should not regard measurement of the "minimum separabile" as the measurement of visual acuity. He thinks that both resolving power and optical space sense should be considered; and makes a sharp distinction between the smallest observable breadth and the smallest observable difference in direction. Two dots not sufficiently separated to be seen as separate dots may give the impression of a short bar, the direction of which can be recognized.

Using rods of different lengths and breadths as the best object he found that a line 80 seconds long could be recognized with great probability, and that one 110 seconds long could be recognized with certainty. The shortest rod recognizable was twice as long as its breadth, which was 17 seconds. Long lines, however, could be recog-

nized when much narrower, say from 2.5 seconds to 3 seconds. If narrower than this no line was recognized. Roelofs believes that the examination of visual acuity should include, becide the use of such rods or lines, testing with Snellen's letters, or similar optotypes based on the minimum separabile.

In estimating visual acuity by the minimum separabile **Alexander** points out that for parallel rays it does not matter whether the angle separating distinct points, or subtended by a letter, be measured at the anterior focus of the eye, or at the nodal point, since in both cases the angle is the same. **Wolffberg** writes on the theory and practice of tests for acuteness of vision.

The mathematic optics involved in the theory of visual acuity based upon determination of the perception of optotypes, or minimum separation of two points, is discussed by **Gleichen.** He discusses distinct and indistinct vision, vision with diffusion circles, within



Fig. 4. Optotype of Rasquin.

the limits of accommodation, beyond those limits, acuteness of vision in astigmatic eyes, and vision diminished by imperfect correction, and by looking obliquely through correcting lenses.

With reference to the standard illumination of test type a committee appointed by the American Ophthalmological Society points out; that with the usual intervals between successive lines of test letters, the results are so loosely approximate that an increase of illumination of 30 to 60 per cent would make no perceptible difference in the results obtained. Great excess of brightness in the surroundings tends to reduce visual acuity; but it may be also reduced by perfectly dark surroundings. The choice is an order of brightness, not greater than that of a moderate light gray ground, illuminated like the test card.

For the testing of visual acuity **Rasquin** has suggested an *optotype* consisting of a square the side of which is five times as long as the width of the line composing it. See Fig. 4. On one side of this a part is cut out of the middle, making a break having the same length as the breadth of the line. The test is to recognize which side of the square is thus interrupted. He thinks the visual acuity, estimated by test type, should be recorded in decimal fractions. The optotypes should be graded in geometric progression and the corresponding visual acuity follow an arithmetric progression.

Many papers have been written regarding the visual acuity needed for *military service,* and the standards adopted in different countries have been the subject of much criticism. In general these papers show a disposition to recognize greater impairment of vision as admissible for special and limited branches of service. **Bourdier** carries this same thought into his conclusions regarding what should be called *blindness.* He would recognize as "absolute blindness" complete suppression of all vision of both eyes. But he would call "professional blindness" such vision as fell below the standard required for the exercise of one's profession; the amount varying of course with each profession or occupation. "Practical blindness" he would term an impairment of vision that prevented its utilization in any occupation or profession.

A *self luminous test-type,* obtained by use of a radio-active substance, has been proposed by **Moxon** for the purpose of estimating light sense or the degree of *night blindness.* **Stargardt** has suggested a simple portable box photometer, sufficiently exact for measuring the power of light adaptation in ordinary clinical diagnosis.

With regard to *records* of visual acuity **Abbott** points out the increased labor and confusion that arise from designating vision by all sorts of fractions, and enters a plea for the use of decimals exclusively. **Chapman** would designate as 0. not the complete absence of vision, but vision of 20/220. By the allotting of 10 per cent increase in

vision for every decrease of 20 feet in the distance that the 20-foot letters are recognized he would reach standard vision of 20/20 = 1. at 20 feet. He thinks that the fractions based on the Snellen system of estimating visual acuity have been taken too seriously. The pathologic significance of diminished visual acuity and that of its importance as an indication for treatment are urged by **Gumbiner.**

PERIMETRY.—The report of the Committee of the American Ophthalmological Society considering standardization of the *illumination* of perimeters points out that plans for illumination must take into account: (1) The rapid adaptation of the peripheral retina by which a sensation loses characteristic quality under a continued stimulus. (2) The susceptibility of the peripheral retina to contrast, the same test surface, giving different results with different backgrounds. (3) The totally different results obtained with different sizes of color spots.

It is pointed out that beside variations in instruments, test colors, and technic, the comparison of perimetric findings loses much of its value because inadequate attention is paid to the illumination of the test spot. The patient is usually placed so that his shadow falls upon the arc of the perimeter in certain positions, while the maximum light falls about the middle of the lower quadrant, and a minimum at the middle of the quadrant above. They propose an investigation of these effects of the usual daylight illumination of the perimeter when taking different parts of the field, and also of the color tests used.

The obtaining of an artificial illumination for perimetry, which shall closely resemble daylight in regard to its color values, has been the subject of a paper by **Peter.** He finds that the Mazda lamp covered by the socalled "daylite" screen, of the Corning Glass Works, furnishes a satisfactory illumination. He thinks that from a scientific standpoint no objection can be raised to such an artificial illumination, which will stand the test of spectrum analysis. The papers of **Walker** upon this subject were noted last year (v. 14, p. 5).

The *scotometer* of Priestley Smith (O. Y. B., v. 4, p. 193) has been modified by **Elliot,** who uses the black velvet screen a little over one meter in diameter, mounted on a wheel so that it rotates around the central axis, which carries a sheet of paper on which the observations are recorded. Fixation in the axis is secured by a 3 mm. white ivory disc, having a 1 mm. black center. The distance of the patient's eyes is maintained by a chin and forehead rest. The screen is marked along one meridian into 5 degrees and 1 degree spaces, by stitches of black silk. The test objects are discs of white blotting paper, which adhere readily to the velvet surface. The chart revolving with the disc indicates the meridian in which the observation is being taken.

The adaptability of the phoro-optometer *stereoscope* for mapping the blind spot, in using the Haitz and Bissell charts, has been the subject of a communication by **Wells.** He points out that the nodal point of the eye examined should be the center from which the field is measured, exactness being more important with the smaller dimensions of the stereoscopic fields.

Eppenstein has used the universal *prism apparatus* of Bielschowsky which is modelled after some of the American phorometers, for mapping defects of the central visual field, especially enlargement of the blind spot. **Fleischer** has published tables of tangents for marking off the Bjerrum campimeter screen, for use at 100, 1200, 2000 or 2270 mm. The 1200 mm. tangents are given because this is the multiple of 300 mm., the usual radius of the perimeter arc; and 2270 mm. because at that distance one degree corresponds to 40 mm. removal from the fixation point. **Lloyd** has written on the general aspects of perimetry and campimetry.

BINOCULAR VISION TESTS.—In 1912 (O. Y. B., v. 9, p. 86), **Hudson** described a very simple form of amblyoscope for the treatment of convergent squint, which is equally useful in diagnosis. He has modified this by mak-

ing a screen that can have an opening in the middle for both eyes to look thru; or can be shut off in the middle, compelling the eyes to look on the two sides of the screen. Beside its use in the diagnosis of binocular vision and movements, it is an excellent instrument for detecting malingering. Even the closing of one eye by the malingerer can quickly be nullified by shifting or reversal of the test pictures.

Detection of Simulation and Malingering.—The large number of papers regarding this subject published in the past year contain but little that is new to the ophthalmologist. **Alger** points out the importance of a real—that is, thoro—examination of the person in all respects; and the necessity for the ophthalmologist to divest himself of mental bias. After this an understanding of the mental attitude of the person examined is important; and the handling of the case in a way to disarm antagonism. The stupid patients, who do not respond in any way, are usually the most difficult to unmask. In using a colored glass test for alleged monocular blindness he suggests that it should be placed before the good eye long enough to make the psychologic impression that this eye sees red; and then, getting the examinee to read rapidly a card on which there are red letters, he will be likely to read these, altho they are not visible to the eye with the red glass.

Terrien suggests to unmask pretended diplopia, the use of two colored glasses one of which is transparent and the other ground, or opaque. The person tested having been allowed to read thru the former glass with both eyes open, the latter is then substituted before the good eye. **Trantas** to detect simulation of monocular blindness brings black shades gradually before both pupils. This causes a black vertical band to appear in the field with a diffusion border at each edge if vision is binocular.

Pichler recommends taking of the visual field as a means of detecting simulation; and reports several cases, in one of which the field for white was smaller than the field for blue. In others the fields showed a spiral narrowing. Testing of the fields can at least be made to prove the unreliability of the patient's answers; and where impairment of the field does not correspond to any organic condition it should always be a subject for suspicion. In discussing the paper of **Alger,** Snell told of a man who had a normal visual field in his good eye, but claimed inability to see the test object until it was brought to the middle line, when the alleged blind eye was also left open.

Central scotoma, as **Klauber** points out, is not commonly understood by the laity, so that its simulation is rare. He has, however, met with three cases, one hysteric and readily cured by electricity; the other two in intelligent soldiers, one of whom had some lowering of central vision. In this case it was demonstrated by use of a prism of 10 degrees, base out, which would induce the turning in of the eye for central fixation. Stereoscopic tests may also be used for the purpose.

General reviews of the tests for malingering have been published by **Parker, Beaumont, Dunn, Ezell, Fellows,** and **Jellett. Crisp** reports the case of a child claiming monocular blindness after slight injury, who would permit the lashes to be touched by the hand projected toward the eye, before there was any blinking; but she was readily unmasked by the ordinary convex lens test.

Ocular Signs of Death.—**Lecha-Marzo** believes that actual can be distinguished from apparent death by the change in the reaction of the tears. In life this is always alkaline, as he has invariably found it in more than 1000 healthy persons, and about the same number of hospital patients. But soon after death the reaction becomes acid. It is easily tested by placing a little piece of litmus paper under the lids for a moment.

Icard depends on the green coloration of the ocular media which follows injection of fluorescein during life. If, two hours after such an injection, no green coloration is noticeable, the patient is certainly dead. The presence

of a conjunctival reaction to irritants is also of value, but he warns against the use of ether for this purpose, as dangerous to the cornea. Ethylmorphinhydrochlorid (dionin) is effective and less dangerous.

General Papers. — The common points in the patient's history of his case and his account of his sensations are discussed by **Rönne.** He finds intolerance of tobacco smoke the most constant symptom of conjunctivitis. The amount of epiphora may be estimated by asking if the patient has to carry his handkerchief in his hand in the street, or in the house. The sensation of a foreign body, if intermittent, is probably due to some other cause. Other practical points of this kind are mentioned.

Common mistakes with reference to ocular disease is the subject of a paper by **Gonzalez.** The eye symptoms of cerebellar abscess are discussed by **Bernstein. Clapp** has written on tuberculin in the diagnosis of eye lesions; and **Wolfe** upon the eye as an index of certain diseases. Visual examinations from the point of view of railway men have been discussed by **Wescott.**

THERAPEUTICS.

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This section reviews the literature referring to general therapeutics appearing from December, 1917, and including December, 1918. The literature of particular diseases either constitutional or local will be noticed in the sections referring to those diseases.

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VACCINE AND SERUM THERAPY.—Von Szily and Sternberg treated forty cases of ophthalmia neonatorum by injection of typhoid vaccine. Twenty cases in which there had not previously existed any corneal lesion were aborted. Of twenty other cases which already had lesions of the cornea when the treatment was begun, four were completely cured or retained only a slight corneal scar, while the other six cases went on to perforation or panophthalmitis. In these six cases the corneal disturbance was already advanced at the commencement of treatment. The injections were given daily or every other day from one to six times in the respective cases. The vaccine treatment does not confer immunity on the healed eye, for in two cases an entirely new attack was observed in the same eye a short time after prompt abortion of the first attack. A general review of the experiences of various writers on this subject is given by **Andersen.**

RADIOTHERAPY.—Stimulated by the case report given a year or two ago by Axenfeld, **von Hippel** tried the effect of Roentgen radiation in a case of glioma of the retina. The patient was

a child of sixteen months. The right eye had been enucleated for advanced glioma. The left eye, examined under narcosis, showed a fairly extensive tumor development. For a few weeks treatment was attempted with injections of tumor serum. An extensive retinal detachment was then found to be present. During the first few months of treatment with the X-ray there was apparently a slowly progressive improvement in the condition of the eye, but this gave place to a rapid increase in the tumor growth, which led to enucleation. Fifty-three radiations in all were given, the treatment being forced on account of the unfavorable development of the case.

An account is also given of the use of the X-ray in a number of other tumor cases of a more superficial character, the nature of the growth and the character of the result being as follows: large round-celled sarcoma of the orbit, fatal outcome; sarcoma of the lower lid, cure; adenocarcinoma of the maxillary antrum involving the orbit, patient still living after two years but final outcome uncertain; carcinoma of the lower lid involving the orbit, treatment with Roentgen ray after exenteration of the orbit, one year elapsed without recurrence; carcinoma involving both eyelids over the region of the tear sac, cure; carcinoma of the lower lid involving the nose, failure to arrest, but treatment interrupted; epibulbar melanosarcoma, completely successful result as regards the tumor, temporary injury to the cornea; cornu cutaneum of the lower lid, complete cure; tuberculosis of the bulbar conjunctiva involving the lid margin, complete cure.

Light Therapy.—**Schanz** employs for local radiation of the eye the arc light of the projection lamp, which is filtered through dark blue glass, so that the greater number of the visible and of the extreme ultraviolet rays are excluded, avoiding appreciable dazzling, and obtaining a more complete action of the longer ultraviolet rays. According to Schanz the short-wave light of the arc lamp has probably a greater content of therapeutically active rays than the complete spectrum of the Nernst lamp. By the use of his method Schanz has obtained favorable therapeutic results in cases of tuberculous iritis.

Seidel has treated cases of tuberculous eye disease, especially of the iris, with direct sunlight. In order to apply the sunlight solely upon the diseased area, and to avoid damage to the retina by passage of the sun's rays through the pupil, he allows the sunlight to pass through a two millimeter hole in a card measuring ten by twelve centimeters, keeping the other eye covered. At first he used treatments of a half minute duration, later as long as two minutes, and when direct sunlight was obtainable the treatments were given daily. The method was used with good results in a number of severe tuberculous conditions (iritis with nodule formation, episcleritis, parenchymatous keratitis) in which the methods ordinarily employed had proved unsuccessful.

Heat Therapy.—**Gros** describes a contrivance for overcoming the usual difficulty in grasping the thermocautery sufficiently near to the point to render delicate manipulation possible. The rod with which the cautery point is connected slides through an inner tube, which is again fastened by wings to the inner side of a double brass tube, the space between the two layers of which is filled with a nonconducting material.

Electrotherapy.—**Stocker** tells of his successful employment of iontophoresis, especially with solutions of sulphat of zinc, in a considerable number of ocular conditions, but especially in corneal ulcer. **Speyer** uses preferably for this purpose a 0.5 percent solution of sulphat of zinc. Since cocain is disintegrated by the electric current, alypin is used for local anesthesia.

Massage.—**Jocqs,** writing upon the thesis that some treatments are only successful when employed with perseverance, particularly emphasizes the truth of this statement as applied to methods for the reduction of corneal leucoma. For this purpose he more usually employs a calomel salve or

powdered calomel, which should be applied either regularly in the clinic, or at home under exact instructions from the surgeon. He cites the case of a young boy who was unable to find his way around alone by reason of very dense opacities of both corneas; and who, having disappeared from view for twelve years, was found to have vision in each eye of 7-10ths. His mother had continued the treatment without interruption for ten years.

Collyria.—**Terson** extols the efficacy of salicylarsenat of mercury for a number of eye conditions, but more especially in the form of a three per cent neutral glycerin solution, for local application in beginning corneal infection, for infection following cataract operation, in subacute corneal infection, and in phagedenic ulcer of the cornea.

Subconjunctival Injections.—More or less successful use of subconjunctival injections of cyanid of mercury and dionin is reported by **MacWhinnie** in seven cases, of the following character: traumatic ulcer of the cornea, iridocyclitis, incipient cataract complicating tuberculosis of the choroid and retina, iridocyclitis, corneal ulcer, prolapse of the vitreous and ciliary processes after sclerocorneal puncture, and simple incipient cataract.

Mydriatics.—**Jackson** suggests the use of daturin, the alkaloid of datura stramonium or Jamestown weed, as a substitute for atropin during the persistence of the shortage caused by the war. The action of the drug on the eye is pretty much the same as that of hyoscyamin and duboisin, daturin possibly more nearly resembling atropin in its action than the other two drugs. The price of daturin has recently not been greater than that of atropin.

Antiseptics.—An epidemic of pneumococcus conjunctivitis developing in an orphanage was successfully handled by **Kudrnac** by the use of optochin. This drug was successful in a number of the early cases, in which no microscopic examination had been made, after the unsuccessful use of nitrat of silver, sulphat of zinc, and biborat of soda. The solutions employed were of two percent strength, used three times daily, or one percent applied four times daily. In the four cases of corneal ulcer treated by **Basterra y Santa Cruz** with optochin, a good deal of other treatment was used, including in each case extirpation of the lacrimal sac.

An interesting case of idiosyncrasy towards mercury is described by **Gjessing.** The patient was a pregnant woman of thirty-five years. The lacrimal sac was injected with a one to ten thousand solution of bichlorid of mercury. In the course of the next two or three days there occurred a marked swelling of the left eyelids, left cheek and left neck down to the clavicle. The patient had never shown any special sensibility to the usual articles of diet, but had always reacted excessively to even slight trauma of the skin.

In the two cases reported by **Metz,** Churchill's tincture of iodin, the iodin content of which is more than twice as great as that of the U. S. P. preparation, was accidentally squirted into the eye. From his experience with these two cases, and from a case found in the literature, Metz draws the conclusion that the irritant action of iodin upon the tissues of the eye is a very mild one, not proceeding beyond the production of a vascular reaction of the conjunctiva, and causing no corrosion of cauterization of the conjunctiva or cornea. As applied to the cornea in cases of corneal ulcer, therefore, the tincture of iodin is not to be relied upon for cauterization, but produces merely a feeble antiseptic effect.

Local Anesthetics.—**Sollman** found the application of various agents to the rabbit's cornea a satisfactory method for comparing their efficiency as surface anesthetics. On the cornea, cocain and holocain were the most efficient; then followed beta-eucain, and lastly, novocain (procain). The rapidity and duration of the action varied with the concentration. For just as effective concentrations the duration was shortest with cocain and tropacocain and longest with quinin and urea. Addition of sodium bicarbonat, one-quarter per cent, increased the efficiency of the anesthetics two to four

times, with the exception of quinin and urea, which was rendered less efficient. Addition of epinephrin, one in 20,000, failed to increase the efficiency.

SYSTEMIC REMEDIES.—**Dijakow** writes of the use of *mineral mud baths* in a number of cases of acute iritis and other internal inflammatory conditions of the eye, for the most part belonging to the class formerly spoken of as rheumatic. The benefit obtained from the local application of the mud was apparently chiefly that of a hot compress.

Maucione describes in detail a number of clinical observations of cases in which the various antisyphilitic remedies were employed for ocular conditions. He arrives at the following conclusions: Neosalvarsan, with proper precautions, may be employed in the treatment of all syphilitic manifestations in the eye and in its appendages, at any stage of the disease, without fearing accidents to the organism. The relapses which have been observed are due to new manifestations of syphilis and not to the remedy; as has been observed with greater frequency under treatment with mercury and iodid. Serious accidents following the use of neosalvarsan are for the most part due to errors of technic and to neglect of exact investigation of the condition of the kidneys.

Neosalvarsan certainly manifests a greater, more rapid, and more constant therapeutic action than mercury or iodin in the treatment of syphilitic disturbances of the eye, and should therefore be employed before the latter drugs in the treatment, as promptly as possible. Mercury and iodin should still be used as antisyphilitic remedies, but their action is more stable and more intense when they are combined with neosalvarsan.

In cases of increased ocular tension secondary to affections of the uvea, the beneficial action of neosalvarsan is definite and always more rapid than that of mercury and iodin. Neosalvarsan is to be preferred to salvarsan because of its easy solubility and on account of the simple technic of injection. On account of the pain which they produce, muscular injections, although as efficacious as intravenous, should be used only exceptionally.

Two cases are mentioned briefly by **Santos Fernandez** to illustrate the fact that mercurials at times cure cases which are not definitely diagnosed as syphilitic; this being explained on the ground that such cases are frequently specific in character, altho the history or laboratory tests have not revealed this fact. For use especially in cases of arthritis combined with syphilis involving the iris and sclera, **Bichon** recommends the use of *colloidal sulphur,* administered intramuscularly every day or every second day.

A review of the literature of the subject of treatment of the eye with preparations of the *ductless glands* is given by **Muncaster.** A section of **Darier's** compendium and repertory of ocular therapeutics, published serially in *La Clinique Ophtalmologique,* is devoted to the *arsenical preparations,* including atoxyl, salvarsan, neosalvarsan, and several others; and the methods of their introduction into the system. **Garcia Mansilla** has prepared an ophthalmologic *formulary* in which he classifies under fifteen heads the various drugs employed in ophthalmology.

OPERATIONS.

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DENVER.

This section of the Digest reviews the literature of 1918. Only general operative procedures are reviewed. All particular operations will be found under the headings of the portions of the eye on which they are practiced; or in connection with the diseases which render them necessary.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

LOCAL ANESTHESIA.—**Duverger** describes his methods of local anesthesia in orbito-ocular surgery. A 5 percent solution of cocain is used for instillation, and two solutions of novocain (procain). One is

Novocain	.....	.02
Adrenalin (1/1000)	.....	2 drops
Aqua distillata	.....	2.00

The other contains 4 times as much novocain (procain). The latter is used for orbital conditions where an edema is not desirable. A 2 cc. syringe and two needles, one 3 cm. and the other 4½ cm. long, are employed.

The needle is inserted in the skin 1 cm. beyond the external canthus. The point is pushed between the skin and conjunctiva toward the base of the lid as far as the inner extremity of the lid, using the syringe full. If the other lid is to be injected, the process is repeated below. The only contraindication is phlegmon of the orbit.

At 1½ cm. below the external canthus, the 3 cm. needle is plunged with a quick thrust to the bone, then directed upward, backward, and inward, toward the upper inner angle of the orbit. It passes between the bone and fornix, the internal and inferior recti along the sclera and crosses the optic nerve. A few drops of the solution may be injected during its passage, but most of the 2 cm. is injected in different directions at the posterior pole.

For deep anesthesia of the body of the muscle, puncture the lower lid at the orbital margin at its inner or external third. The needle is directed backward and upward in the direction of the muscle to 3 cm. and 1 cc. of the solution is injected. Anesthesia of the conjunctiva and tendon is secured by subconjunctival injection in the region of its insertion.

The 4½ cm. needle is inserted at the orbital margin just below the pulley of the superior oblique, and is passed backward along the bone. When fully inserted, 2 cc. of a 4 percent solution is injected. Then the 4½ cm. needle is inserted along the bone immediately above the external palpebral ligament and is pushed backward and inward in a horizontal plane along the bone to the depth of the length of the needle. The needle is inserted in the region of the infraorbital groove, and by moving the needle, the groove is found. One

cc. is injected. Infraorbital and external nasal anesthesia are the same, except that in the external nasal the 3 cm. needle is used. Anesthesia of the lacrimal gland is obtained by a single injection along the fronto-lacrimal nerve.

Instruments and Apparatus. — **Crossley** has a device to *immobilize the head* and eyelids during operations on the eyeball. The apparatus consists of two parts, the base and superstructure carrying the lid hooks. The base consists of a rectangular wooden block, 12 by 22 inches, lengthwise thru which is a long screw on which are mounted two strong metal uprights, one of which is stationary and the other movable. Attached to these are large pads which grasp the sides of the head as the one approaches the other. The superstructure is a metal frame which is attached to the uprights. On the cross-bars of the superstructure are mounted two sliding locks for fixing the lid hooks after the lids have been retracted. Between the two uprights is placed a circular pad which serves as a comfortable headrest. By means of clamps the apparatus is fixed firmly to the table on which the patient lies.

As a *substitute for a pipette* **Bamberger** cuts a large piece from a drainage tube about 8 or 10 cm. long and closes the upper end with a round piece of wood, or, what is still better, a small conical piece of cork.

Illumination.—**Maddox,** for illumination during discission of after-cataract, and for emergency night operations, attaches with wire a tiny electric lamp to one limb of the forceps, half an inch from the gripping end. An ordinary flash lamp furnishes the current. The bulb is so placed that it illuminates the iris brilliantly when the forceps are gripping the limbal conjunctiva, and the grip of the forceps insures a perfectly steady light and maintains its distance from the cornea.

The forceps are out of use during part of the operation. During this interval Maddox secures the advantages of close illumination in one of three ways: (1) An assistant holds the lamp on the same forceps. (2) The lamp is attached to a thin metal disc, fixed by adhesive plaster just above the patient's other eyebrow. (3) A lamp is fastened to a nose-piece clipped on the patient's nose.

Maddox finds the advantages of close illumination to be greater economy, greater portability, greater kindliness to the patient's eye, since a close light is diffused widely over his retina with no possibility of the image of the filament being thereon, and increase of the surgeon's visual acuteness.

Opticociliary Neurectomy.—**Axenfeld's** case was a young woman who had in her right eye a specific retinal choroidal process with vitreous hemorrhages and lowered tension, a high grade atrophy of the iris, and at the edge of the lens a white glistening cataract growing in extent, and with dilated pupil, quite noticeable. The eye was blind. Axenfeld concluded that it would be easier to leave the greatly reduced eyeball in the socket and place over it a shell prothesis, than to enucleate or eviscerate. As the cornea was normal with a normal reflex, he felt that an operative diminution of the contact sense was indicated. He performed a neurectomy, following the method of Müller of Wiesbaden. His result from a cosmetic and psychologic viewpoint was excellent.

Regarding the complication of a *retrobulbar hemorrhage,* he thinks that primarily it does not come from the central artery, but rather from the ciliary arteries and also the retrobulbar veins. His method to prevent hemorrhage is to inject several drops of novocain-adrenalin into the apex of the orbit and thus secure a deep anesthesia. With a fine long canula he bores down and out close to the orbital margin, thru the iodized lid tissue, slowly past the bulbus, 3 to 4 cm. deep. By observing the canula, he convinces himself that there is no hemorrhage, then injects a small amount of novocain-adrenalin, ⅓ cc., which is quickly absorbed. A large injection should be avoided, as it causes exophthalmos. Anesthesia is produced in 10 to 15 minutes, being helped by a drop of cocain in the conjunctival sac.

When the optic nerve is severed, one can quickly compress, and then turn, the eyeball and carry the operation quietly to completion. To be more sure after resection, a small orbital plate with ½% perhydral may be inserted and pressed against the wounded orbital tissues for several seconds. A further bettering of the technic upon which Axenfeld lays stress is the galvanic cauterization of the ciliary nerves in the sclera near the entrance of the optic nerve. There is naturally a regeneration of the ciliary nerves from the central stump, and in the course of time many a neurectomied eye becomes more or less irritable.

Pagenstecher also writes upon opticociliary neurectomy, and resection of the optic nerve. This operation is indicated in two groups of cases. The first group includes cases of absolute glaucoma with great pain. The second, those of total staphyloma where the staphylomatous formation has not advanced to the point of causing a great deformity. There is a third group of cases, where the danger of sympathetic inflammation could not be excluded, but enucleation is refused. In these cases a large piece of the optic nerve is resected.

Pagenstecher's method of operation is as follows: The conjunctiva is divided between the inferior and internal recti muscles about 1 cm. distant from the corneal limbus. The scissors then proceed into the deeper parts along the sclera. With a double hook introduced in the scleral tissue posterior to the equator in a meridian, which connects the corneal diameter with the optic nerve entrance, the eye is drawn upwards and outwards, keeping traction exactly in this meridian. This puts the optic nerve on a stretch, and with strong scissors curved on the flat, the optic nerve is divided well back of its insertion into the eyeball. Keeping up the traction with the hook, the optic nerve remaining attached to the eyeball is then brought forward on the flat of the scissors, until it appears in the wound. The optic nerve is then seized with a toothed forceps and the nerve divided close to the sclera. All of the ciliary nerves about the optic nerve entrance are then divided. The eyeball is allowed to return to its normal position and it is very important at this time to exercise strong pressure upon the eyeball to prevent a retrobulbar hemorrhage. The conjunctival wound is closed with one or two sutures and a firm pressure bandage applied. The after treatment is in duration about the same as in simple enucleation.

Ocular Osteoplasty.—**Zarzycki** following enucleation transplants an osteoperiosteal graft into the orbit in order to supply the artificial eye with a stump that moves synchronously with the other eye. The operation is done in three stages.

The first stage consists of enucleation and tamponing of the cavity until ready to receive the graft. The second stage consists in the removal of the osteoperiosteal graft from the upper third of the inner surface of the tibia and trimming it to the proper size and thickness, about 1 to 2 mm. In the third stage the graft is sutured with fine catgut to the conjunctiva, not including the periosteal surface. No drainage is made.

Zarzycki thinks that results as regard mobility are much better if musculo-conjunctival suture of the rectus muscle is done in the first stage. The artificial eye may be fixed after the fifteenth day.

Dressings.—**Santos Fernandez** thinks since he has known of unruly patients who removed the dressing on the day of the operation, and at the same time were cured, that dressings in eye operations are not necessary after the second day.

General papers on operative procedures have been written by **Wood** on technic of eye, ear, nose, and throat surgery; and **Macphail** on the importance of some minor operations. **Toussant** describes a portable instrument case for the army surgeon.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

REFRACTION.

THEODORE B. SCHNEIDEMAN, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA.

This section reviews the literature of 1918, referring to optics, refraction and accommodation of the eye, and the general subject of lenses and their practical use.

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of myopia in children does, in common experience, bear a direct relation to the number of hours during which their eyes are employed in near work —a relation doubted by the author of the hypothesis in question.

Wilson comments on this hypothesis by quoting his own investigations into the etiology of myopia. Of 1,500 consecutive cases, there were 922 females. At the age of puberty the percentage rises, and increases from this onwards, giving in his cases a ratio of 2 females to 1 male—a ratio suggesting sex limitations. He also finds that myopia is transmitted more frequently to daughters than to sons; it is much more prevalent among those who do no heavy work or take no violent exercise. Monocular myopia is also difficult of explanation on the hypothesis of binocular conditions. In buphthalmia the increased intraocular pressure causes the less resisting parts, the optic discs and the sclerocorneal junction to yield, but in myopia the more resisting parts yield and not the less.

Lewis in discussion put the following questions to Edridge-Green for explanation upon his hypothesis as to the cause of myopia: (1) Myopia in one eye and hyperopia in the other in an athlete. (2) The prevalence of myopia in Japanese and Chinese. (3) The fact that athletes as a rule have good eyesight, especially those engaged in boxing. Edridge-Green replied to question (1), that a weaker condition of the sclerotic of one eye is quite sufficient to account for myopia in one eye, just as hernia may occur on one side; (2) the prevalence of myopia in the Japanese is probably due to their wrestling, but the cases should be examined one by one. (3) He finds boxers as a class are very liable to become shortsighted. With Wilson he admits that heredity is an important factor, but only a factor in the sense that phthisis is hereditary; the strength of the sclerotic must vary with individuals, and a predisposition to give way under pressure is inherited. The statement that myopia is much more prevalent among those who do no heavy work, or take no violent exercise, is absolutely contrary to his experience, which covers a careful examination of some thousands of recruits.

Giri calls atention to Levinsohn's (See Y. B., Vol. XI, p. 444), experiments on apes, as supporting Edridge-Green's clinical observations, though the former's theory of myopia has a surer foundation than the latter's. It is difficult to conceive how there could be such increase of intraocular tension from lymphatic congestion as to produce elongation of the eyeball without producing symptoms of acute glaucoma or distension of the tough sclerotic coat, while the optic disc, as pointed out by Wilson, does not suffer. Commenting upon the discussion of his hypothesis by Giri, Edridge-Green points out that it is the parts where the greatest pressure is applied which give way. The conditions are quite different from those producing glaucoma. It is particularly those persons of poor physique and unaccustomed to certain forms of exercise that appear to suffer; slow and careful training would strengthen the eye. The anatomic arrangement of the lymphatics, arteries and veins of the eye appears to be such as to prevent, as far as possible, the effects of varying pressures, and make the eye a self regulating apparatus. The ophthalmic artery passes thru the optic foramen below the optic nerve, the ophthalmic vein thru the sphenoidal fissure. Any distension of the sheath of the optic nerve would press on the ophthalmic artery and diminish the amount of blood entering the eye.

Mottram publishes a case of myopia of —11 D. in a young athlete as confirmatory of Edridge-Green's explanation of the cause of myopia. He also refers to special structures intended to deal with increased intraocular pressure found in animals whose habits expose the eyes to such pressure. In hawks, owls, the gannet, birds which habitually look down when seeking their prey, strong bony plates are found in the sclera. In bats, which sleep head downwards, the retina is concertina shaped. In the whale,

which dives to great depths, the sclerotic coat is of remarkable thickness.

It is possible that the pecten may serve to regulate the quick changes in pressure which must occur in those animals which exhibit very rapid changes in orientation. It may be mentioned that the eye is by no means the only organ which cannot expand and contract with varying blood and lymphatic pressures, and that in such organ special regulating structures should likewise be found. In this connection attention may be drawn to the frequent passage of vessels thru bony and other resisting canals.

In reference to the above, **Kirk** observes that whatever be the foundation cause of myopia, there is a danger in attention being directed to one side only of the predisposing factor involved, and that not the vital one. He believes that the essential factor in the prevention of myopia is good health and sound physique, and avoidance of the various infections common to early life. He puts the question whether myopia is not more probably due to some chronic toxic absorption, which interferes with the proper development of the sclerotic.

In this connection he reports that of 300 agricultural laborers examined, he found only 1 case of axial myopia above 1 D., whereas of corresponding number of miners, laborers, etc., there were 18 such. He thinks that the essential cause of myopia is a postnatal maldevelopment of the sclerotic. He suggests that the cause of this may be a toxin resulting from the presence in the organism of the tubercle bacillus.

Blegvad tabulates the findings in 87 of 150 cases of adults with myopia, given correcting lenses before the age of 16. Of the 50 with full correction, the myopia had continued to progress in 76 per cent, with an average progression percentage of 0.44 D.; of the 37 not given full correction 70 per cent had progressed with an average of 0.33 D. He concludes that correction has no influence upon the progressive course of myopia. His researches confirm the opinion that the earlier the myopia develops the higher it is liable to be, and also that heredity and near work explain the prevalence of myopia.

A correspondent of the Lancet, Feb. 9, 1918, p. 240, writes that he became myopic about the age of 15, following a severe attack of measles complicated with severe conjunctivitis and blepharitis. He was ordered concave glasses which he has worn for the past 30 years, the degree of the myopia having remained about the same. He thinks that a case like this tends to substantiate Edridge-Green's hypothesis. The same writer has noticed a great deal of myopia in the uneducated classes who have never used their eyes much for near work; and, on the other hand, persons who do very fine work and yet do not develop myopia, are frequently encountered.

In an attempt to determine a visual efficiency of a myopic soldier **Wallace** has compiled a table showing the degree of visual acuity for different grades of myopia, basing it on 1,000 myopic eyes, excluding all cases in which there was an active or passive pathologic condition. All cases better than 6/18 were excluded, but in 5 vision was reduced to this extent by 1/2 D. myopia. On the other hand, 15 patients with 1.5 D. of myopia could read the same line, and one patient with 3.5 D. of myopia had 6/18 vision. Of those whose vision was reduced to 6/60 five had only 1.5 D., which three eyes showing equally good vision were between 10 and 12 D. myopic. The analysis brought to light the importance of the human factor which has to be reckoned with in such an investigation. The tests were made under constant illumination, but variations in the size of the pupils in different individuals do not seem to have been considered. **Masuda** has reported a statistical study of myopia in Japan.

Weiss raises the question whether myopia can be cured by exercises, as has been claimed. Inasmuch as this form of ametropia is dependent upon a faulty structure of the globe, it is obvious that the latter can not be modified by any exercises whatever. When near work is held too close to the eyes, excessive functioning of the accommo-

dation may simulate a myopia which recovers when near work is abandoned or the object removed to the proper distance.

Vision involves two related but essentially independent functions: retinal impression and cerebral perception. The impression is always the same for normal eyes, but the perception is improved by exercise,—a circumstance which explains the alleged improvement obtained in myopia, as by Ziegler, when the correcting lenses were left off. The results would actually have been better, if the exercises had been carried out with the correcting lenses. The writer recommends correcting lenses as the best treatment for myopes, whether in the army or in civil life.

Bardsley advocates bifocal lenses in myopia to permit near work to be done without accommodation, which, he thinks, is an advantage. On looking down thru the lower glass, in the ordinary bifocals, there is a considerable distortion of the image. To overcome this, the author angled his bifocals. They were made of separate pieces of glass slightly beveled against one another where the pieces met. He has also angled the circular bifocals, and to overcome the defect of bringing the edges of the upper and lower glass into continuous contact, he ground a toric curve on the upper lens, and a double concave or convex curve on the lower lens.

Anisometropia.—The binocular vision and power of judgment of depth of anisometropes have been studied by **Landwehr**. Of 14 patients with high anisometropia he found only two who could not wear the full correction. Age and freedom from amblyopia made the correcting glasses more annoying, and where one eye could see clearly at a distance and the other near they caused great inconvenience.

Krebs observed a case of myopia in a man of 42, with marked choroidal degeneration of both eyes. The right was the better eye until one year ago when metamorphopsia developed; soon afterwards the vision began to fail progressively, having fallen to fingers at one foot (eccentrically). There are numerous floating vitreous opacities, and in the macular region a large atrophic patch, with several smaller areas of choroiditis peripherally. Corrected vision of the left eye equalled 20/30; about two months ago metamorphopsia developed in this eye also; there are some floating vitreous opacities and three atrophic areas in the choroid near the disc. Several whitish streaks or reflexes traverse the macular region but the macula does not appear to be elevated. No cause for this condition could be discovered.

According to **Doyne** the continuous and excessive glare of the desert in Mesopotamia is particularly hard on eyes that have myopia or myopic astigmia of high degree. With or without glasses such myopes are of very little value in military service under these conditions.

Astigmia.—To simplify and secure uniformity for the notation of astigmia, **Bourgeois** proposes the use of a clock dial, divided into minutes and half-minutes. The direction of the meridians would be indicated as so many hours and minutes. Each half-minute division on such a scale would represent three degrees, the 120 half-minutes in the hour corresponding to the 360 degrees in the circle. For the right eye, the zero would begin on the nasal side at three o'clock, the temporal side being nine o'clock. For the left eye, three o'clock would be placed at the temporal side, and nine o'clock at the nasal. The graduation upon the trial frames would correspond to the lower half of a clock dial. However, it would not be necessary to change the graduation already supplied on the trial frames. Each fifteen degrees on the frames would correspond to two and one-half minutes on the clock dial, or each hour would correspond to thirty degrees. A table is given showing the equivalents in degrees of each division on the clock dial. By this system, a prescription for O. D. cyl. —1.25, ax. 3h., 1m., would correspond to cyl. —1.25, ax. 174°.

Jackson presents notes on 1,294 eyes (684 patients), each of which has been

remeasured after periods of from 5 to 17 years; ocular disease, injury and keratoconus are excluded. From these it appears that of the 31.2 per cent of eyes that showed a change 0.50 or more in the amount of their astigmia, 62.5 per cent changed in the direction of astigmia against the rule, 27 per cent showed a change with the rule and 10.5 per cent remained or became oblique. As regards distribution of these changes thru the different periods of life, these researches indicate that in early life, increase with the rule predominates; but as life advances, the tendency toward astigmia with the rule diminishes or the tendency toward astigmia against the rule increases: the latter was manifested by 77 per cent of the eyes examined during the last period of life, from 60 upwards.

As regards the cause of these changes in astigmia he concludes the variety of changes that may occur in astigmia points to the interplay of a number of factors yet to be studied.

Green and **Hardy** define astigmatism "with the rule" as including all cases of astigmatism with the meridian of greatest curvature at any point on the arc from 46 to 134 degrees; cases with the greatest curvature from 0 to 44 and from 136 to 80 are taken as examples of astigmatism against the rule. They find that the percentage of inverse astigmatism is larger than is generally surmised; females preponderate in the ratio of 2 to 1, a finding confirmed by others. Inverse astigmatism was not observed in children under 10 years of age. Many patients tolerate moderate inverse astigmatism up to the presbyopic age, when symptoms referable to the refractive error first manifest themselves. Inverse astigmatism is at times difficult of detection. Lancaster's charts have been of great value in the detection of low grades. No special symptomatology can be attached to this form of ametropia, the complaints being diverse and often indefinite.

Irregular Astigmia and Keratoconus.—The value of the stenopaic slit for war injured eyes with great irregularity of the cornea is urged by **Jahn.** He reports three cases in which, after vision had been brought up as much as possible by telescopic spectacles it was still further improved by use of the slit properly turned, in one case from 5/20 to 5/7. In another from 1/20 to 1/7, and in the third from 5/18 to 5/9.

In a case of keratoconus where vision was reduced to 1/60th, and not notably improved by strong concave lenses, **Wessely** used a contact glass which gave vision equal 1/4. The patient was able to wear this glass all day without complaint. How long this would last remained to be determined. **Von Hippel** has written on the management of keratoconus with Müller's contact glasses.

Accommodation.—Referring for further details to a paper presented at the meeting of the American Medical Association in 1916, **Howe** recalls that his accommodation ergograph consists practically of a horizontal bar on which are placed a set of the ordinary test letters photographed down so that they can be seen by a normal eye at small fractions of a meter. These test letters are attached to one end of a violin string, and to its other end a recording pin is fixed in such a way that each time the test letters approach the eye the string draws the pen up parallel to the axis of the drum, making a vertical line when the drum is stationary. But when the drum revolves, and at the same time the letters are successively approached and made to recede from the eyes, a series of waves are recorded on the drum. The line or curve connecting the apices of such waves on the drum constitute what is known in physiology as the "fatigue curve"—in this case the fatigue curve of accommodation. To understand their meaning, each tracing must be divided into its three component parts, namely, the initial, the medial, and the terminal portions of the muscular effort. I. By the initial contraction is meant not alone the first contraction, but the few which follow the first; these together are practically a part of the first effort which the muscle makes in the development of fatigue. 2. After the initial contractions, there follow a more or less well defined group which con-

stitute the body or principle part of the series of successive contractions. Usually these contractions are of gradually decreasing extent, each one a little shorter than the last; or those which may be prompt and regular at first become rather tardy and wavering later. 3. The terminal portion is usually a mere continuation of the second portion of the effort, but in exceptional cases, as in the weak type, the initial and medial portions of the contractions may be comparatively regular, but toward the end the muscles of the eye develop such a degree of fatigue that each succeeding contraction is far less than the preceding one. In general the initial contractions occupy about ⅛ to ¼ of all the contractions; the medial about ½, and the terminal the remainder. Donders' curve of the accommodation of the normal eye only relates to the ability to make a single act of accommodation. Study and measurement of the fatigue of accommodation shows about how often that effort can be repeated and about how rapidly fatigue developed in doing so. Such a fatigue curve is given in the paper above referred to.

In his present paper he gives a bird's eye view of a classification of these variations from the normal type of fatigue at a given age as follows: 1. The strong type, (a) strong thruout the entire effort; (b) strong contractions thru the first and second portions but not in the third; (c) strong contractions in the first part only. 2. The weak type (a) contractions not above normal in the first and second portions, but distinctly weak in the third; (b) contractions not above normal in the first, but distinctly weak in the second and third; (c) contractions below normal thruout. The tracings are frequently quite different for one eye alone from that shown when accommodation is accompanied with convergence; they also show that ametropia plays a considerable part in the development of fatigue. Fatigue of accommodation, as is to be expected, is usually associated with the tone of the general muscular system. The work outlined in this paper is interesting and suggestive and opens up problems which promise to bear fruit also in the practical work of the ophthalmologist.

Bates after briefly giving the usual view of Helmholtz that the accommodative power of the eye is due to a change in the curvature of the lens, claims that his own experiments demonstrate that the lens is not a factor in accommodation, but that the change of focus necessary for perfect vision at different distances is effected by a change in the length of the eyeball, brought about by the action of the muscles on the outside of the globe. Myopia is produced by a strain to see distant objects. Hyperopia is produced by a strain to see near objects.

Paton in writing upon functional spasm of accommodation, means the sudden development in one or both eyes of a high degree of apparent myopia which disappears under the influence of atropin. The spasm may be either continuous or clonic; or it may pass from a clonic to a continuous condition, and may be associated with spasm of the other ocular muscles. He reports a case in a young woman with low hyperopic refraction and occasional convergent strabismus in childhood. Later divergent strabismus of the left eye developed with diplopia, the refraction having changed to low myopic astigmia. Tenotomy of an external rectus was followed by homonymous diplopia. Some months later an apparent myopia, of 7 and 9 D, respectively, had developed in each eye which vanished almost entirely under atropin, to reappear as soon as the atropin was given up. She was seen by Landolt, whose opinion was, that as the spasm had followed the tenotomy of an externus, it must be in some way due to the interference with muscle balance produced by this tenotomy, and his suggestion was to advance the tenotomized muscle to its original position. Under the anesthetic, the visual axes were found to be parallel if not slightly divergent: the advancement caused a divergence of about 15 degrees. Her subsequent history is that her eyes vary from a condition of divergence with very little spasm to wild

convergence with spasm of 9 or 10 D. She will go on comfortably using the right eye for some weeks without spasm; but getting it at once on attempting to use the left eye, and then suddenly will find that the position is reversed when she can only use the left eye. In a second case, of a soldier who had suffered a slight concussion of the brain five months previously, there was marked spasm of convergence, blepharospasm and great limitation of visual fields. The refraction in each eye without atropin was—6 D; under full atropin he proved to be hypermetropic I D in each eye. Seven months subsequently all trace of spasm had gone. Visual fields normal and vision 6/6 in each eye without any glass.

In **White's** case, a woman aged 27 showed myopia apparently varying in the course of years from —3.50 to—9 D. Under atropin the refraction was practically emmetropic in each eye. There was a large variation in the condition of the external muscles, from low esophoria to alternating esotropia, depending upon the degree of cycloplegia. Neurologic examinations failed to disclose the cause. The treatment consisted in the continued use of cycloplegics with diverging exercises.

Joynt observed a case in which —2.50 and —3 spheres respectively without a cycloplegic improved the vision from 5/12 and 5/9 partly right and left to 5/6 partly in each eye. Under atropin +1.50 and +1.25 brought the vision to 5/6. The patient was a soldier whose eyes had been "gassed." The case is reported as an instance of spasm of accommodation.

Apparent Accommodation in Aphakia.—**Zentmayer** refers to the power of some aphakic eyes of seeing at various distances without a change of lenses. He reports a personal case in a girl of 8 years needled for acquired cataract resulting in a clear opening about two mm. long and 1 mm. wide surrounded by opaque lens matter. Through this opening she had 5/5 vision and read 0.5 metre type fluently to within 30 cm. of the cornea. Various opinions of investigators are appended to explain such a result: as it might be due to 1, corneal astigmatism; 2, increase in the index of the refractive media; 3, partial regeneration of the lens, the functioning elements being forced into the pupillary space through external muscle pressure; 4, cutting off the circles of diffusion by contraction of the pupil, by nipping of the lids, or by a stenopaic opening in the secondary cataract; 5, lengthening of the optic axis by contraction of the external muscles; 6, forward bulging of the anterior surface of the vitreous, or an increase in corneal curvature, from pressure of the external muscles; 7, spherical aberration (largely compensated for by the lens in the normal condition); 8, thru adjustment of the cataract lens.

Eye Strain.—Writing upon headaches as the result of eye-strain, **Dunn** raises the question what is essentially to be understood by headache. His answer is that headaches, inclusive of those due to injuries and to tumors, are a manifestation of increased intracranial tension. The position of the hypophysis and the fact that its posterior lobe secretion passes into the third ventricle, suggests that its role is in part to regulate the intracranial pressure. Following a discussion upon the mechanism concerned in maintaining normal intracranial pressure, he attempts to show that disturbance of the normal pressure upon the retinal ganglion cells causes reflexly a disturbance of the secreting activities of the posterior lobe of the hypophysis. If this continues long enough, reflex temporary exhaustion of the posterior lobe activities sets in, and with it, higher than normal intracranial pressure—the clinical symptom of which is headache. The frequent association of eye-ache after ciliary strain and headache have both the same explanation—hypertension. The original paper should be consulted.

Thompson remarks upon the desirability of recognizing what kinds of headache and other affections of the nervous system can be relieved by correction of ocular defects. Headaches due to eye-strain generally occur during or after close application to eye

work. If they are worse when the patient wakes up in the morning, they are probably not due to eye-strain. The commonest cause of eye-strain are hyperopia and astigmia; if low degrees of simple hypermetropia cause much trouble in young people, the general health is usually at fault, as in young women of a highly nervous temperament.

Low degrees of astigmia frequently cause headache, but this is by no means always the case. Myopia without astigmia when stationary, does not, as a rule, cause headache, but when progressive, it does, and must be treated not only by glasses but by rest of the eyes. The only error of muscle balance, which is often a primary cause of symptoms, is hyperphoria. Weakness of convergence, which may be relieved by prisms, base in, is generally associated with weakness of general health. The connection between serious diseases of the nervous system, such as chorea and epilepsy with eye-strain is too well attested to be doubted. The effort entailed by an uncorrected error of refraction may be just enough to upset the nervous equilibrium in some unstable individuals, in whom it might otherwise remain stable.

DesVoeux, in a lengthy paper upon eye-strain, concludes that this condition is very common among brain workers and town dwellers. It is produced especially by the minor errors of refraction, it being the quick intelligent educated eye that suffers. It is uncommon in the higher degrees, because the less a man can see, the less he strains. Eye-strain leads by slow degrees to definite nervous symptoms and breakdown—a condition which the writer terms "blepsopathia." The disease shows its first signs in childhood or youth when it is easily cured but with more difficulty in older age. It is useless to pay attention to the patient's report on his own eyesight.

The above statements are, of course, anything but new, they have, however, an added interest in that the writer states that having unaided groped his way, they represent first hand personal observations unbiased by the evidence of others, ample as this is.

Commenting upon DesVoeux's paper, **Wilson** writes that there is much in it which all ophthamic surgeons accept, and there is also much that should not pass without criticism. He presents a long series of symptoms and condition as resulting from eye-strain, e. g., headaches, panics, depression, indigestion, twitching, colitis, brain-stop, neurasthenia, etc., and states that observing things at close quarters and slight errors of refraction do the harm. But the fact must be recognized that whatever may be due to errors of refraction, inefficient accommodation. disturbance of muscle balance and their interrelations, there is behind all this a back ground of susceptibility, a varying quantity that is probably something more than temperamental.

In connection with DesVoeux's paper, **Cobbledick** thinks that the difficulty in explaining the meaning of eye-strain, the exact path of impulses to the sensoriomotor cerebral cortex, the condition of the sensory cortical cells which makes them abnormally respond to a summation of stimuli and the paths by which they expend their energy in conducting impulses to the periphery, are the chief causes of so much skepticism by those who have not had ample clinical proofs. He suggests that the prime seat of the trouble is in some abnormal condition of the cortical sensory cells of the sensoriomotor area, some change in their molecular composition making them react abnormally to unwelcome stimuli. He publishes a case of epilepsy in a female, aged 20, in which there had not been a single attack when last seen, 9 months after wearing +0.50 D cyl. right eye, +0.37 cy. left eye. A request that she should not wear her glasses for a month in order to see if the fits returned, met with a decided refusal. The secret of success in correcting refractive error under a cycloplegic is infinite exactness and patience, a gift not accorded unto all men; hence, the varying results.

Kahn writes upon pollakiuria, or excessive frequency of micturition, as a

functional disturbance due to eye-strain. He thinks that in a great percentage of cases, this condition, contrary to the general medical opinion, is a neurosis, brought about by malfunction of a distant organ, especially the eye, and that before surgical interference (except such as is required for reasons other than excessive frequency of urination) careful refraction should be made.

Clarke raises two questions: (1) What errors should be corrected; and (2) how should they be corrected. He lays down the dictum that all errors of refraction, even the smallest, should be corrected if symptoms are present. Among these, headache should not be treated before eliminating the influence of the eyes; and if headache, why not any other form of reflex irritation or nerve waste? If eye-strain is not the sole cause of the trouble; it often is a chief cause and when removed enables the further treatment to be successful.

He does not think that a large error uncorrected is so productive of symptoms of eye-strain as a small error, and that it is more important to correct an error when hyperopia is present than in the case of myopia, as pointed out by Donders 60 years ago. As showing the greater frequency of small errors than of large ones, this writer has tabulated the results of 500 consecutive refractions giving 1000 eyes: Of these 866 had astigmia: 542 under, 50 D, 192 between .50 and 1 D, and 132 I D, and over.

As regards treatment, he advocates cycloplegia, but does not think that a satisfactory cycloplegic exists, i. e., one not a mydriatic, but thoroly efficient and whose effects soon disappear. He uses atropin up to 20 years and homatropin between 20 and 40. As regards instruments for measuring astigmia he considers the latest model of Meyrowitz's ophthalmometer quite reliable, the readings of which tally with the patient's answers in 98% of the cases, and thinks it superior to retinoscopy in estimating low errors.

He advocates postcycloplegic examination to avoid blurring of the correction in hypermetropia, but no alteration should be made in the cylinder. He gives full correction in young myopes. In older patients with very high myopia, he deducts 3 D for general use but adds this amount in an overglass for accurate vision at a distance. He has found Crookés A glass of great benefit.

Presbyopes with astigmatism who have never been corrected before generally tolerate the correction, especially if given in the form of bifocals. He considers the latter invaluable when accurately adjusted, but worse than useless if they do not fit. He warns against having the reading portion too strong. He is certain that the refraction of the eye is constantly changing, and that a fresh examination should be made regularly. In young patients the error tends to disappear if properly corrected; on the other hand, as life advances, astigmia, previously absent, sometimes appears or tends to increase. Refraction work should never be done on a stereotyped plan; it has reached nearer an exact science than any other department of medicine, and if done conscientiously and carefully is more likely to benefit than tons of physic.

Green calls attention to persistent pain when using the eyes for near work; he details a number of cases, all presbyopes with hyperopic astigmia. He thinks there is always a background of physical or mental stress (often both) eventuating, finally, in some form of nervous instability. The painful irritability of the ciliary muscle may be the sole expression of the neurasthenic state, or it may be one symptom added to a multitude of other signs of nerve weakness. Where the background is neurasthenia due to a temporary physical state, or where the ciliary muscle is alone implicated, the prognosis is good, although the course may be protracted. Where the prognosis from the general neurologic standpoint is dubious, it is not likely that the disordered ocular function can be restored to normal.

General Papers.—**Elliot's** opening address upon Errors of Refraction at

the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress July, 1917, suggests certain leading points for discussion. These are especially the use of cycloplegics, spasm of the accommodation, anomalous contraction of the ciliary muscle. The question whether the physical changes which manifest themselves as astigmia ever really develop as life advances, the use of low power spheres and cylinders, the resemblance of defects in refraction in the parents and their offspring, treatment of myopia in the young, tests for heterophoria, instruments in the estimation of refraction such as refractometers, retinoscopes (he praises highly the electric retinoscope with a single line of light), astigmometers (ophthalmometer), are all commented upon.

Variations in the width between the pupils and in the relations of the visual axes to the position of the correcting lenses produced by varying degrees of convergence are discussed by **Lauber,** who published a table giving these variations for every half millimeter of width between the pupils from 50 to 80 mm. and from fixation at 4 meters to fixation at 25 cm.

Klughardt gives a history of glasses for divers lenses used under water instead of in the air.

Champlin discusses the advisability of the general practitioner taking up refraction work; the matter is treated largely from the financial standpoint. His argument is rather against the attempt for a number of reasons, such as the difficulty of acquiring adequate preparation for satisfactory work, the time required to do justice to each case, the many annoyances connected with the patients' complaints of the result, both reasonable and unreasonable, the necessary office equipment, etc. On the other hand, in communities where the jeweler or traveling fakir is the only resource, it may be a worthy enterprise on the part of the practitioner to take the matter out of the hands of the incompetent and the unscrupulous. The question of furnishing glasses is also considered and a number of timely remarks upon the mechanical, artistic, and commercial aspects are added. On the whole, he advises the man who has sufficient general practice not to dabble in refraction unless he is preparing to make the eye an exclusive specialty. He concludes with the sensible advice, "Don't be a second rate refractionist." **Emerson** writes on the duty of the family physicians to patients suffering from headache and eye-strain.

Champlin also writes upon some less well known effects of correcting glasses for the benefit particularly of the general practitioner. He refers to the temporary blurring which the full correction may cause in hyperopia, and in which the vision may be good without a correction, when the latter is nevertheless required to relieve eyestrain and attendant symptoms. These are the cases in which the fakir is particularly liable to take and receive credit for improving the vision by reducing the strength of the convex lenses which are properly required as shown by measurement of the refraction under a cycloplegic. Astigmia and muscular imbalance is referred to and the advantages of tinted lenses in suitable cases. He calls attention to the desirability for an expert examination by an oculist of all children at 6 years of age, even tho there may be no indication for glasses. The remote effects of eyestrain are alluded to and the general advantage of cooperation on the part of the family physician and oculist.

Based upon an examination of the refraction of 700 school children of Los Angeles, Cal., between the ages of 6 and 12, **McClelland** concludes that about 98% of all children between the ages of 6 and 12 who suffer from optical defects in that climate are hyperopic, and the larger the degree the greater the resulting reflex irritation. More attention should be paid to the effect of the bright light of that climate upon the eyes of children. Simple forms of myopia which should be carefully differentiated from ciliary spasm, are possibly more common than is usually supposed, since they seldom give any reflex symptoms unless associated with a large pupil or light colored iris. Most cases of constant monocular

squint lose the power of binocular vision before the 6th year. A diffused image from one eye, such as may be caused by a scar, when associated with binocular vision, should be fogged out, if the proper correction can not be made or determined. He thinks that retinoscopy under a mydriatic while convenient is misleading, for the reason that optical defects increase toward the periphery of the dilated pupil, whereas the dynamic method gives most exact results if used with a strong light of about 80 candlepower under which the contracted pupil shuts out the confusing area.

Landolt raises the question whether Donders' curve for the punctum remotum is as unvarying as is often stated. This curve shows graphically that up to age of 55 the static refraction remains unchanged, but from then on begins to diminish so that at 80 the refraction has lost 2½ D. The familiar fact of "second sight" demonstrates that the refraction may increase instead of diminish. To what is such a change due? Undoubtedly to an increase in the index of refraction of the crystalline lens as an accompaniment to a modification of its structure in advanced years — a change which frequently terminates in opacities.

These alterations of the lens are frequently accompanied by a more or less colored halo which appears to such eyes surrounding lights; a remarkable circumstance as regards this appearance is that the halo is not seen around all lights indiscriminately, but solely about such as are situated at a certain definite distance. Thus the halo will be visible around a certain gaslight, but not about those nearer or further off. It, hence, appears that a colored circle around a light may be due to other causes than glaucoma (a simple conjunctivitis may occasion it).

The halo in question is due undoubtedly to the dispersion which the luminous rays undergo in the equatorial region of the crystalline: it is not seen with a pin hole disc. An analagous dispersion of the light occasionally takes place in the substance of the lens: such patients complain of great annoyances from a bright light appearing suddenly either alongside of a dark surface or upon the surface itself. Increase in the refraction above referred to from augmentation of the refractive power of the lens and not from increased length of axis, gives a smaller retinal image with consequent diminution in the visual acuity; this can be readily verified by placing a concave lens before the eye of a young emmetrope; the accommodation necessary to overcome the lens results in a temporary myopia comparable to that of the acquired form in the aged; hence, a diminution of visual acuity under these circumstances is no indication of a true loss of physiologic acuity. It may be, hence, concluded, that if Donders' law that the accommodation diminishes with age is constant his law regarding the static refraction admits of exceptions: instead of diminishing, it may augment and, *a fortiori*, remain stationary.

Writing of the unique medical problems involving the aviator, **Wilmer** calls attention to the sudden change in an unaccustomed environment—changes too sudden for adaptive adjustments to occur. These changes involve temperature, barometric pressure, muscular and mental exertion, from ground to labile equilibrium, from normal sea-level oxygen tension to a tension much decreased. At the Medical Research Laboratory, the conditions of lowered oxygen tension are produced artificially.

Tests by such apparatus strongly indicate that the physiologic changes noted in the aviator are due to want of oxygen and not to lessened atmospheric pressure—further proof of which is shown by the fact that the administration of oxygen causes a quick return to the normal. Pilots frequently report that vision is blurred during flight. In testing this function under low oxygen conditions, no very marked change in the visual acuity was found. Great variations have been due to the falling off in the power of muscular adjustment—a fact which explains the deterioration in hyperopes from weakening of the ciliary muscle.

Wells calls attention to the possibility of the lens turning in the frame in the case of round lenses now so popular with resulting displacement of the axis in the case of cylindrical or sphero-cylindrical lenses. To obviate such a possibility he suggests melting a bit of soft solder into the hollow wire at the bridge end and filing the notch for it. The drop of solder can be used in the Windsor frame also, either by removing the celluloid rim, or without doing so, if the solder be applied by means of a copper wire used like a soldering iron. It was also suggested that if the arm of the bridge was made to straddle the eyewire, the groove would be filled up at that point and necessitate filing a notch in the lens. Incidentally this would strengthen the frame at its weakest point. The arm of the bridge could be braised to the inside of the eyewire. To this the manufacturers objected as being "a not very practical manufacturing proposition" and recommended the drop of solder.

OCULAR MOVEMENTS.

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This section reviews the literature of 1918 referring to ocular movements and their disorders.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY. — Neal traces the origin of the eye muscles phylogenetically as far back as it is possible to do so, viz., to the origin of the mesoderm itself. The study is made thru the embryologic and larval stages of lower forms. The eye muscles are the only survivors of the parietal muscles anterior to the ear, being a remnant of the lateral trunk muscles such as extended thru the entire length of the ancestors of vertebrates. They become distinct with the evolution of the otic capsules and other cranial skeleton.

Thru the study of amphioxus and the later elasmobranchs, the changes are traced. First the three anterior myotomes, then the splitting up into dorsal and ventral moities, then the further displacement coinciding with the optic and otic vesicles leading to two sets of muscles. From the first myotome come the four muscles innervated by the oculomotor nerve; from the dorsal portion of the second comes the superior oblique, whilst the ventral portion fuses with the ventral portion of a third myotone, forming the externus. The dor-

sal portion of the third myotome and other branches disappear. **Wells,** in demonstrating the use of the phoro-optometer stereoscope, made some improvements in technic. He employs a stereoscope arranged for each individual and uses plus 5.25 lens with chart at 19 cm. He uses a modification of the B3 card, with heavier lines. Lloyd's Slate is a combination of Haitz and Bissel Charts, and suffices for both purposes. "The stereoscope is now ideal for mapping a central scotoma, and at the same time it has been demonstrated that the patient has binocular vision sufficient for the test." He also publishes a discussion of the distinction between degree and prism diopter, the stereoscopic tangent of 1 degree; points from which to measure radius and the nodal point.

Franklin points out the differing significance of the stereoscopic and perspective vision, and indicates the numerous factors that enter into perfect binocular vision. He also suggests the experiment of reversing the position of the two pictures viewed thru the stereoscope. This experiment should be tried in order to appreciate the important points brought out in this paper.

Vagliasindi has written a paper on the general pathology and physiology of binocular diplopia and the external projection of images. **Pikler** has made some studies of binocular movements, employing moving picture films, and describes them under the heading: Kinematography of Binocular Movements and Doubled and Simplified Kinematography. **Kunz** and **Ohm** describe their method of taking moving pictures to record the ocular movements; and give in graphs and charts the results they have obtained with them. **Witmer** has published his method of studying nystagmus by photography, with examples of the tracings thus obtained.

Zimmermann gives a survey of the physiologic typical associated movements of the eyes and lids, and of physiologic atypical, and pathologic, concomitant movements in general. It discusses the paradoxic movements of the upper lid with mastication and suction, with report of an illustrative case, presenting the different views of explanation of these phenomena, with consideration of anatomic and physiologic researches and clinical observations.

Landolt has again outlined his ideas on the physiology of binocular vision.

The Eye and Flying Ability.—**Parsons** and **Segar,** whose paper was discussed by Lewis, Pike, Chapman and Langdon, have treated exhaustively the subject of Barany's tests and flying ability. Parsons and Segar came to the conclusion that use of the tests pointed to an absence of correlation between the equilibrium tests as established in the Barany chair and actual flying ability. Lewis and Pike undertook to controvert this statement and criticised the evidence presented by Parsons and Segar, and they claim "it is not impossible that this correlation study was intended as a psychologic research, in which case it would have been wise to make clear that such was the intention; and to publish it thru the medium of a journal, the readers of which are psychologists, and hence capable of recognizing psychologic research and placing proper construction on it. It appears from the paper of Parsons and Segar that not all subjects examined have proved to be able to avail themselves of all the incoming special informations with equal facility; but it is not clear how it has been shown that the vestibular findings are specially involved. Until this has been pointed out, the relevance of their article is difficult to conceive."

Langdon further discusses this question, and states that the ocular requirements for aviation were placed at as high a level as possible; that a pair of perfect eyes was demanded, and that the phrase "a pair of perfect eyes" might be transposed to "a perfect pair of eyes," for not only were the various functions of each eye to be considered with the greatest care, but the relations of the eyes to each other. The standard of visual acuity was fixed at 100 per cent and no myopia of 0.25 nor hyperopia over 2.00. As to the muscu-

lar balance hyperopia of 1 degree was allowed, and a deviation in the horizontal balance of 2 degrees. If the deviation was over 4 degrees, the candidates were not passed.

Chapman entered into the controversy, claiming that there is a certain something which has not been covered, namely, "a certain sense of direction as well as equibration, of which some individuals are more possessed than others, and which is susceptible to a high state of cultivation, and that we may find by a study of birds a "center for aviation."

Parsons and Segar, replying to the criticism of Lewis and Pike, have tabulated the results of tests of 50 aviators for nystagmus, the details of which are given, and they quote Professor Dodge of Wesleyan University, who says: "The rounds of my scientific conviction that the nystagmus test does not indicate fitness to fly are both practical and theoretic. It seems incomprehensible to a psychologist that these fallacious sensory data, which are really worse than useless to a flier, should have been selected as a test of his ability to fly. It almost seems like a joke of the enemy physiologists to hinder our air service. I believe that it should be abolished as a test, since, while the results are scientifically interesting, they have no practical value in indicating fitness to fly."

Jones and **Langdon** in the study of the relation between eye and ear, as shown by the Barany tests, have reached conclusions as to the relations of the nerve pathways to semicircular canals, distinguishing between those fibers which pass thru Deiter's nucleus direct to the muscle nuclei and concerned in nystagmus, and those passing thru the cerebellum and cerebral tracts and held responsible for vertigo.

Murray has written on the same subject, reviewing the tests commonly employed, whilst **Scruton** has made a similar outline of tests, and **Lyster** discusses the aviation service of the medical department of the army, as it has been developed under his leadership.

This series of papers must be read to be appreciated. **Wilmer** states tests at the laboratory show that the field for the accurate perception of motion direction is usually about 3 degrees less in all quadrants than the field for form as usually taken. Stereoscopic vision does not suffer any very serious impairment in oxygen deprivation. The serious ocular disturbances produced in the peculiar environment of the airman take place in the intrinsic and extrinsic muscular apparatus leading to falling off in the power of accommodation, convergence, and, naturally in the field of binocular fixation.

Lemere, feels that the results of testing thousand of young men for the Service should prove of great value and bearing upon the physiology of the canals and their reactions in eye movements; also that as the result of the tests so far, the following conclusions seem justified: "There is a direct relationship between stimulation of the following canals and the action of the following muscles: The superior canals and the superior and inferior recti; the horizontal canals and the internal and external recti, and the inferior canals and the obliques. Also, the horizontal canals are stimulated by the movements of the head nearly in a horizontal plane, the superior in a longitudinal plane, and the inferior in a transverse plane. The erroneous conception of the positions of these canals should be corrected, and they should be called horizontal, longitudinal, and transverse respectively."

Apparatus.—**Remy, Cantonnet, Valby** and **Blum** have written on the diploscope. **Cantonnet** also expatiates on the information in respect to the condition of binocular vision that can be obtained by the device of looking with one eye thru a rolled up paper forming a tube about 10 inches long, holding the open hand against the tube near its outer end. The image seen thru the tube gets crossed with the image of the hand, and the result is that what is seen thru the tube seems to be seen thru a hole in the hand when binocular vision is normal. **Ohm** has designed a registering apparatus for horizontal

eyelid movements. **Onishi** has described a new type of stereoscope.

Diagnosis. — **Guthrie** considers that nystagmus has diagnostic value as a symptom, and suggests its careful study. He values "only those ocular movements characterized by regular, quick, short movements of two components, a quick and a slow, oscillating about a central point with the eyes directed in a natural forward or primary position."

"There are two types: a physiologic and a pathologic. Physiologic nystagmus is never spontaneous, being manifest only after some artificial irritation of the vestibular apparatus."

"The true nystagmus may be hereditary, congenital or acquired. The hereditary and congenital forms are rare and are only mentioned in order that we may not forget them as etiologic factors."

"Probably the most frequent cause for nystagmus is to be found in pathologic conditions of the labyrinth, and the vestibular nerve, together with its brain connections. It is here that the different types of nystagmus and the various tests are of special value in making a differential diagnosis."

The influence of various diseases and tumors is considered, and their interpretation evaluated. **Heitger** considers the diagnosis of vertigo by the application of the newer ear tests. This paper has not much to do with ocular movements.

Phorias.—**Suffa,** has a contribution on Convergence Insufficiency. **Wells,** has treated 236 cases of exophoria and convergence by fusion training, and reports his results.

Tropias.—**Ribas Valero** has written on the conversion of the binocular vision of strabismus into normal binocular vision chiefly by use of the stereoscope, diploscope and similar instruments. **Simpson** considers the etiology of squint from the usual standpoints. He first defines and classifies the varieties of squint. He states that there is no such thing as congenital squint. He describes the three most plausible theories of causation, viz.: (a) The theory of muscular shortening, insufficiency, or imbalance; (b) the so-called accommodation theory of Donders, which also includes disturbed innervation; and (c) the fusion theory of Worth. The first theory is a fallacy, and the third explains only a few cases of squint. In the author's opinion the greatest number of cases may be explained by the second theory, or the so-called accommodation theory of Donders. Cases which cannot be explained by either (b) or (c) he calls "idiopathic squint."

Gardiner's paper is addressed principally to the general practitioner, and discusses concomitant convergent squint. He has nothing new to present either on etiology or treatment. Operative measures are not included in the scope of the paper.

Bonner believes that hyperopia is a cause of esotropia, basing his conclusions upon finding the two associated.

Mann offers another plea for early correction of squint, and **Pockley** has reported an illustrative case.

Hume finds that the strabismic child is neglected and regrets it because the early treatment is so valuable. He has had of late a series of cases first examined after 10 years of age, most of whom had been advised to wait till that age for correction, without realization of the fact that so much may be done in the earlier years. Hume believes that up to the sixth month of life the motor coördination power keeps the eyes parallel; then the fusion power begins to develop, being complete at the end of the sixth year. If the vision is equal in the two eyes and the extraocular muscles are properly innervated and developed, binocular vision comes and parallelism remains. Thus, between the sixth month and the sixth year is the period for observation and treatment of tendencies away from parallelism.

This treatment covers the usual refraction, training and general health measures. Without this early cure, operation after years results in only cosmetic and not visual betterment. The remedy is education of parents, thru their physicians and thru women's clubs and public discussions. **Busen** has written on convergent strabismus,

observed in the Giessen Clinic, from 1904 to 1914.

Pischel employs "training of fixation" as well as fusion in strabismus. **Marquez** reports cures of strabismus by training. He cites a case of failure from operative procedure, subsequently cured by training; but does not say what was done in the way of exercises.

Rivers, as one of three clinical studies in predisposition to tuberculosis, found 6 cases of squint in 500 cases examined, or 1.2 per cent. Later there are studied 900 controls with a finding of 4 cases or .4 per cent; or 2 or 3 times as frequent in tuberculosis as in normals. He says that squint appears to be sometimes a mark of mental deficiency or a tendency, personal or familial, to certain bodily anomalies or malformations. It probably instances the presence of predisposition to tubercle (clinical pulmonary tubercle), without itself forming an active constituent of a phthisical diathesis. He finally concludes "that according to his findings on his evidence there is undoubted association between concomitant strabismus and consumption, of predisposition to which latter disease, squint forms a sign. **Ochi** has a paper in Japanese on ocular muscles in his people.

Loeb "gives a tabular report of 29 cases of convergent strabismus, showing the results obtained by non-operative treatment (atropin and glasses), with a series of cases of hereditary strabismus. He refers to the frequent failure of operations. **Wells** has a discussion of the question of "The Best Way to Straighten Cross Eyes"—a plea for tabulation of types, deviation, age, refraction, operation done, and early and late results; i. e., a uniform schedule by which the whole question may be better solved.

Neeper discusses divergent squint, presenting nothing new, and **Smith** takes up the routine treatment of squint. **Von der Heydt's** paper and the discussion of it has been well covered by the abstract in the A. J. O. v. 1. p. 63.

Moore, reaches the following conclusions as to amblyopia ex anopsia: "First—The confusion of terms is useless. It is harmful to permit a continuance of this misconception of terms because it militates against scientific ophthalmology.

Second—The original Greek conception of amblyopia was a dull eye. There was no reference to the cause.

Third—Because of the wide prevalence of this confusion I have added the qualifying phrase "ex anopsia" in order that my intention may be fully comprehended.

Fourth—Amblyopia ex anopsia is not a rare condition. It is not limited to any class of society. It includes all cases of lowered visual acuity, irrespective of the degree of ametropia or anismetropia, provided this lowering of vision is due to nonuse of the eye or eyes.

Fifth—There is no pathology.

Sixth—The results of the scientific correction of amblyopia ex anopsia is pleasing and most gratifying.

Fernandez has had some experience with Reese's operation for squint, and thinks well of it. He was successful in 12 cases.

Landolt has added to his numerous contributions a paper on the subject of muscular advancement, and one on tenotomy. Both of these are more or less reviews of his previously expressed views. **Terrien** writes in favor of muscular advancement with suture.

Worth again discusses his advancement operation; and **Briggs,** his previously described operation by clamping, with some additional confirming experience.

Williams has had some experience with what he calls Harman's reefing advancement and jig saw operation. This operation, it should be remembered, originated with the late Frank C. Todd.

Lancaster has a satisfactory operation for muscle shortening or advancement, the cardinal features of which are, (1) an incision parallel with the middle line of the tendon from near the cornea toward the canthus; (2) retracting the conjunctival tissue which

overlies the tendon; (3) raising and incising the capsule of Tenon above, passing the hook across underneath, and coming out thru an opening below; (4) using this and another hook to isolate the tendon over the desired length; (5) introducing a whipstitch into the distal extremity of the bared tendon and a security stitch at the proximal end; (6) cutting out a section of tendon between the stitches; (7) approximating the cut ends by a special stitch; (8) tying all knots on the surface of the replaced conjunctiva, approximating the conjunctival slit. The illustrations must be seen for clear understanding. (See A. J. O., v. 1, p. 161.)

O'Connor has written an open letter criticising Loeb because of his contention that operative treatment of strabismus was so often a failure. He thinks that the advocates of correct operative work can show better results of operation than Loeb quotes. O'Connor does not feel that it is customary for anyone to operate without first trying other measures, but that is no argument against employing operation in proper cases.

Woodruff's paper and the discussion thereon, which was a part of a symposium on strabismus before the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, is well abstracted in the Society report, A. J. O., v. 1, p. 576.

Wyler has operated successfully for congenital left abducens paralysis on a babe of 11 months. He tenotomized the left internus and anchored the globe to the temple for three days. The rest was accomplished by exercise.

Nystagmus. — Dunn, speaks of the vestibular trinity in an extensive article on "some phases of the vestibular nerve problem," and indulges in theories as to the functions and workings "of these elements of the vestibular syndrome." There is no evidence that the cerebellum originates movements, but it "so regulates the muscular control of the spinal cord and of the various joints of the extremities as to make possible the exact performance of any desired, i. e., willed movement or movements." . . . "Developments of the vestibular imposed upon the cerebellum a further intricacy of details that exact correlation of the movements of the head, of the ocular muscles, and of the endolymph of the semicircular canals might exist." **De Kleijn** and **Leeuwen** have studied the nature and phenomena of caloric nystagmus by means of experiments on the cat and dog.

Aubineau and **Lenoble** distinguish between (1) nystagmus of ocular origin—that originates from defects of vision, miners' nystagmus, etc., which is undulating, appearing with direct and disappearing in lateral vision, as represented in tic or professional cramp, and (2) that from the labyrinth, and (3) the variety arising from nerve centers, as in lesions of the tubercula quadrigemina and restiform bodies, maladies like Fredreich's ataxia and cerebellum attacks. Hysteric nystagmus may also be in this group. Myoclonic nystagmus does not originate in the labyrinth. A case of *voluntary nystagmus* is reported by **Gowland** with a discussion of its mechanism.

Geller and **Ohm** have reported a case of cerebral nystagmus in a soldier with measurements of the ocular movements, and discussion of its nature. Such nystagmus is closely connected to the voluntary innervation of the eye muscles thru the center in the cerebral cortex. It may be congenital, occupational, or symptomatic.

Herrman reviews the history of headshaking with nystagmus in infants which was observed first in 1850. In 1911 the condition was produced experimentally in dogs by Raudnitz, who emphasized the importance of darkness in etiology. Females are slightly more affected (62 males against 71 females); 70 per cent of all cases are evidenced in the winter months, and the association of dark days in these months in Scotland is noticed. Seventy-five per cent occurred between the fourth and twelfth year.

The various other causes are considered, most of which are lowered vitality.

The association of headshaking with nystagmus seems to point to close association of central nuclei covering

these two movements. All patients recover.

The elaborate studies of **Ohm** upon miners' nystagmus are brought to the practical conclusion that it depends chiefly on inferior illumination, often due to the employment of the safety lamp, and that the ideal miner's lamp would be an electric globe. He has also studied nystagmus not of occupational origin, and reports photographic measurements of the movements. Such nystagmus not associated with poor vision he connects with the influence of the labyrinth upon the ocular movements.

Rochat discussed the quick phase of spontaneous nystagmus for the Netherlands Ophthalmologic Society. (See A. J. O., v. 1, p. 432.)

Struycken obtains a record of the movements of the eye by photography, using a delicate wire tripod that fits over the eyeball. This shows on the film drum the various types of the nystagmus, horizontal, vertical, undulating, rotary, circular, etc.

Swan and **Lake** publish a valuable contribution on the examination of 110 individuals with regard to time and duration of nystagmus in caloric test.

Van Der Hoeve, has analyzed 8 cases of latent nystagmus, in all of which nystagmus appears when one eye is excluded from binocular vision by various means. The nystagmus is always binocular, has always its quick phase toward the side of the fixing eye, is always of the same rapidity in both eyes, but can differ according to the eye which is excluded. The vision diminishes strongly thru the nystagmus. but amounts in these cases to 7, 5, 5, 3, 3, 5, 2 and 1, 5 times better than the monocular vision respectively. If the bulb is held, the vision directly improves, which demonstrates that the nystagmus is the cause of the diminution of binocular vision.

Four of the patients have manifest, one a latent strabismus, and three none; the visual field was normal for all; five suffered with choroiditis, only one had normal eyes, altho his vision was only ½. The static and auditory organs were normal in most; 2 have a conduction deafness, only one labyrinthine deafness; so that it does not seem that changes in the aural organ play a role in latent nystagmus.

The Wassermann was in 2 cases dubious, in 2 cases negative; in the other 4 the reaction was not made, altho there was no indication of lues. It is, therefore, improbable that lues plays a primary role in the etiology of this affection. In the neurologic clinic no symptoms of nervous diseases could be discovered. Heredity could not be demonstrated; not a single definite cause could be found.

The following hypothesis seems to the author to offer a good explanation of the observed facts: The influence which the retinal excitations exert on the coördination centers of the associated ocular movements is such that the stimulus proceeding from the left retina tries to deviate the eyes toward the right while the retinal stimulus from the right eye on the center tries to produce a deviation toward the left. The primary deviation in patients with latent nystagmus is a labile equilibrium of the coördination center of the associated ocular movements.

Latent nystagmus is a serious condition, because it makes impossible all trades requiring binocular vision. It is to the credit of **C. & H. Fromaget** to have called attention to this important condition.

Van der Hoeve and **de Kleijn** have studied the influence of the tonic labyrinth reflex upon the position and movements of the eyes, by experiments on the rabbit.

In an article on symptoms of acute cerebellum injuries, a very comprehensive discussion by **Holmes,** a paragraph is devoted to disturbances of ocular movements and nystagmus. He says: "For some days after a unilateral gunshot wound of the cerebellum the eyes while at rest are generally deviated towards the opposite side, especially if the patient happens to be unconscious, and at first it is often difficult to make him move them conjugately towards the injured side. When he attempts this, the range of movement is occasionally incomplete, but usually a more

striking feature is its slowness and the effort necessary to execute it. In one patient at least in whom it was carefully investigated this conjugate paresis was associated with erroneous projection towards the homolateral side. The paresis diminishes gradually but the difficulty in movement to this side, in comparison with deviation in the opposite direction, frequently persists for weeks. The vertical movements of the eyes and convergence are never similarly affected.

"In five cases the position known as 'skew-deviation' was observed; that is, the homolateral eye was directed downwards and inwards while the other looked upwards and outwards. Nystagmus is less constant and less regular on vertical movements. Finally, on convergence both eyes often tend to deviate away from the side of the lesion and are brought back to their proper position by irregular jerks of small range. The nystagmus also tends to become less regular and less rapid as fixation tires, but it can be evoked again by renewal of fixation, especially if the object is moved slightly farther from the middle line. This is the characteristic form of nystagmus produced by recent cerebellar injuries, but divergences from it are common.

"Nystagmus of cerebellar origin is therefore characterized by the facts that it occurs chiefly on fixation, that the slow phase is always towards the primary central position or the 'rest point,' and that it is more constant, more regular, better sustained, and the oscillations of the eyeballs are slower in rate but larger in amplitude, when the patient looks towards his injured side."

Argañaraz's comprehensive study of the different forms of nystagmus is illustrated, including his description of his modification of Buys' nystagmometer. The movements of each eye are recorded separately on a moving drum. He describes other methods of recording the nystagmic movements, with experiments on rabbits, specifying the different forms of nystagmus, and citing considerable literature on the subject.

Bard explains how the loss of the gyratory reflexes on the paralyzed side induces an automatic predominance of the gyrations in a determined direction, a sensorial hemiagyria, as he calls it. He also discusses the nystagmus and other phenomena induced by placing on the temples the electrodes from a battery. The differences between the phenomena thus induced and those from thermic stimulation of the labyrinth throw light on the mechanism of the nystagmus, etc., under these conditions, as he explains in detail. The results from the two methods usefully supplement each other.

VERTIGO.—The conclusions of **Graef** on vertigo, as it concerns ophthalmologists, are as follows:

1. The most frequent cause of vertigo is some fault in the internal ear, especially progressive degenerative disease.

2. In a case of dizziness, if labyrinthine tests are normal in vertigo and nystagmus, there is no fault here and the vertigo is due to something irritating the static apparatus.

3. If vertigo alone or nystagmus alone is produced by the tests the fault is outside the labyrinth itself.

4. If tests show no reaction in vertigo or nystagmus the fault lies in the labyrinth or in the eighth nerve.

5. Hemorrhage into the labyrinth is a rare condition. Emboli lodging in the labyrinthine bloodstream are a cause of Meniere's syndrome as seen in caisson workers.

6. The eye is next in importance to the internal ear as a source of vertigo and should receive full attention after the labyrinthine condition has been tested.

7. Aside from paralysis a common fault in the ocular muscles is weakness of a superior rectus with imbalance—hyperphoria. Vertigo on looking upward is therefore frequently met with Even when lacking a frank fault—hyperphoria—the elevators of the eyeballs are the least able to do their work and suffer most thru exhaustion by the efforts required of them.

PARALYSIS.—**Descomps, Enziere** and **Merle** have noted some interesting ef-

fects of shell concussions upon convergence. "At one of the army centers of neurology it was noticed that the eyeballs were found intensely converging after the rotation test; and from ten to ninety seconds elapsed after the close of the test before the eyes resumed their normal position. In the nine cases described here, in four this convergence of the eyeballs was the only sign of anything wrong in the oculomotor sphere. But in the other five cases there was paresis of some of the neuromuscular apparatus of the eyes. The writers of the report regard the convergence as the equivalent of paralysis, and theorize to explain its mechanism, saying that it is a mistake to think that all the symptoms elicited by the rotation tests are referable to the internal ear. All these men were "commotiones," and some had traces of evident organic central lesions from the shell concussion. The probability is, they think, that this convergence sign is a manifestation of some minute focal lesion in the brain.

Similar paralysis has been noted by **Lortat-Jacob** and **Hallez. Marin** writes on facial and abducens paralysis from lead poisoning, and **Hoffman** on oculomotor paralysis. **Britto** writes on the present status of nuclear ophthalmoplegia, and **Hassin** defines Weber's syndrome as a complete or partial paralysis of the oculomotor nerve combined with a contralateral hemiplegia. Pathologically it signifies some lesion of the crus cerebri. Its practical value lies in the possibility of precisely locating a brain lesion, since its presence is a sure sign of involvement of the peduncular region, that thus far has been inaccessible to operative interference. If complete and pronounced, it is confined to that part of the peduncle adjacent to the oculomotor nerve, that is, the inner portion. Otherwise, the nerve may be spared and then the syndrome will be lacking. In the modified type of *Weber's syndrome,* the so-called *Benedikt syndrome,* the paralyzed side shows a tremor resembling that of paralysis agitans, chorea and athetosis. The writer reports a case in which a glioma was found. The clinical picture is that of a purely classical Weber syndrome, in spite of the involvement of the tegmentum, when there should have been a Benedikt syndrome. Another remarkable feature of the case was the patient's excellent mental condition, in spite of the fact that a large part of the brain was totally destroyed. This absence of mental symptoms agrees with the observations of others in other cases. The *New York Medical Journal,* v. 107 p. 992, has an editorial on the etiology of congenital ophthalmoplegia, exposing the fact that it exists in a ratio of 65% of boys and 35% of girls. It is found to be a hereditary and familial affection in about one-half of the cases. "It is clear that serious foundations for establishing the etiology are decidedly wanting." Accidents disturbing fecundation or gestation "should not be completely eliminated, because their influence in teratologic etiology in its broadest sense, is unquestionable."

CASE REPORTS.

NYSTAGMUS.—I, **Jacobs,** reports "a case of this unusual form of nystagmus with account of some of the explanations offered for it."

II, **Gowland** reports a case of a man of 36 years presenting voluntary nystagmus.

III, **Frankan** reports a case of bilateral rotary nystagmus occurring with exophthalmic goiter, with slight convergent strabismus.

PARALYSIS.—IV, **Hubbard's** patient, a girl, tilted her head to the left; and attempts to look to the right were accompanied by an up and in turning, also a recession of the left eye. Wolf, discussing this case, quotes from a former report two possible explanations: (1) the faulty insertion, and (2) the fixation theories. The latter accounts better for all the symptoms.

V, **Viets,** presents a case of unilateral ophthalmoplegia in a girl of 26, which was found to be due to carotid aneurism. Full details of the neurology of this case are presented.

VI, **Crisp,** reports two cases of congenital abducens paralysis, and re-

views some case reports of others. The first case was that of a woman of 23 years, whose right abducens was paralyzed but without diplopia. The vision with correction was 5/7.5. The second case was that of a boy of 11 whose left externus was similarly affected and also without diplopia. Dr. Harold Gifford, discussing these cases, reported having seen in 30 years some 29 cases. These were mostly in girls, but he believes this is because they notice the defect more than do boys.

VIII, **Morrison,** reports ophthalmoplegia in a boy of 7 following diphtheria and occurring 3 days after the administration of antitoxin.

VIII, **Wiener,** reports a case of complete bilateral ophthalmoplegia in a man of 67 years, which followed an attack of influenza. There were no cranial nerves involved and there was complete recovery after six weeks. Wiener things it more plausible that this paralysis was due to a thrombosis rather than to toxemia.

IX, **Murdock,** presents a case of combined ptosis and abducens paralysis in a boy of 13, which probably came on at birth.

X, **Taylor** presents several cases of variable paralysis of ocular muscles thought to be due to myasthenia.

XI, **Tyson,** has a case of traumatic paralysis of the left abducens, of an aviator injured in a collision in mid-air, resulting in a contusion of the left brow. There are extensive orbital, subconjunctival and subcutaneous hemorrhages. Slow recovery was in progress at the time of the report.

XII, **Schwenk** and **Posey,** have made a clinical report on contraction of paretic abducens when masseters are contracting in act of biting, in a case twenty years after severe injury involving the cranial nerves, followed by regenerative changes; with a study by Watson, of the probable anatomy of the nerve tracts involved, and comments by Spiller on its neurologic aspects, with 5 illustrations. See A. J. O. v. 1, p. 393.

XIII, **Löffler** treats of a paralysis of ocular muscles associated with nasal herpes zoster in a case.

XIV, **Marin** has a report on facial paralysis of traumatic origin with optic atrophy.

XV, **Guthrie** reviews Gradenigo's description of the syndrome that bears his name as "an acute middle-ear suppuration accompanied by intense unilateral headache and paralysis of the abducens nerve." He collected fifty-three cases, only five of which were examined postmortem, to that pathologic data on the subject are scanty. Acute meningitis was the cause of death in all five cases. In three a localized abscess was found at the apex of the petrous bone, and in the remaining two a carious focus in the same situation. The path of infection from the tympanum to the petrous apex was demonstrated in two cases. In two instances the bone was remarkably "pneumatic" in structure. In Gradenigo's opinion, the pathology of the condition consists in a spread of infection from the tympanic cavity along the cells surrounding the bony part of the Eustachian tube, towards the apex of the petrous temporal bone. Here the sixth nerve is closely related to the bone, is extradural and isolated from other nerves; and it is easy to see how it may be pressed upon and involved in suppuration affecting the apical pyramidal cell.

The case met with by Guthrie was in a soldier, aged 21 years, who had suffered for three weeks from unilateral headache and pain in the right ear, accompanied by mucopurulent discharge. There was a history of otorrhea in childhood, but no discharge, since the age of 10 years. There was an internal squint of the right eye, the abduction of which could not be carried out. Thirteen days after admission the radical mastoid operation was performed. The mastoid process was of distinctly "pneumatic" type. About ten weeks after operation the ear was dry and clean, and the right eye could be almost fully abducted. Between ten and eleven months after operation the patient, who had meanwhile been

discharged from the Army, reported that he was able to do light work on a farm, that he had lost all pain, that the ear was quite well, but that he sometimes had double vision.

XVI, **Wheeler** writes on paralysis of the sixth cranial nerve with otitis media; and reports a typical case presenting the Gradenigo syndrome in a girl of 11 years; and reviews the history of this type of abducens paralysis presenting also complete and valuable bibliography. He considers that this paralysis is often seen because of the peculiar exposure of this nerve in its passage below the level of the tip of the petrous portion of the temporal bone as above described.

"In order to understand the severe pain that occurs on the corresponding side of the head in these cases, it is important to have in mind the close proximity of the gasserian ganglion to the tip of the petrous bone. It lies in Meckel's dural cavity and rests in a depression on the anterosuperior aspect of the petrous pyramid at its tip, so that a process which would affect the sixth nerve at the tip would be likely also to affect the gasserian ganglion."

XVII, **Sautter** gives the histories of two cases of ocular palsy in infantile paralysis, one of the bilateral external type, and another of conjugate lateral movements.

XVIII, **Posey** believes that migrain is only symptomatic and not casual in cases of oculomotor palsy, as it is in epilepsy or paretic dementia. Migrain may cause oculomotor palsy, but in the recurrent type the lesion causes epilepsy, the migrain being an aura. The case cited was in a girl seen at the age of 13 with a story of similar attacks since 6 years of age—5 attacks, all of which passed away in from 10 to 14 days. Attacks are attended with severe head pain, later a drooping of the left eyelid, and double vision due to paralytic exotropia (left internus paralysis).

XIX, **Juarros** reports a case of paralysis of the right abducens with cortical lesions.

XX, **Moran** tells the story of a young man of 10 who had a fracture of the base, followed by left facial and right abducens paralysis. He was seen 6 weeks after injury, and presented a fixed convergent squint of about 35 degrees with otherwise negative findings. Five weeks later an operation was performed, leading to the anastomosis of the facial to the hypoglossal nerve, and an attachment of the outer half of the superior rectus and the outer half of the inferior rectus to the external rectus at its point of insertion. Binocular fixation was established almost immediately to single vision up to the median line at that time, and three months later abduction—a complete cure.

XXI, **Wheeler** presented a typical case of paralysis of divergence in a man of 25 years. The attack came on suddenly. The patient was otherwise normal. "The tropometer shows normal excursions of each eye in all directions. The far point for binocular single vision by approximation is about 14 inches, while the far point by recession is 24 inches. The point of equilibrium is 4 inches from the root of the nose. Diplopia decreases slightly as the patient looks to the right or to the left, whereas it would increase in looking in one of these directions if there were a paralysis of the external rectus. In this case paralysis of divergence probably resulted from hemorrhage into the divergence center, while the patient was under physical exertion." A lesion of the hypothetical divergence center must be assumed.

XXII, **Dameno** reports four cases in which the external rectus muscles of the eyes become temporarily paralyzed after an operation under novocain spinal anesthesia. The paralysis did not develop until a few days afterward, and it subsided completely by the end of three weeks. The sixth pair seems to be particularly susceptible to toxic action from intraspinal anesthetization. But in all the eighty similar cases on record the disturbances retrogressed spontaneously.

XXIII, **Zimmerman** gives a survey of the physiologic typical associated movements of the eyes and lids, and of

physiologic atypical, and pathologic, concomitant movements in general. He discusses the paradoxic movements of the upper lid with mastication and suction, with report of an illustrative case, presenting the different views of explanation of these phenomena, with consideration of anatomic and physiologic researches and clinical observations.

XXIV, **Lortat-Jacob** and **Hallez** report the case of a soldier of 31 years who "was left with the Claude Bernard-Horner syndrome after subsidence of the usual nervous disturbances from severe shell concussion."

THE CONJUNCTIVA.

WILLIAM ZENTMAYER, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA.

This section reviews the literature relating to the conjunctiva and its diseases appearing during 1918.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

STUDIES OF THE CONJUNCTIVAL LYMPHATICS WITH CORNEAL MICROSCOPE.—**Koeppe** has made clinical studies of the conjunctival lymph vessels with the corneal microscope and the Nernst lamp, and gives the following summary of his findings: 1. The blood vessels of the epibulbar conjunctiva and episclera are usually, even to the finest capillaries surrounded by lymph spaces. 2. These perivascular lymph spaces are on the average twice as wide and numerous as those seen on the arteries. 3. The capillary loops of the limbus appear likewise to possess such perivascular lymph spaces. 4. The transition of the corneal lymph spaces to the vessels in the region of the limbus as well as in the solitary ones, is never observed in the human living eye. 5. Consequently the von Recklinghausen theory of the direct

anastomosis of the corneal lymph spaces with the endothelial lymph canals of the marginal vascular capillaries is disproved.

Subconjunctival Injections and Ocular Cardiac Reflex.—**Aubineau,** as a result of numerous investigations, concludes that subconjunctival injections of certain volumes of liquids (as in the treatment of detached retina), practiced upon one or both eyes produces as a sequel a pronounced retardation of the heart's action and at the same time an irregularity of the cardiac rhythm.

Epidemiology of Contagious Diseases of the Eye. — **Cohen** and **Noguchi** describe the clinical manifestations of the various contagious conjunctival diseases. In seven cases of trachoma, observed from the incipient stage to cicatrization, the bacteriologic findings were: Four showed inclusion cells in the incipient stage only. One developed an inclusion cell conjunctivitis five years ago, followed by a mixed infection of inclusion cell and K.-W. conjunctivitis, then a pneumococcus appeared. From all of these the patient recovered, but eight months later there gradually developed the clinical symptoms of trachoma. Two cases had a mixed infection of inclusion cells and gonococcal conjunctivitis lasting six months.

From these findings they conclude that it is impossible to establish any cause for trachoma. It seems probable that the cause of trachoma is one or the other of the following factors: A specific virus not yet identified, which invades the conjunctival mucous membrane, there stimulating a proliferation of the connective tissue; or the specific virus destroys the mucous membrane of the conjunctiva, thus furnishing a favorable soil for other bacteria to permeate the deeper layers of the conjunctiva, and give rise to proliferation of the conjunctiva.

External Diseases of the Eye in Elementary Schools. — **Richardson's** statistics and observations are based upon the examination of children aged from five to six, and twelve to fourteen years. On the day of the medical inspection of elementary school children of Staffordshire, more than 11,000 children were inspected. In cases noninfectious or practically noninfectious, there was a large percentage of cases of genuine tuberculosis as compared with the incidence of the disease of all the children examined.

Thirty nine cases of *phlyctenular disease* were found, of which eleven were boys and twenty-eight girls. Only two had manifest tuberculosis of the lungs, fourteen had enlarged tonsils, adenoids or both, and two had palpable cervical glands. This is beyond the general average incidence of the children examined, altho it forms a small minority of the phlyctenular cases. Personal uncleanliness was found to be an important factor. There were four cases of otorrhea, a very high incidence, but the author says it is just as likely that they both proceed from a common cause.

Etiology of Phlyctenular Ophthalmia.—**Turner** states that by following the procedure below they have practically eradicated the recurrence of attacks of phlyctenular ophthalmia in an orphanage caring for 1,300 children: A diet which excludes acids, so far as possible, no raw fruits except the citrus, indigestible carbohydrates, such as oatmeal, sweet potatoes and navy beans. General medical treatment for relief of associated conditions. The internal use of small doses of atropin for a few days in the acute stage and small doses of potassium iodid. Shrinkage of nasal tissues about the ethmoid ostium to afford free drainage. Turner's views of the etiology based on this experience have been given. (A. J. O., v. 2, p. 115.)

Gibson's study is based upon 92 cases of phlyctenular conjunctivitis so diagnosed by Pusey. Acording to the judgment of the patient's parents 64 were considered in robust health, 8 fairly strong, 12 delicate. The physical examination showed 52 were well developed and nourished, 28 fair physique, 12 decidedly below par. First hand information of the living conditions were bad in 53, living conditions were good in 23, fair in 12, poor in 8.

Seventeen cases were tested for indican; in 5 it was absent, 5 showed a trace, 4 a small amount, and 3 a large amount. The series as a whole was particularly free from gastrointestinal complaint. As to the presence of "exudative diathesis," Gibson states that if a single symptom of this complex is considered adequate for a diagnosis few children would escape, and he thinks that assuming that phlyctenular conjunctivitis was a manifestation of the "exudative diathesis" it would amount only to a restatement of the problem as the cause of the so-called diathesis is altogether obscure. Despite the almost constant presence of tuberculous infection in phlyctenular disease clinical evidence of tuberculosis has been much less frequently found. A history of direct infection was obtained in 29 per cent. Patients showed clinical evidences in 26 per cent. His conclusions are: That in 92 cases of phlyctenular conjunctivitis tuberculosis was revealed in 90 cases, as shown by a positive von Pirquet. In the two negative, the diagnosis was doubtful. No other condition, either local or general, could be found with sufficient frequency either to suggest any direct influence in producing the disease. Phlyctenules were produced experimentally in tuberculous rabbits in 8 instances, 6 times as a complication of a conjunctival reaction resulting from the instillation of tuberculin, twice in the absence of local irritation of any kind. Numerous attempts to cause the condition in animals not tuberculous failed. The pathology of the experimental lesion was similar to that of human phlyctenules. The microscope findings suggested a tuberculous origin. All clinical, experimental and pathologic evidence points to tuberculosis and tuberculosis alone, as the cause of phlyctenular disease.

Cridland recognizes four types of eczematous keratoconjunctivitis: 1. eczematous infiltrate; 2, round eczematous ulcer of the cornea; 3, eczematous ulcus migrans or fascicular keratitis; 4, eczematous pannus. In the patients he finds two types, the torpid and the erethistic,—in both the characteristic feature is enlargement of the lymphatic glands. As to the varying incidence of the disease, he says, "Here and there, as the case may be, you will find eczematous keratoconjunctivitis in plenty, an acknowledged fingerpost to the presence of the tubercle bacillus; search the conditions under which life is carried on in those districts and so you may, perhaps, add another proof to the old adage, 'Prevention is better than cure.'" He finds, with Priestly, that bad housing has but little effect as a causative factor. His view as to etiology is "That the evidence we have at present, the phlycten is the ocular manifestation of a toxemia, which in many cases is undoubtedly tuberculosis, but in a number, probably in mild ones only, is of gastro-intestinal origin, the exact nature of which is unknown. General treatment is mostly directed against the scrofulous diathesis. Light, air, movement and nutrition are the fundamental supports of both the prophylaxis and treatment."

Ophthalmia Neonatorum. — **Shastid,** because of the imperfections and omissions in the various enactments for the prevention of blindness and, inasmuch as, to his knowledge, no scientific or legal committee, or even an official of any legal or medical association has taken any step or steps looking toward the securement of efficient and uniform legislation concerning ophthalmia neonatorum; has drafted a proposed form of law which is composite of the various existing laws.

It cannot here be given in full; however, some of the provisions are: That any inflammation of an infant's eye or eyes accompanied by an unnatural discharge at any time within two weeks after birth shall be known as ophthalmia neonatorum. That it shall be the duty of the individual in attendance to employ either the Credé method, or the instillation of an absolutely fresh solution of argyrol or protargol in 25 to 40 per cent strength. Should ophthalmia neonatorum develop it shall be the duty of the attendant to report the case to the proper health authorities; and the parents, or anyone standing in *loco parentis* to the infant, shall be in-

formed of the danger to the eye and the necessity for skillful and continued treatment. That an accurate record of the report and its time of receipt shall be made by the local health department, and the original mailed to the State Board of Health. That the attendant must state on the birth report what prophylactic measures were taken. That every physician who shall treat a case of ophthalmia neonatorum shall, within 48 hours after his release of the case, report in detail the history of the case to the local or State Board of Health. The State Board of Health shall furnish free of charge to proper persons suitable prophylactic agents. The remaining eight sections deal with the health board's duty. All institutions concerned shall post in a conspicuous place a copy of this act.

Allport, while conceding the excellence of the general character of the law proposed by Shastid, thinks that he has fallen into error in offering an option of using substitutes for nitrat of silver as prophylactic agents. He considers proposing the use of either argyrol or protargol not warranted by facts and not indorsed by most experienced ophthalmologists. **Hathaway** cites several cases which show that there are various underlying causes for the nonreporting of this disease. Among them is ambiguity in the wording of the statutes, permitting of various interpretations. He presents the law enacted by the general assembly of the state of Ohio as giving an explicit statement as to what constitutes ophthalmia neonatorum in the legal sense.

Derby again calls attention to the fact that at the Massachusetts charitable Eye Infirmary of Boston, when it is possible for the mother to leave her home she is encouraged to enter the hospital with her baby; and when this is impossible she is encouraged to visit the hospital two or three times daily for the purpose of nursing her baby, if she does not live too far away; and further, when this is impossible they have often been able to have her milk drawn from the breasts and sent to the hospital each day. Their experience has led them to place all cases of this disease under the daily supervision of an expert pediatrician. Before adopting this course their mortality had been unduly high. Now it compares very favorably with the normal infant mortality.

Copeland presents the following as the probably true statistics regarding questions propounded of the students in the school for blind. Thirty-five per cent were blind from the effects of venereal disease; 22.6 per cent from gonorrhea; 28.3 per cent from venereal disease present at or contracted at birth; 22.6 per cent from ophthalmia neonatorum. All of the later were considered gonorrhea. He states that very recently the Ontario Legislature has enacted legislation covering the prevention of blindness.

Friesen considers some of the essential points to be included in an efficient law against ophthalmia neonatorum to be: The agent of prophylaxis should be specified, it should be compulsory to use it on every living child that is born, whoever the attendant at birth may be, birth reports should be made within seventy-two hours after birth and should state that the proper prophylactic has been used immediately after birth. The State Board of Health will furnish free of cost to registered attendants the specified prophylactic means with instructions.

In a symposium on ophthalmia neonatorum and gonorrheal conjunctivitis **de Schweinitz** said that there were about twenty-five thousand cases of blindness thru the United States which could have been prevented. That a large proportion of these were due to ophthalmia neonatorum which is responsible for twenty-five to twenty-six per cent of blindness in eleemosynary institutions, schools for the blind, etc., and the cause of approximately 8 per cent of blindness in most regions of the country. That 65 per cent of the cases of ophthalmia neonatorum are of gonococcal origin.

He points out that in Philadelphia many hospitals had no accommodation for such cases, in fact only two hospitals returned an unqualified statement to Holloway's inquiry that ophthalmia

neonatorum patients would be accepted, and that Holloway properly concludes that hospitals receiving State aid should be compelled by law to provide suitable accommodations for the victims of ophthalmia neonatorum. Whiting, speaking in discussion as Medical Executive Officer of Germantown Hospital, said that gonorrheal conjunctivitis and ophthalmia neonatorum are classed by the management as infectious venereal diseases, hence they come under the ban of the rule which prohibits the admission of venereal diseases.

Proper rules when applied to the majority of general hospitals should be enforced, because some hospitals are not properly equipped to care for these cases without neglecting or endangering the patients generally considered suitable for admission to a general hospital. The only general hospitals that should admit these cases are those that have a special ophthalmic department, suitable isolation rooms and a large enough nursing staff to allow special nursing without interfering with the routine work of the department or of the hospital. Cairns, representing the Bureau of Health, felt that there was no good reason why cases of ophthalmia neonatorum should not be treated in any hospital.

Baldy, Chairman of the Board of Medical Education and Licensure of Pennsylvania, said if hospitals were not organized to take care of suffering people, no matter what the disease might be, then he did not know what a hospital was for. The only exception to this should be cases which have been pronounced by the health authorities to be so contagious as to be unsafe for treatment in a general hospital. Love stated that St. Mary's Hospital had a ward for these cases, and Langdon made the same statement for the Children's Hospital. Turner supported the views expressed by de Schweinitz and Baldy, and thought if mothers were given an antiseptic vaginal injection before birth of the child there would be fewer cases of ophthalmia neonatorum.

The Public Health Committee of the London County Council held an interview with a deputation from the British Medical Association, urging the necessity for arrangements for the treatment of ophthalmia neonatorum in London. Under the impetus afforded by the report of the Departmental Committees on the Welfare of the Blind issued in 1917, two hospitals for ophthalmia neonatorum have been opened in London, one North, the other South of the Thames.

Gonococcal Ophthalmia in the Adult. — **Montaño** states that the greater gravity in adults is probably due to mixed infection. The main point is prophylaxis. It is more difficult in men. Children with vaginitis should wear closed drawers. Washing the hands after relieving the calls of nature should be enforced. Physicians and attendants should wear protecting glasses. **Lundsgaard** has written on the prophylaxis of gonorrheal ophthalmia, and **Waldmann** upon war wounds and blennorrhea. **Rechsteiner** has published a paper on sophol in the treatment of ophthalmoblennorrhea.

Griscom saw regeneration of the cornea occur in a case of gonococcal conjunctivitis where the ulcer involved the entire cornea save for a zone about 2 mm. wide at the upper limbus and penetrated as far as Descemet's membrane at one point. The ulcer eventually began to heal and the cornea to regenerate from the uninvolved strip. Six weeks after the beginning of the inflammation the upper third of the cornea was entirely clear, the middle third showed a faint superficial haze and the lower third was somewhat more opaque. V = 14/200. The treatment included the use of adrenalin solution and eserin.

Treatment of Gonococcal Ophthalmia.—**Heckel** gives the notes of three additional cases successfully treated by iced normal salt solution, as introduced by him in 1915. In the first case, in an adult negro, three days after the use of this treatment cultures were negative. In the second case a corneal ulcer developed in one eye on the tenth day of treatment, at a time when cultures were negative for the gonococcus. In the third case the condition was

monocular and the retrogression of the infection was "truly remarkable."

Ochsenius advocates a form of treatment of purulent ophthalmia introduced by Fraenkel in 1901, but little known. Once daily a surgeon personally applies to the conjunctiva of the thoroly everted lids a fresh 2 per cent solution of nitrat of silver (not more than one week old). The solution is not neutralized as this is done by the profuse serous secretion. The second step of the treatment is that the parents and attendants are not allowed to touch the patient's eyes. The secretion flowing from the fissure is merely wiped away with absorbent cotton. Under no circumstances are they permitted to remove the pus from the conjunctival sac or to touch the lids. Every third hour without awakening the child one to three drops of pure liquid paraffin are introduced into the sac at the outer canthus. Warm compresses are used only when corneal complications are present.

Herron claims to have had excellent results from the use of silvol in solutions of strengths varying from 5 to 10 per cent, in the treatment of gonococcal and other forms of purulent ophthalmia.

Acute Catarrhal Conjunctivitis. —**Wolfe** thinks it incumbent upon the physician to warn patients with "Pink Eye" as to its infectious nature, its tendency to become chronic, its possible dangers and its stubborn nature when it becomes so. He puts forward the theory that in measles, instead of there being a poisonous principle circulating in the blood which causes the conjunctivitis and coryza accompanying it from the early course of the disease, that measles is an infection of the mucous membranes.

Kershner mentions as factors in the epidemic of acute catarrhal conjunctivitis at Camp Sherman; crowded condition of men and their close association either at work, at play or at rest; that it began after cold weather had set in, and to make the most of the artificial heat, ventilation was defective in these rapidly constructed semipermanent quarters. As regards cases of conjunctivitis in which no bacteria were found, "mechanical conjunctivitis" the question arises as to whether it could be mechanical and due to "cold," dust, smoke and the crowded proximity of the men.

The factor "cold" includes wind with a low temperature, and low external temperature alternating with the humid warm atmosphere of the artificially heated barracks. There were two sources of dust—the dust in the air from sweeping and the tramping on the floors, and dust from the roads aided by the smoking of the men, and gas from stoves. In the bacterial group the organism most frequently present was the pneumococcus. K.-W. and M.-A. infections were small in number. Other causes were the gonococcus and xerosis bacillus, and various types of staphylococci. The striking feature was the large percentage of cases in which no organism was found. The epidemic was widespread, affecting over 1,200 men, and continued from October, 1917, into January, 1918.

Pneumococcus Conjunctivitis — **Paganelli** believes that where pneumococcus conjunctivitis is found associated with pneumonia it may have simply coexisted, there being no common association.

Conjunctivitis from Typhoid Bacilli.—In **Mohr's** unusual case the conjunctivitis was the result of accidental inoculation of the eye. The inflammation was mild and quickly passed away. Typhoid bacilli were found in the catarrhal secretion on the second day and had disappeared at the end of the sixth day.

Treatment of Conjunctivitis.— **Abecassis**, having seen a veterinarian successfully treat inflammations of the cornea and conjunctiva in the horse by the insufflation of a small amount of *sulphat of soda*, was induced to use it in the human. Because of difference of sensibility, etc., in experimenting with humans he used a saturated solution. He employed it in the army for such diverse conditions as catarrhal conjunctivitis, contusions of the globe, metallic foreign bodies in the cornea, etc., with entirely satisfactory results

The eye was bathed twice daily from ten to fifteen minutes with cotton pads saturated with the solution, or the eye was held open in a vessel containing the solution placed on a horizontal table-top.

Rönne in cases of chronic catarrhal conjunctivitis, which refuse to respond to usual remedies, has obtained good results from the instillation of one-half to one-fourth per cent solution of ethyl-hydrocuprein two or three times daily. He thinks the effect of the remedy depends upon a biologic reaction of the mucous membrane.

Green and **Green** form the following conclusions from their experience in treating trachoma, phlyctenular conjunctivitis and gonococcal ophthalmia with Dakin's *dichloramin solution.* That strengths of 0.5 to 1 per cent can be freely used as a conjunctival antiseptic without danger to the tissues. It may possibly be used in stronger solutions, but this has not been found necessary, altho further trial is advocated to determine the matter. Oil solution is preferred to water, as it is less irritating and will remain longer in contact with the epithelium. Instillations should be made at frequent intervals, once every hour having been found satisfactory.

Membranous Conjunctivitis.—**Stark** in presenting this case suggests, where possible, the substitution of the name of the type of the infection for that of "membranous conjunctivitis." In the present instance this was not possible as the etiology was obscure. The patient was a female 11 years of age. The ocular inflammation appeared as a complication of an eruptive fever, followed by the occurrence of large oval blebs with a thick cover filled with serum, covering the body and the mucous membrane of the mouth and throat. The condition of the eyes had existed for four years. There was slight entropion of all four lids, the palpebral conjunctiva of the lower lids presented a grayish whitish coating. This could be removed, coming away as a distinct membrane leaving a smooth red surface covered with lines of cicatricial tissue parallel with the lid margin.

In each eye a band was attached to a point near the inner canthus. The upper lids were stiff and the conjunctiva showed considerable scar tissue but no membrane. The right cornea was nebulous and the left was cloudy and superficially vascular in its lower fourth. V = 20/20 pt. The laboratory examination of the membrane showed xerosis bacillus and fibrin. In determining the etiology two causes must be considered: 1. Rhus poisoning. There was a history of the child having been at one time sensitized. 2. An anaphylaxis following diphtheria antitoxin. The rash followed two months after a single injection. Stark believes the general condition to have been *erythema multiforme.* The application to the membrane of a solution of sulphat of quinin 1 per cent resulted in the disappearance of the membrane from the right eye in four weeks and almost total in the left eye in six weeks. Eight years later there had been no recurrence. The quinin solution is made by adding one drop of dilute sulphuric acid to each 1 grain of quinin in order to dissolve it.

Pseudomembranous Conjunctivitis.—In 105 bacteriologic examinations made in this condition **Trapezontzeva** found Löffler's bacillus only 11 times; three times in pure culture, three times mixed with staphylococci, three times with xerosis, once with pneumococci, and once with various *staphylococci.* In the other 95 cases staphylococcus and streptococcus, nine cases pneumococcus alone, combined thirteen cases; staphylococcus aureus combined with staphylococcus albus and xerosis 28 cases; staphylococcus albus with xerosis 36; bacillus of K.-W. 2, M.-A. 3, Petit's 2, Hoffman 1, subtilis 3.

Strickler's case occurred in an imbecile child 10 years old. The condition was one of pseudomembranous conjunctivitis involving the bulbar conjunctiva and with a pinhead marginal corneal lesion. Streptococci and diplococci were present in the secretion. The etiologic possibility of trauma was considered.

Infectious Necrotic Conjunctivitis.—**Pascheff** observed three cases of

conjunctival disease resembling each other so closely that he believes them to belong to a not heretofore described type. The disease sets in with weakness, chill, loss of appetite, frequent headache and a rise of temperature associated with a simultaneous swelling of the preauricular and submaxillary lymph glands on the side of the affected eye. There is itching and redness of the conjunctiva, slight swelling of the skin near the ciliary margins. Secretion is moderate and threadlike. The conjunctiva of the tarsus and transitional folds is reddened, greatly infiltrated and fairly smooth, with later formation of whitish dull points and spots. These appear superficial and are often symmetrically placed in the transitional fold from simple contact. The whitish centers disappear, leaving deep ulceration. The course of the disease is from two to three weeks. Only one eye was affected. Experimental studies show its great virulence and the possibility of the reproduction of the whitish spots in the internal organs, especially the spleen. A micrococcus was isolated and was believed to be the pathogenic agent. Histologically the nodular granulations consist of a proliferation of fixed cells with mitosis, leucocytosis, and a wall at the periphery with lymphocytes. Commonly there is a central necrosis. The epithelium over the nodules in the conjunctiva is broken thru. The prognosis is good. The treatment consists in disinfection of the conjunctiva and operation on the swollen glands when they suppurate.

Acute Streptothrix of the Conjunctiva.—**Knapp** and **Dwyer** report this case, which arose in a nurse 30 years of age. Expectoration from a patient suffering from uremia, cystitis and pernicious anemia with a typhoid mouth, entered the eye. The next day the eye was inflamed and itchy; later the lids were swollen and a purulent discharge from the conjunctiva appeared. The preauricular glands were swollen. The conjunctiva presented a large number of follicles, larger than those of trachoma, and of a yellow color. The same type of follicular inflammation was found in the pharynx and arches. Smears were negative. Cultures from the eye, nose and throat showed streptothrix. Rubbing the culture into the skin of a rabbit was negative for two months. Rubbed into the conjunctival sac it produced intense conjunctivitis with steamy cornea. Injected into the anterior chamber it produced a low grade hypopyon with cyclitis and loss of the eye. Subcutaneous inoculation produced cold abscesses. Death of the rabbits occurred in 3½ months. There was extreme emaciation and deposits in the spleen and lungs.

Gram Positive Diplococci. — **Colombo** has isolated a gram positive organism of the form of a diplococcus similar to, but not identical with the pneumococcus, but this difference is not marked. These were pathogenic in a case of mucopurulent conjunctivitis.

Conjunctivitis of the Fornix.—**Santos Fernandez** under this term describes a condition characterized by twitching of the eyelids and a protrusion of the fornix conjunctiva, when contraction of the orbicularis was made during eversion of the upper lid. The protruding membrane was inflamed and edematous of pale color and showing some venous preponderance. The appearance was that of a small tumor. The conditions subsided under the local treatment applicable to simple conjunctivitis. The general treatment was hygienic.

Conjunctivitis Meibomiana.— **Hiwatari** reports three cases of this affection. He gives the symptoms based on his own observations as: Slight external swelling of the lids, a thick yellow discharge and papillary growths on the conjunctiva. The discharge flows out of the somewhat swollen mouths of the Meibomian glands. Thru the conjunctiva the glands were seen apparently enlarged by the abundant contents of the secretion. The conjunctival papillary enlargements were most intense near the lid margins, and diminished gradually towards the fornix where they almost disappeared. The bulbar conjunctiva was normal. The discharge from the glands consisted

chiefly of solid fat containing some fatty degenerated epithelial cells of the Meibomian glands, and their ducts. No bacteria were found. The affection healed after three months' daily massage combined with strong sublimat solution.

Chronic Hypertrophic Conjunctivitis.—**Crossley** saw this condition when it was of 8 or 9 months' duration. The left upper lid was greatly thickened and the conjunctival surface was nodular. No organisms were found in smear or culture. Lane examined sections of the thickened membrane and found enormous development of plasma cells. Three types were present, ordinary or plasmatocytes, large, and one or two giant cells, and chorioplaques which evidently originated from endothelial cells.

Provoked Conjunctivitis.—**Rasquin** gives as the characteristics of conjunctivitis induced by soldiers to escape military service: It is always unilateral. The conjunctiva is inflamed and swollen, sometimes violently so, but rarely as evidenced in diphtheritic conjunctivitis, or injury by caustics. The conjunctiva of the lower culdesac only is affected. The secretion never shows bacteria but reveals epithelial cells, or polynuclear cells, and sometimes the excitant of the conjunctivitis. The source of the agent is often found in the pocketbook, a leaf, or the watch case. Hermetically sealing the eye cures the malady.

Paparcone records an instance of conjunctivitis produced by nitrat of lead. His conclusions from a study of the several varieties of provoked conjunctivitis are: That much can be learned from careful clinical and histologic examinations and in addition from histochemic experiments upon man and animal. Waxy elevations upon the palpebral conjunctiva were characteristic and typical of this condition. It is not always possible to differentiate it from general forms of conjunctivitis. The superficial conjunctiva presents numerous points of greyish-white infiltration. These gradually disappear after several months, without leaving any traces or permanent scars.

Histologic examination showed the following: Tumid infiltration, with necrotic degeneration of the epithelium and tissues which presented a total disorganization of the tissue protoplasm. Recent swelling of the endothelium of the blood vessels which extended even into the smaller vessels of the same system. The presence and extension into the chorion mucosa of the crystals which were identified as crystals of nitrat of lead. The conjunctivitis produced by wax accentuated the fact that the scarring was produced by nitrat of lead or other ingredients in the wax-paste.

Samperi discusses the different varieties of provoked conjunctivitis. He classifies them as purely mechanical, which are extremely rare, those induced by powdered sublimat, by sulphat of copper, tobacco, ipecac and castor oil.

Sgrosso states that Angelucci has introduced picric acid as a cure for provoked conjunctivitis, with brilliant results. It is used in 1 per cent aqueous and glycerine solution. It was employed with success in all varieties.

Eosinophiles in the Secretion of Conjunctivitis.—**Pereyra** comes to the following conclusions from a study of this question: In the various types of conjunctivitis examined, including subacute, catarrhal trachoma and blennorrhea, eosinophiles were constantly present. They were present in primary conjunctivitis and in pemphigus. They were constantly present in provoked conjunctivitis, whether from ipecac or superficial caustics.

Monauni finds eosinophilia rare in common forms, but characteristic of provoked conjunctivitis caused by some caustics.

Vernal Conjunctivitis.—**Jackson's** paper deals with the aspects of the disease which should lead to its recognition and appropriate management. It is based on 44 cases seen in Denver. Previous acquaintance with the disease in Philadelphia seems to him to indicate that it is more common in the dry elevated regions of the Western U. S. The disease is well described in every complete text book on ophthalmology

in English in the past 20 years, yet he details a case in which 10 ophthalmologists and 2 pathologists had failed to relieve the patient either as to uncertainty as to the nature of his trouble or the burdensome and hopeless treatment. No case of the author's seemed to arise between September and March. Seemingly the first attack occurred before the fifth year of age in 3, between 5-10 years 15, 10-20 13, 20-30 9, 30-40 2. Relatively mild applications, such as one per cent or less of tannin, ichthyol, yellow oxid; boric acid three per cent, etc., contribute to the comfort of the patients. For radical cure, repeated exposures to Roentgen ray or to radium are the most valuable. The only operative treatment indicated is excision of any large masses found on the tarsal conjunctiva of the upper lid.

Pockley records two cases of the palpebral type of this disease. One was typical. The second was one of trachoma and pannus which had cleared up. The patient was free of symptoms except for a month or two in autumn. Recently flat, hard granulations appeared in a group on the upper lid of one eye. Later they increased and both eyes became affected. Radium failed as a therapeutic measure. **Crigler's** patient was a boy nine years of age. There had been annual recurrences in the spring for five years. The condition was confined to the globe. The father had had vernal conjunctivitis recurring for 20 successive years. In the discussion Tousey remarked upon the good effects of radium, and it followed in further discussion that it was the general opinion that direct exposure of the globe without protection was harmless.

In **Pollnow's** case, occurring in a 19 year old boy, who had suffered from vernal conjunctivitis for five years, there was commencing proliferation on the conjunctiva of the right upper lid, while upon that of the left eyelid there were very extensive cauliflower polypoid excresences of bluish color. No material improvement was obtained from treatment, which included ablation of a portion of the growth. **Terson** reports a case of vernal conjunctivitis in a child in which there were polypoid growths situated in the fissural space of the bulbar conjunctiva. The palpebral conjunctiva showed no hypertrophies, but the limbal tissue was elevated, appearing somewhat like an arcus senilis. **Shumway** adds an instance to the rapidly growing number of cases of vernal conjunctivitis greatly benefitted by radium treatment. The case was one of severe type of the palpebral variety. After 5 applications to one eye and 4 to the other within a period of four months the growths had entirely disappeared. The dose varied from 35-50 mg., and the time of exposure was 15 minutes at each sitting. **Pusey** states that in his experience the results of the treatment of vernal conjunctivitis with Roentgen rays and radium is the same; but that the application of radium to the inner surface of the lids is much less difficult. The lid to be treated is everted and held in position with a Snellen clamp. A flat radium applicator containing a varnish of 5 mg. is used. Applications of 5 minutes' duration over the whole lid for successive days are made. Then an interval of several months is allowed to supervene, depending upon the condition of the conjunctiva. Usually the first series results in improvement. In some cases 4 series were necessary to effect a cure. No radium reaction was seen.

Trachoma.—**Kirchner** gives the percentage of trachoma in the Prussian army at various periods, showing a reduction from 3.7 cases per thousand from 1881-1884 to 0.17 from 1911-1912, a diminution of 95.4 per cent. During the war it has been entirely negligible. In civic population it has diminished 86.2 per cent. This has been brought about by a system of competition.

Carhart discusses the differential diagnosis of follicular conjunctivitis and gives as an early sign of trachoma an involvement of the bulbar conjunctiva in the form of a ring of gelatinous granules deep in the fornix and gradually spreading forwards to a considerable distance on the eyeball. It occurs in acute trachoma, or trachoma

with mixed infections, causing an inflammatory exacerbation of vesicular infiltration. **Broyles** writes on the differential diagnosis of trachoma.

Salzmann states that the simultaneous occurrence of cell inclusions and gonococci is entirely too rare to make a connection between the two probable. The clinical course and spread of the two differ. An infection with gonococci from a perfectly pure inclusion blennorrhea has not yet been observed. The virus of trachoma and inclusion blennorrhea is filterable, that of gonorrheal conjunctivitis is not. While the former is transmissible to monkeys the latter appears not to be.

Foster divides trachoma clinically into fulminating and slow. The latter form appears either as acute or chronic For the proper examination of the lids he advises the use of the ordinary glove buttoner with the loop slightly bent upon its plane. He points that in normal and ordinary inflammatory conditions, on eversion of the lid a white area appears, which is pure white or pink and shades out evenly in all directions. In trachoma, however, it appears blotched and white streaks run in all directions. The diagnosis between trachoma and follicular conjunctivitis is based, not only on the condition of the conjunctiva of the culdesac and lower third of the tarsus, but also on the blood supply of the former. In normal eyes the culdesac is bluish pink and contains numerous vessels. At this locality the membrane is thin so that the arteries stand out very distinctly like cords, anastmosing at the base of the tarsus with horizontal branches which form arches. From these arches numerous fine vessels rise which run directly upwards on the everted lid. In trachoma the normal vessels disappear in the culdesac, only adventitious vessels, running sometimes in an oblique direction can be detected. "If any vessels are observed running in a vertical or approximately vertical direction across the culdesac it is safe to exclude trachoma."

Netto points out that trachoma was introduced into Cuba by immigration, notwithstanding rigid port inspection. Admitting that trachoma is inoculated by the body louse a great many questions hitherto unexplained would be answered. It would explain the fact that only some persons of a family are affected; it would explain cases thought to be due to immunity. **Santos Fernandez** does not admit the claim that the negro is in a measure immune to trachoma. He states that the disease does not develop in Cuba owing to the vigilance of the health officials, at various points, especially Havana, and the campaign of education carried on by the medical schools.

Cunningham and **Wharton** state that the question of trachoma and ordinary conjunctivitis arose owing to the introduction of colored units into France. Nineteen per cent of the Egyptians, and nine per cent of the Chinese had active trachoma. The infected cases were isolated thruout. The treatment carried out consisted in having the men squatted in rows, drawing down the lower lids, and while they looked up a native orderly passed rapidly along and dropped two drops into each eye of the following solution: Acid Boric gr. 10. Zn. Sulph. gr. 2; Aquae to one fluid ounce. In this way a whole company could be treated in 20 minutes. The authors had no knowledge of the disease having spread from these importations either to the British troops or to the civic population. The sickness hours among the infected companies did not exceed those in clean companies.

Koenigstein states that trachoma has extended over all Austria but is especially frequent in Galicia and in decreasing frequency in Roumania, Istria, Dalmatia, less so in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia. He has only met with contagion by direct contact, and believes that aerial transmission is out of the question.

Kirk, who has had 20 years' experience in the Straits settlements, states that in that region trachoma is principally a disease of the towns. There appears to be a race susceptibility, as the great majority of the cases are met with among the Chinese living here among peoples of several distinct ra-

cial types. This race shows a distinct tendency to excess formations of lymphoid tissues. Against there being a race susceptibility must be placed the unhygienic surroundings of the Chinese. In childhood the type is sago-granulations. But occasionally in infants a fulminating type is met with, probably due to mixed infection with the gonococcus. In the great majority of the cases primary infection occurs in childhood. He thinks there is sufficient reason to believe that the infecting agent is the cell inclusion body. The classification of trachoma into acute and chronic is misleading and inaccurate. The disease is chronic. He is fully convinced that Heisrath's operation performed before pannus and degenerative changes set in, is the best line of treatment. He is a firm believer in the persistent use of sulphat of copper stick. Other cicatrizing agents give no better results.

Larkin in a survey of 18,045 school children's eyes in Indianapolis found 77 cases of trachoma, a percentage of 0.0045. A survey was then made of some of the industries of the city and 1,000 workers were examined. One hundred cases of trachoma were found, a percentage of ten. Thirty-five per cent were in the packing industries, twenty-five in the metal trades industries, and forty per cent among miscellaneous establishments. The people among the infected were found to be mainly of Kentucky and from outside of the city limits. There was a large percentage also among the foreigners. The survey believe that children contract the disease from either members of the family or from playmates. The report states that the profession as a rule refused in many cases to accept the diagnosis of the survey, and at times even acted contrary to the advice of the board.

From an editorial note it seems that trachoma has appeared in middle Tennessee where none had been suspected, and a warning is sounded to the people thru the profession regarding the danger. They are admonished to keep awake to the possibility of its presence in the community; familiarize themselves with its symptomatology, remembering always its harmful and terrible possibilities. If unfamiliar with the disease send the patient to someone who does know trachoma and how to deal with it.

Wakisaka's investigations upon trachoma in a fishing village, with relation to the family, consists of a long series of examinations from which we may consider only one point. Trachoma is a chronic disease which is prevalent from childhood to old age. It is especially prevalent among women who have opportunity to infect the family and especially the female children, particularly during the nursing periods and in their after care. This infection is to be avoided by care in the family especially in children. He thinks that most people have an immunity against trachoma, but it cannot be demonstrated.

Cary ascribes the crimping of the tarsus in trachoma to a tendency on the part of the spreading tendon of the levator with its thickened aponeurosis to roll on itself, so to speak, and to lessen the amount of tarsus in evidence after the removal of the orbicularis. This is seen when the tarsus is not thickened and the crimping disappears as it is rid of the fibrous bands and by pushing back the rolled up and adherent portion of the tarsus. Evidently fibrous bands produce this rolling up of the fibrillae of the tendon of the levator, which shortens the normal distance between the margin of the lid and tendon. The palpebral portion of the orbicularis has probably remained in a state of spastic contraction as the result of an involuntary effort of the muscle to protect the cornea. His repair operation consists in the clearing away of this fibrous tissue, with the addition in some cases of splitting of the margin of the lid.

Schevensteen met with *hyalin degeneration* in old trachoma in a soldier. There was a vague history of eye trouble for a long time but the mass seen in the region of the caruncle had developed since he had been in the service in 1916. The right eye showed a cicatricial condition of the subtarsal con-

junctiva. In the left eye there was a cicatricial condition and in the region of the caruncle there was a tumor involving this structure and the semilunar fold. It was pink in color of the consistence of cartilage, movable and was separated from the sclero-corneal margin by healthy conjunctiva; but was continuous with the internal portion of the superior and inferior palpebral conjunctiva. The growth was removed and the space covered with conjunctival flaps. Histologically it proved to be a degeneration of the caruncle and subconjunctival tissue. From the action of reagents it was determined to be hyalin. This form of degeneration is not unusual in trachoma. The interest in the present case resides in the location and involved structures so that these structures had the appearance of an extensive neoplasm. **Morgano** has written on the care of the civil population with regard to trachoma. **Pichler** upon trachoma in the army. **Hirschberg** on trachoma in America and racial immunity; and **Königstein** on the service in a special trachoma hospital.

Treatment of Trachoma.—**Solares** employs massage with powdered boric acid and sulphat of copper. Under cocain-adrenalin anesthesia this is repeated in two or three days. In rebellious cases he uses scarification and brushing. **Foster** prefers grattage with toothbrush to expression or curetting.

Doyle believes that in the great majority of cases of trachoma some form of operative treatment must be instituted, if permanent and satisfactory results are to be obtained. He has secured the most satisfactory results from grattage.

Treatment of Chronic Conjunctivitis.—In a type of conjunctivitis resembling trachoma seen by **Cowley** at Berea he obtained good results by bathing each eye one minute twice daily in an eye cup in which is placed a collyrium astringens luteum. One dropperful to 3 of hot water. The collyrium consists of Ammon. Chlorid. 50 cgm., Zinc Suph. 125 cgm., dissolved in 200 gm. of distilled water, to this is added 40 cgm. of camphor in 20 gm. of dilute alcohol, and 10 cgm. of saffron. The whole is digested for 24 hours with frequent agitations and then filtered.

Penichet gives the results in 10 uncomplicated cases of trachoma treated with seven subconjunctival injections each of a solution containing trachoma material. The injections were made at a week interval, and in every case there was complete failure. In 5 cases with corneal ulcer and pannus, slight improvement followed, but not more than with other procedures.

Wyler emphasizes the distinction between canthotomy a temporary measure and canthoplasty a permanent enlargement of the lid fissure. The latter feature is indicated in trachoma of the cicatricial stage with pannus, blepharophimosis and entropion.

The method of operating which he described in detail is patterned after Kuhnt's operation. After subcutaneous anesthesia the temporal side of the lids is put on a stretch and the extent of the flap to be dissected is outlined with the point of a keratone. The tongue of the skin starts about 2 mm. beyond the orbital edge and 2 mm. above the horizontal prolongation of the lid fissure, is carried nasally for half the distance to the outer angle, curves around and returns to a point 2 mm. below the horizontal exactly under the first incision. This flap is now dissected up and laid back upon the temple. An ordinary canthotomy reaching to the orbital margin is now made.

A double armed suture is now inserted through the tip of the flap from skin surface inwards. The needles are then passed one above the other below the line of the canthotomy horizontally, entering under the palpebral conjunctiva in the extreme angle, passing over the bony edge under the skin of the temple and making their exit about one-half inch from the rim of the orbit. When these two ends are finally tied over a small roll of gauze, the flap is pulled between the cut edges of the skin and lines the angle, readily assuming the crease made by the pressue of the lids and preventing the denuded surfaces from adhering. No dressing

need be applied. The suture is removed on the third day.

In the treatment of trachoma as met with in India **Moncrieff** having found astringents, caustics and resorbents hopelessly inadequate; carbon dioxid no more efficacious than caustics, subconjunctival injections disappointing and few cases suitable for expression and grattage, he has resorted to two methods of operating; simple excision leaving a raw surface and excision followed by undermining and suturing the conjunctiva. **Crawford's** claims for the treatment of trachoma with Bulgarian bacillus culture were noted last year. **Carhart** employs a 5% citrat of copper ointment thoroly applied to the follicles. Massage with bichlorid or "ophthalmol" solution will often cause speedy absorption of the follicles. **Rosenstein** has written on the treatment of severe complications of trachoma, and **Highet** on its treatment by carbonic snow.

Brav has come to the conclusion that the only rational treatment of trachoma is surgical. He employs grattage in the early stages without corneal complications. When the latter condition is present and the lids thickened and hypertrophied he considers it best to resect the tarsus.

Plasmoma of the Conjunctiva.—**Hiwatari** records three cases of this disease all occurring in the female. In all, upon everting the upper lid, the conjunctiva was found thickened and presented miliary to large sized nodes, with slight scar formation. The author emphasizes the presence of a distinct scar formation in all cases; the appearance of plasmacellular infiltration of the conjunctiva adjacent to the tumor, which clinically showed nothing pathologic and the existence of clearly visible trachomatous changes in the second eye.

Parinaud's Conjunctivitis. (*Leptothricosis conjunctivae.*) **Verhoeff** has examined six additional cases of Parinaud's conjunctivitis since his report of eleven cases five years ago. In all but one the characteristic lepothrices were found in large numbers. A thoro analysis of all the cases is given. The essential lesion is a focal area .3mm. in diameter or larger, densely packed with endothelial phagocytes loaded with broken down chromatin granules, which is situated just below the epithelium.

The explanation of these areas is that the endothelial phagocytes are evidently attracted by the leptothrices since they invade the masses of the latter and since they frequently contain many of the organisms. Many of the phagocytes show various stages of necrosis, due evidently to the toxic action of the organisms, the resulting detritus being taken up by the newly arrived phagocytes. This process is so extensive that it is difficult to find in the lesions any endothelial leucocyte which is free from chromatin fragments. These phagocytes seem to be derived chiefly from the endothelium of the conjunctival lymph spaces. The endothelial cells never form Langhan's giant cells in the areas of necrosis.

It is noteworthy that all of the author's cases were unilateral, and that in none of them was the cornea affected. The possible explanation of the disease rarely being bilateral is, that for infection to occur slight injury to the conjunctiva is essential, or more probably by the fact that the organisms, so far as the author can determine, occur exclusively in the areas of endothelial phagocytosis beneath the intact epithelium, and hence do not get into the conjunctival secretion. In either, or both of these ways, may be explained the fact that the disease is never transmitted from one individual to another, altho here again the question of natural immunity may enter. A description of the disease based upon a correlation of its clinical, histologic and bacteriologic features concludes the article.

Morax gives an account of the researches made at the Laripoisiere which prove that Parinaud's conjunctivitis and tuberculosis of the conjunctiva are separate entities, and not related. As the differential diagnosis clinically between the two conditions is often very difficult it is important to cut out a piece of the conjunctiva, half

of which is used for inoculation, the other half for histologic study. If the latter examination shows giant cells, we have to do with either tuberculosis or one of the sporotrichoses. In the first case inoculation would clear up the diagnosis, and in the second a culture will show typical characteristics of the fundus. If giant cells are not found the diagnosis lies between Parinaud's conjunctivitis and syphilis. In such a case experimental inoculation will prove negative and the microscopic examination may or may not show the spirocheta pallida. The diagnosis of Parinaud's conjunctivitis should be reserved for those cases where the absence of giant cells and the negative results of inoculation and culture would justify the elimination of tuberculosis, sporotrichosis, etc., of the conjunctiva.

Wherry and **Ray** give the following summary and conclusions from a study of a case of Parinaud's conjunctivitis, observed in a boy 14 years of age. Pus aspirated from preauricular glands and injected subcutaneously in a white mouse, produced an infection after an incubation period of from four to five days, characterized by purulent conjunctivitis and death. From muscular abscesses found postmortem a leptothrix was isolated which grew only on slants of egg yolk incubated under partial tension and anerobic conditions. Pus from the mouse injected into a second white mouse reproduced the symptoms but resulted in recovery. The leptothrix isolated was nonpathogenic for white rats and a wild mouse. Later in the course of the human case a similar organism was isolated directly from the preauricular gland. It seemed probable, though not certain, that this organism grown is identical with that found in section by Verhoeff. The use of a guinea pig and rabbit seemed to rule out the presence of tuberculosis.

Spitze gives the notes of five cases in which a diagnosis of Parinaud's conjunctivitis was made. The first occurred in a man 25 years of age, an office worker. The ocular symptoms were preceded by constitutional disturbance following exposure on a gunning trip. The diagnosis rested upon the development of numerous small round dirty gray ulcers, along the retrotarsal fold of the left eye, enlargement of the preauricular and parotid gland and negative laboratory findings. The second case occurred in a boy of 12 years. The symptoms were similar to those in the first case except that the parotid gland was not enlarged. The third case was seen in a single woman whose right eye was affected. The lymphatics of the corresponding side of the head were enlarged. The preauricular gland finally suppurated. The fourth case was seen in a drug clerk, 17 years of age, the fifth in a married woman 25 years of age, in the latter both eyes were affected. According to Spitze the following points are worthy of note. The cases all occurred in late fall and early winter. Ages ranged from 3 to 25. One case was bilateral. In two cases the involved gland suppurated. The shortest duration was six weeks, the longest seven months. In one case the glandular swelling preceded the eye involvement. In one case there was a history of exposure to horses.

Fuller reports a case in which the points of particular interest were: the history that the contents of a dog's tick flew into the eye; the presence of extensive ulceration in the palpebral conjunctiva; the unusual accident that apparently caused the attack. The patient was a male aged 36 years. **Fernandez de Castro** records a case in which the investigations disclosed strong clinical evidences of Parinaud's conjunctivitis, but histologically the conjunctiva showed zones of necrosis and giant cells. The von Pirquet reaction was strongly positive but inoculation into the abdomen of a guinea pig was negative. A second inoculation under the skin of a guinea pig produced caseous glands in the groin. The author considers the case one of undoubted tubercular origin.

Tuberculosis of the Conjunctiva. —**Ayraud's** case was one of primary tuberculosis occurring in a boy 8 years of age. There was a history of the eye being struck with an umbrella; one rib

stuck into the lid. There was a subconjunctival hemorrhage which disappeared. Later the boy received a nail scratch over the same spot. Some days later there was edema and the preauricular glands became swollen. The external portion of the upper cul-de-sac showed a condition strikingly similar to the granulations seen in trachoma, with an ulcer 1 cm. in extent, grayish-white in color, and raised above the surface of the conjunctiva and adherent to the underlying tissues. The corresponding portion of the palpebral conjunctiva was white. Bacteriologic examination of the secretion was negative. Miscroscopic examination of the tissues showed giant cells and tubercle bacilli. Inoculations were negative, which proved the slight virulence of the organism. There was slow regression of the conjunctival condition and of the enlarged glands.

Musy has seen a case of conjunctivitis which had all the appearances of Parinaud's conjunctivitis. Inoculation into the inguinal glands of the taurillon produced a general tuberculosis.

Primary Syphilis of the Conjunctiva.—The possible source of infection in the case of **Maxey** came from assisting at a tonsillectomy on a woman of "easy virtue." Three weeks later a mucopurulent conjunctivitis set in. Later edema of the conjunctiva and lids with enlargement of the submaxillary and preauricular glands. Ten days later the described symptoms were intensified and there was a shallow ulcer 4x8 mm. at the juncture of the middle and external thirds of the deepest portion of the inferior culdesac limited to the palpebral conjunctiva. The ulcer was covered by dark grayish membrane. No spirochetes were discovered and the Wassermann, on third trial, was 4+ and secondaries began to appear. Within 48 hours of the administration of salvarsan and inunctions of mercury the symptoms began to abate and a gradual subsidence followed.

Oral and Pharyngeal Sepsis.—**Zentmayer** notes in literature cases of persistent conjunctivitis apparently due to oral sepsis and instances of follicular conjunctivitis, phlyctenular conjunctivitis and certain forms of conjunctivitis resembling trachoma, either resulting from, or aggravated by, pharyngeal disease.

Spirochetosis Ictero - Hemorrhagica.—**Weekers** and **Firket** state that all writers have reported the occurrence of conjunctival injection during the course of this disease. In their opinion this phenomenon is secondary and coincides with the condition of greater importance, viz:—ciliary congestion; this latter symptom is significant as indicating a localization of the disease (probably of the spirochetes) in the uveal tract. **Lawford** states that ocular hyperemia is an early sign appearing at the onset of the affection or during the first few days; it is rarely absent and was noted in 46 out of 50 cases.

Hertel, as the result of animal experimentation, concludes that the secretion of the conjunctiva set up by the icterus febrilis contains spirochetes, and, therefore, may cause a new infection. **Moret** had studied the ocular condition in 72 cases. He found redness of the conjunctiva present in 25 out of 30 cases. The association of this congestion with a jaundiced sclera gives a characteristic appearance of the eye, which may lead to an early diagnosis of the disease. The intensity of the redness bears a direct relationship to the severity of the underlying disease.

Pemphigus. — **Connor** and **Burkholder** record an atypical case seen in a private 25 years old. There was a history of recurrent attacks of inflammation of the left eye for seven or eight years lasting three or four days. These exacerbations occurred at intervals of one to several months. When in France the attacks became more frequent and a diagnosis of pemphigus was made by Whitham, but this was not concurred in by Wile who considered it a case of exudative erythema.

When seen by the authors at Base Hospital No. 11, Cape May, the left eye showed considerable mucopurulent discharge. The lower fornix was obliterated by adhesive bands. The cornea had a linear cicatrix near the limbus,

and an old fine cicatrix extending across the limbus all evidently the result of earlier ulceration. Later fresh blebs about 1 mm. in diameter appeared on the bulbar conjunctiva. These showed a grayish yellow base slightly raised and surrounded by a zone of conjunctival injection. Still later a large sloughing surface appeared. Smears showed no organisms. Associated lesions of other mucous membrances and of the other eye were absent. **Delmiro de Carlt** has written a general account of ocular pemphigus.

Dystrophy and Xerophthalmia.—**Bloch's** later experience of these ocular affections developing in infants fed on separator milk or other defective diet confirms his earlier one (1917). Among 23 cases of the 1917 series there were 11 in which the eye symptoms had lasted for only a few weeks and only xerosis had developed. Six had been under his own observation over a year. The xerosis developed in half of 16 infants in one dormitory all about the same time, but there were no cases elsewhere in other departments. All the infants got nourishing food but one group got separator milk and lost weight and half developed xerosis. When cod liver oil was given the infants they began to thrive at once and the xerosis to disappear.

In another series of 8 cases the children were from 1 month to 10 years of age. There was hemeralopia in three, keratomalacia in three—bilateral in one. Separator milk had been used for most of these children. All of this group showed general dystrophy of the type which Bloch calls alipogenetic or *centrifugal milk dystrophy*. In the present group of six cases the typical picture was what he terms *carbohydrate dystrophy*. The xerophthalmia was far advanced in all, with total necrosis of one cornea in one case, and bilateral in one. All symptoms subsided on using whole milk and cod liver oil.

Symblepharon.—**Roth** gives the results secured by operating on a case of complete symblepharon resulting from trachoma in a girl of 12 years of age. Both upper tarsi had been removed and that of the lower left lid. Altogether seven operations had been performed, as a result there were adhesions between the lids and the globe in the right eye, and in the left the lids were adherent at the sclerocorneal border above and below. Thiersch's grafts were used applied to a lead cup moulded to fit the globe. Marked improvement in the movements of the lid and in vision resulted.

Pterygium.—**Brose** ascribes the extension of the head of the pterygium into and under Bowman's membrane to the fact that the prolonged irritation of the interpalpebral bulbar conjunctiva results in a chronic state of engorgement of the vessels with the resultant hypernutrition and tissue proliferation and the latter naturally follows along the current of the nutrition onto and into the corneal tissue. He cites two instances where the growth had developed on both the outer and inner sides of the globe and had coalesced on the median line. A case was seen in which recurrence following operation had resulted in a turning in of the eyeball.

Turner reports a case in which, a man 40 years of age, had during a period of 10 years 11 operations, for recurrent pterygium. The conjunctiva of the lid became involved and the eye was enucleated. Six months later there was no recurrence. The growth was one of slow growing carcinoma.

Alexander operates for pterygium by making a short snip into the neck of the growth at the upper and lower borders and from this point undermining the body for a distance of several mm. The head is stripped from the cornea by a rapid upward jerk of the closed scissors' blades. A double armed suture is passed through the head from without inwards and is then passed beneath the body and made to emerge 10 mm. from the cornea where the ends are tied in a half knot. The bared sclera is left. The threads pull out after 10 days. It is pointed out that this operation differs from those of Galezowski and Bettman in not covering the raw surface of the sclera. The editor thinks that success depends upon whether the type was p. crassum or

tenue, if the latter, then it might have failed with the former.

Walker operates by shaving the pterygium from the cornea and undermining the pterygium so as to push it back toward the canthus as far as possible. The conjunctiva is then undermined above and below and a short vertical incision made adjoining the limbus above and below. Three sutures are placed in the conjunctiva to bring the horizontal edges made by separation and removal of the pterygium and a fourth stitch to bring the conjunctiva over the retracted tip of the pterygium.

Bonnefon performs an autoplastic inversion operation for **pterygium.** The head is detached to the neck with a Graefe knife at the limbus. The head is raised up with forceps and with the point of closed scissors is separated from the episcleral tissue. The head is then snipped off. With two incisions parallel with the cornea a rectangular flap is made with the limits of the position of the pterygium. A last incision frees the base of the pterygium. This tissue is then reversed and by the aid of a spatula it is put into position so that the base is against the limbus of the cornea and the head is tangent to the conjunctiva at the internal angle. The loss of substance is evidently greater than the size of a graft. It is therefore necessary to free very carefully the conjunctiva so as to cover a space as large as the graft. The placing of the sutures is a delicate procedure. The graft is held in place against the sclera with the spatula. A suture is first placed at the four angles of the three sides of the mucous rectangle. The part next to the corneal limbus requires no sutures. A double bandage is applied for three days and the sutures are removed on the seventh day.

Reconstruction of the Lower Cul-de-Sac By Cutaneous Autoplasty.—**Danis** has modified the Snellen Operation in the following manner: 1. An incision is made from the external angle of the eyelids, having a length of about 1 cm. 2. Cutting of a temporofrontal flap 1/3 longer than the distance of the external point of the canthotomy from the caruncle, and in its breadth about 1-5 cm. to 2 cm. below the level of the line of the canthus, and the internal incision passes to the external extremity of the canthoplasty. 3. Dissection, hemostasis and toilet of the flap. 4. In consequence of the two preceding steps, the lower eyelid may be drawn downwards. The conjunctiva of the inferior cul-de-sac is then incised and dissected along the two edges of the incision. 5. The temporofrontal flap is turned at an angle of about 90°, and its summit is fixed near the caruncle between the two lips of the dissected conjunctiva, and is fixed there by a point of suture. 6. The cutaneous flap is sutured to the two conductival lips. 7. The skin of the temple is sutured. 8. The position of the new cul-de-sac is ensured by a loop of suture emerging at the level of the cheek.

The second stage of the operation, undertaken after complete cicatrization is as follows: 1. Division of the pedicle of the temporofrontal flap. 2. A rectangle of skin is excised the breadth of which is 3-4 mm.; one the extremities of the rectangle corresponds to the external angle of the upper eyelid, the other to the external angle of the retracted lower lid. In the gutter thus formed is placed the lower lid freed by an incision oblique below and inside and slightly curvilinear at its lower extremity. Before fixing the points of suture a provisional prothesis is placed in the orbital cavity.

Argyrosis.—Cases of argyrosis of the conjunctiva and cornea have been reported by **Salus** and **Rödelius.** They followed the prolonged use of silver solutions in the treatment of trachoma.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

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CORNEA AND SCLERA

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This section reviews the literature for 1918.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

Anatomy. **Koeppe** has made elaborate studies with the corneal microscope of the cornea illuminated by the Nernst slit lamp. The normal cornea presents not the appearance of a homogeneous, fully transparent membrane but exhibits more or less clearly its structure, which can be studied by sufficient magnification. The epithelium appears homogeneous, clear, transparent with a smooth reflecting surface. Only in old age does it depart from this condition, giving a grayish appearance in spots near the limbus. Bowman's membrane is normally invisible, but the corneal parenchyma exhibits a system of lymph spaces and of lamellae. These become more readily noticeable with increasing age, being quite apparent in the fourth decade. The membrane of Descemet and the corneal endothelium also are normally invisible. In disease all these structures become more readily studied, and Koeppe's observations include siderosis, hemorrhage, edema of the cornea, various inflammations, band opacity, corneal scars, and the action of drugs upon the cornea.

Physiology. **Sakai** made a study of the *sensitiveness* of the cornea and the conjunctiva. The results of his experiments follow: 1. The conjunctiva has the sense of touch as shown by Nagel, but relatively less than the edges of the lids, skin of the face, etc. 2. The bulbar conjunctiva on the part exposed by the aperture of the lids has a little less sensitiveness than the other parts. 3. The cornea has the sensation of touch. 4. The cornea and conjunctiva fail to have the sensation of warmth, and this is likewise true of the caruncle and the semilunar fold. 5. The bearable heat is 42-43° (Cent.) 6. Sensation of cold exists in the conjunctiva and cornea, but not in the conjunctiva of the upper lid. 7. Pain is especially experienced in the cornea. 8. The difference between the sensitive points is the least on the free border of the lid (8.7 mm.) while that of the conjunctiva is 15 mm. 9. Sensation to chemical substances is less than that to cold.

Efficiency of Anesthetics on the Cornea—**Sollmann,** using rabbits' corneas for his experiments, determined the relative efficiency of the various surface anesthetics. Cocain and holocain were the most efficient; then followed beta-eucain, alypin, quinin and urea hydrochlorid, tropacocain, and lastly procain (novocain). Antipyrin and potassium were found to be practically ineffective. The rapidity and duration of the action varied with the concentration. For just as effective concentration the duration was shortest with cocain and tropacocain and longest with quinin and urea. The addition of one-quarter per cent of sodium bicarbonat increased the efficiency of the anesthetics two to four times with the exception of quinin and urea which were rendered less efficient. The addition of epinephrin failed to increase the efficiency. Mixtures of the anesthetics with each other or with potassium did not lead to increased efficiency. The author demonstrated why cocain should still be considered the superior anesthetic for mucous membrane.

Staining of Cornea—**Nakamura** made a number of experiments with green staining of the cornea by fluorescein with the following results: 1st. Fluorescein staining of the cornea comes only from the fluorescein of the fluid. It is not correct to say that the cornea stains, for it has no affinity, itself, for fluorescein. 2d: Fluorescein goes very easily into the corneal tissues. It diffuses readily from the fact that the corneal tissue is alkaline, and has a resorption faculty, and the fluore-

scein fluid it itself hypotonic. In injuries of corneal epithelium and disease of the parenchyma, fluorescein coloring is readily obtained. Taken by mouth and by injection, the chlorid has not caused any fluorescein staining in the cornea. In normal rabbits, fluorescein staining of the cornea shows as green spots.

Wyler points out that methylene blue in a 1 per cent solution was first used as a corneal stain by von Reuss, but that von Reuss used the blue only as a supplementary stain for fluorescein. **Magruder** used a 2 per cent aqueous solution of methylene-blue for the staining of corneal ulcers with startlingly beautiful results. The stain disappeared in two hours.

Corneal Tattooing—**Wyler** considers that ideal results can be obtained by a modified Froehlich method. A trephine is used to outline the area to be stained, cutting through the epithelium. The corneal flap is then disected loose leaving a hinge. The India ink is now applied and the flap turned back. The stain is permanent. From a series of experiments on animals **Rothschild** concludes that intracorneal tattooing by injections between the corneal lamellae is a practical method and free from any contraindications. The reaction occasioned was comparatively slight.

Regeneration of Cornea. — **Santos Fernandez,** referring to corneal opacities relates, that in 378 cases of interstitial keratitis the cornea sometimes recuperated and became normally transparent. Such restoration also occurred after total opacity following ophthalmia.

Griscom gives details of a case of severe corneal ulcer, secondary to gonorrheal ophthalmia, involving the entire cornea with the exception of a zone about 2 mm. wide above which had penetrated to Descemet's membrane. Eventually the cornea began to regenerate from the uninvolved area. Six weeks after the beginning of the ophthalmia, the upper third of the cornea was entirely clear. The author considered it a case of true regeneration of corneal stroma. Treatment consisted of instillation of eserin, alum and adrenalin.

Keratoplasty.—**Bonnefon** gives the results of six years experimental work with corneal grafts in animals. From the microscopic examination, he believes the fate of the grafts is very discouraging, as the grafts are always substituted—regenerated, regeneration coming from surrounding transparent cornea. In view of the fact that clinical grafts are not made on the sound cornea but on degenerated cicatricial tissue, active regeneration cannot be depended on. All of the graft except the epithelial coat loses its physiologic personality.

Martin presents a case in which he performed homologous corneal transplantation, and describes his technic. The unique feature of his operation is the balooning of the conjunctiva with normal salt solution by means of a hypodermic syringe. To remove the corneal flap a trephine at least 8 mm. in diameter is used. In the future he will use a trephine of 13 mm. diameter. After placing the corneal transplant in position it is entirely covered with the severed conjunctiva being held in place by three mattress sutures. In the case reported, there was light perception only prior to the operation. A year later the corneal transplant was still translucent and the patient had slight perception of light.

Montaño considers the process of regeneration of the cornea according to Magitot's experience. He refers to the good results obtained by grafting the cornea, using autoplastic and homoplastic tissue, and the failure of the heteroplastic method. He removed the scar tissue by means of a Bowman trephine 4 to 6 mm.

Epithelial Keratitis. — **Myashita** had often seen small grayish spots in the middle of the cornea, which could be found after fluorescein, in cases of Koch-Weeks' conjunctivitis and in acute and chronic trachoma. He did not observe any wandering cells in the parenchyma or the epithelium with microscopic examination.

Uribe-Troncoso reports a case of fascicular keratitis associated with *acne-*

rosacea, and suggests the more comprehensive term "rosacea ocularis." The author states that in regard to the pathogenesis of fascicular keratitis he can offer nothing concrete.

Myashita writes on *Keratitis Diffusa Superficialis* without accompanying conjunctival inflammation. He has previously written under a similar title concerning this type of superficial keratitis, which was a complication of conjunctival disease. Now he describes a similar form which comes on without conjunctivitis.

Cross reports a case of *herpes zoster ophthalmicus* treated by pericorneal neurotomy; following the technique suggested by Verhoeff, except that the conjunctival stitches were omitted. The operation was followed by immediate relief of the pain, which had been extremely severe. Another corneal ulcer developed in a different location, associated with severe pain. This was also promptly relieved following a second pericorneal neurotomy.

Zentmayer describes a case of *epithelial dystrophy* of the cornea, in a woman 65 years of age. Her vision had been failing for a year. There was no history of inflammation. She was not engaged in any occupation irritating to her eyes. In each cornea there was an ovoid area 6 x 8 mm. In each the corneal epithelium was cloudy and presented some dart-like elevations. The cloudiness appeared to be due to pinpoint opacities. The small elevations were thought to be due to changes in Bowman's membrane. The cornea was not anesthetic, Wassermann was negative, von Pirquet strongly positive.

Neuropathic Keratitis.—In a paper on febrile herpes of the cornea with malaria based on one case, **Düring** and **Huber** trace this condition to a neuropathic origin. The patient was a soldier who had suffered from pneumonia, and subsequently been exposed to malaria, contracting a tertian fever.

Eczematous Kerato-Conjunctivitis. —**Cridland** reviews the history of this subject. Eczema was found in a large number of cases. He speaks of two types, the torpid and the erethistic. Digestive troubles were found to be extremely frequent. Secondary anemia was not uncommon. Cridland believes that bad housing alone cannot explain the increase in percentages for certain localities, as overcrowding, personal uncleanliness, have but little effect as a causal factor. He believes that proof is almost complete to establish the fact that the phlycten is a manifestation of toxemia arising from a tubercular focus. He expresses the opinion that a number of cases, especially the mild ones, are of gastro-intestinal origin, the exact nature of which is unknown. He points to the possibility of some exciting cause which may be either mechanical, chemical or bacterial. In the treatment of these cases he has words of praise for subconjunctival injections of cyanide of mercury 1-5000. He considers that it is now well established that injections of tuberculin are of great value.

Hird found in a school for the partially blind at Birmingham, that no less than 505 were there because of *phlyctenular keratitis.* He is a strong advocate of the use of tuberculin, and suggests that if milk is the chief source of infection the bovine strain may be the cause, and that in these cases the bovine variety of tuberculin should be given a trial. In 52 per cent of his cases tuberculosis was found elsewhere in the body. Hird suggests that the fifth nerve is hypersensitive to the tubercle toxin and that possibly this explains the common symptom of photophobia and reflex spasm of the lids.

Verheyden thinks that in strumous keratitis tuberculin treatment in small doses is ideal. Where there have been recurrences, repeated injections intensify the benefit of the first. He believes that many cases of scleritis and episcleritis are tuberculous. He points out that before coming to such a conclusion, we must very carefully exclude gout, rheumatism, malaria, syphillis and other infections.

Lloyd reports a case of *corneal ulcer* which may have been caused by the surreptitious use of *cocain.* The drug was

at least responsible for a much delayed healing. He strongly advises against its unnecessary use, both because of its deleterious effect on the eye and also because of the possibility of habit forming.

Keratitis Disciformis.—**Wagner** considers the historical development of our knowledge of keratitis disciformis, a name suggested by Fuchs. He gives a clinical history of sixteen cases treated since 1901. Three typical cases are related which healed in a relatively short time, but with a more or less distinct leucoma. One case was examined histologically. In this there was a large crescentic marginal ulcer which stained with fluorescein. From the hypopyon which formed, cultures gave colonies of staphylococcus pyogenes albus. Wagner concludes that disciform keratitis is characterized by disc-like parts of strongly altered corneal tissue, caused by toxins, produced by microorganisms existing in the epithelium. These were not discovered, but he thinks their presence can be surmised with great probability.

The paper of **Katayama** based upon the observation of 15 cases includes the account of two that were studied histologically. The lymph cell infiltration of the superficial layers of the cornea was grouped about a perforation of Bowman's membrane. Towards the periphery of the disc the infiltration was deeper and thinner.

Zentmayer presented a case of disciform keratitis in a patient fifty-one years of age. The area of infiltration was anesthetic. Tension was minus. Zentmayer was willing to accept the theory of a neuropathic origin, altho he thought the theory of infection was more in harmony with the clinical features and the results of experimental research.

Weeks reviews the characteristics of disciform keratitis, and reports three cases whose ages were respectively, 33, 39 and 18. Two cases were treated with tuberculin with favorable result. Therefore, the writer suggests a possible tuberculous origin, but he states that the etiology is unknown. Anesthesia of the cornea was not present in one case.

In the discussion Green reports a prompt cure following subconjunctival injection of 2 per cent saline solution. Bennett reports very satisfactory results in two cases following thoro cauterization with phenol. Thompson reports a very rapid recovery following the use of the actual cautery.

Mooren's Ulcer.—**Tyrrell** presented a case of Mooren's ulcer of the cornea with extensive denudation. Two cauterizings did not result in healing. He then tried the conjunctival flap method, using purse string sutures. The conjunctiva adhered to the denuded area and the cornea vascularized. Since this did not do well, after a month he united the lids in the center. The cornea cleared a little less than a year later. Tyrrell reports a second case treated in a similar way which showed marked improvement. Final result not determined at the time of report. In discussion, Mr. Lang spoke of the success he had had in corneal ulcer from the use of solid flavin.

Perforation of Cornea. — **Hansell** presented a case of perforated corneal ulcer following gonorrheal ophthalmia. Eight months later the *fistula* still persisted. A Kuhnt keratoconjunctivoplasty promptly restored the anterior chamber. The unique feature of the case was the fact that, altho the anterior chamber was empty and exposed to infection for eight months, infection did not occur, and there was no injury to the tissues posterior to the cornea.

Corneal Suppuration in Exophthalmic Goitre. — **Knapp** contributes an article and reports a case on this subject. Both eyes were involved. The right only could be closed with effort, remaining open at night. The cornea of the left eye was infiltrated with pus and dried out. Vision in this eye equalled 1/2000. It was necessary to eviscerate the left eye. The lids of the right eye were sutured following the suggestion of Priestley Smith. Mattress sutures were used. Cutaneous incisions were made along the margin of the orbit above and below, in order

to relieve the tension of the skin. The conjunctival sac was irrigated daily.

Lid sutures were removed on the fifth day, the lids remaining united. Later the bands uniting the lids were divided and an optical iridectomy performed. The resulting vision was 6/200. Knapp considers that a resection of the superior sympathetic ganglion as suggested by Mayo and others probably offers the most hope and should be performed when the general condition of the patient would warrant. However, he points out that a favorable result following sympathectomy is by no means obtained in all cases.

Keratitis Pustuliformis Profunda.—Under this title **Fuchs** described an unusual form of keratitis characterized by the presence of yellow spots, resembling little pustules, situated in the deeper layers of the cornea, and accompanied by severe iritis with hypopyon. The primary changes to be noted in the cornea are a faint haze composed of deep-seated grey streaks or dots, such as are seen in parenchymatous keratitis, from which the yellow infiltrations developed. When the clinical picture is complete, one sees the yellow spots deeply seated. Occasionally a streak extended downward from the spot, giving the appearance of pus percolating to the posterior surface of the cornea, and adjoining the hypopyon.

Around the yellow spots there usually is a fine gray halo. The surface of the cornea is always dull, its sensibility is often reduced or abolished, but there is never any loss of substance. In the majority of cases, the pus of the hypopyon is sterile. Keratitis punctata may be present. Iritis is usually present, and the author has observed opacities in the vitreous. The course of the disease is always tedious. In exceptional cases the disease runs a mild form without hypopyon. Treatment had scarcely any influence. The disease usually affects elderly males. The question of injury does not enter into the etiology.

Differential diagnosis. The absence of ulceration on the surface of the cornea distinguishes it from the usual ulcerative forms. Disciform keratitis resembles it most closely, but its opacities are gray, not yellow.

Four of the author's cases were examined microscopically. In every case the deepest layers of the cornea showed the greatest changes. The inflammation diminished from behind forwards. The exudation from the anterior chamber was mostly composed of polymorphonuclear cells, always free from bacteria, except one case showed staphylococcus. Histologically the changes in the iris were manifestly of older standing than those in the cornea. Therefore, he regards the iris as the primary seat of the disease, and believes that there is nothing to indicate an exogenous infection. The author regards the etiology as still obscure, and suggests that possibly the causal factor is not always the same.

Pneumococcic Keratitis. — **Dutheil** reports a case which was characterized by the presence of edema of the lids and conjunctiva, false membranes easily removed and quickly reforming, almost complete destruction of both corneas, quick progress of the case, slight temperature, poor condition of the patient, and also complete absence of pain.

Corneal Thermotherapy.—In 1916 **Shahan** made his first experiments on lower animals to determine the effect of high temperatures applied directly to the cornea. He has used his method in the treatment of pneumococcus ulcers of the cornea, both in rabbits and in men. Fifty cases of hypopyon keratitis have been treated. Results were so satisfactory that he considers the method to be very nearly specific. The visual acuity finally attained ranged from perception of light to full normal. (For description of instrument and method of treatment see Y. B., v. 14, p. 8.)

Green reports five cases of pneumococcus ulcer in which he used Shahan's method. The only immediate destructive effect is on the epithelium, which is soon replaced. The beneficial effect of the treatment was shown by the rapid disappearance of the hypopyon, and by the checking of the spread of the ulcer, and by the cessation of pain.

In the application of heat for treatment of corneal ulcer, **Fox** gives priority to Dr. Martinache.

Kellogg reports two cases of corneal ulcer successfully treated by Prince's method of pasteurization.

Serpent Ulcer.—**Bane** presented a case which under the usual treatment continued to persist. He then proceeded to dust directly on the ulcer ethylhydrocuprein hydrochlorid. A marked reaction followed, but the ulcer improved.

Urraca finds the effects of this drug are rapid clearing of the ulcer and relief.

Carreras finds that the pain caused diminishes with successive applications, but it is well to precede the first by use of cocain.

Von Wehde gives the results of his treatment of serpent ulcers with optochin in the clinic at Rostock. A 1 per cent solution instilled six to eight times daily was used. The total number of cases treated is 38. In 31 the ulcer was brought to a standstill, and in seven it was not.

Weaver advocates the use of methylene blue in a case of corneal ulcer. He used one drop of a saturated aqueous solution every fifteen minutes for six instillations. Then the surface of the ulcer was dusted with methylene blue powder and a protective bandage applied. The methylene blue will filter thru into the anterior chamber. He reports beautiful results from this.

Trypanosome Keratitis. — **De Schweinitz** and **Woods** report the results of their experimental studies on dogs using the T. Equiperdum. The organisms were injected intraperitoneally with the blood of white rats infected with such trypanosomes. To infect the dogs, 1 cc. per kilo of body weight of the blood was used. General symptoms appeared after a period of one to two weeks, dogs becoming drowsy and listless, sleeping constantly, localized swelling due to edema appearing over the body. Invasion of the trypanosomes appeared in every fluid of the organism.

The period of incubation was variable. Ocular symptoms appeared between two and eighteen days after the trypanosomes were found in the blood. There were noted two types of ocular lesions. First, simple clouding of the cornea. Second, a severe form with exudations and hemorrhages in the anterior chamber, the cornea becoming opaque. Trypanosomes were found in the aqueous of all eyes showing lesions.

From their experiments the authors concluded that the ocular lesions were not due to a general toxic condition. The development of corneal symptoms were synchronous with the appearance of the organisms in the aqueous. It was shown that anemia bore no relationship to the ocular lesions. The best methods of staining the cornea are discussed.

The authors concluded from their experiments that there is an actual invasion of the tissue by the parasite. Pathologically the corneal lesions are those of an interstitial keratitis.

There was a prompt improvement, if not complete cure, by the proper use of arsenobenzol.

Daniels publishes a list of 44 cases of trypanosome infection occurring in men, which were seen by himself. Of these, 35.7% had eye lesions. Daniels considers the eye lesions as a manifestation of a toxic phenomenon.

Tuberculous Keratitis.—In an eye with keratitis parenchymatosa **Nogawa** found disseminated nodes. Microscopically Bowman's membrane was found displaced, and under it many enlarged cells, in the middle of which a homogeneous spot with typical wandering cells was found. The author considers this form of keratitis parenchymatosa to be tuberculous.

Tooke reports the results of a microscopic study of four cases presenting the lesions of tubercular keratoiritis. Nodules were found at various points in the iris. There were deep corneal infiltrations in two of the eyes. He found corneal ulcer and necrosis. Perivascular tubercle was discovered in one. There were numerous newly formed vessels in the cornea.

McCaw presented a case of a nodule about the size of a bean above the

sclera and extending into the cornea 1 mm. Wassermann negative. After the use of K. I. for two weeks, a second Wassermann was plus two. Under specific treatment, the eye became worse; and a von Pirquet test was made and was strongly positive. The patient was then put under bacillen emulsion. Steady improvement and the disappearance of the nodule followed.

Risley, in discussing the subject of tuberculous keratitis, said that in his experience the tubercular deposits in the cornea were suggestive of uveal involvement, since they usually occur at the angle of the anterior chamber and recover under old tuberculin.

hibited the appearance of interstitial keratitis. These cases run rather the same course as the ordinary ones of interstitial keratitis. The patients were young subjects, all of whom presented the ordinary stigmata of hereditary syphilis.

Sachs reports a case due to hereditary syphilis which he claims was cured within three weeks by the intravenous injection of urotropin, 18 grams in all, in doses of 2 to 3.5 grams dissolved in 10 ccm. of water. The technic was similar to that used for salvarsan injections. **Grignolo** has written on parenchymatous keratitis produced experimentally by the spirocheta pallida with especial regard to the for-

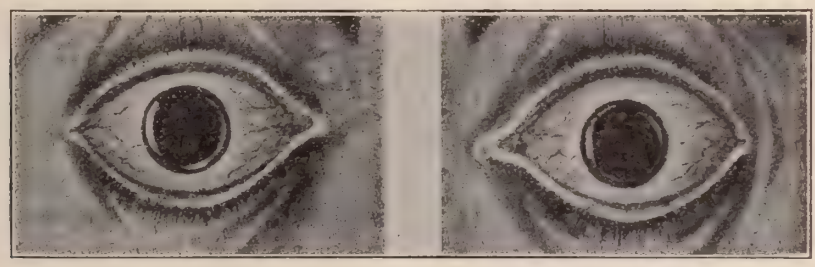


Fig. 1. Basterra's case of embryotoxon.

Corneal Abscess.—**Boyd** presented a case of corneal abscess with hypopyon. Cyanid of mercury was used subconjunctivally. This was followed by wonderful improvement in a week. Another interesting and unusual feature in this case was the deep stain about the margin of the ulcer, due to silvol, which was freely used.

Parenchymatous Keratitis. — **Stevenson** publishes some notes upon a pseudoneoplastic form. The author has met with but few instances of this striking clinical picture which has always been the same. It is briefly described as occupying the position of the salmon patch, being somewhat prominent, fleshy looking mass, and resembling a neoplasm. The cornea adjoining has shown interstitial deposits. In the more advanced cases the cornea not occupied by the growth, has exmation of plasma cells. **Paul** has used infection of the rabbit's cornea as evidence of variola.

Binocular Keratitis Following Uniocular Injury. — Under this title **Coulter** reports that a marine engineer, who was struck in his left eye by a piece of steel, developed six months later, in the other eye, a keratitis resembling the interstitial variety. Finally a central corneal opacity reduced his vision to 1/60. Wassermann was negative. There was no clinical history of syphilis or tuberculosis. He suggests from a study of this case that an ordinary nontraumatic interstitial keratitis may be due to injury to the fellow eye; and that there are analogies between interstitial keratitis and sympathetic inflammation.

They usually occurred at the angle

of the anterior chamber or were found on Descemet's membrane.

Embryotoxon.—**Robinson** reports a case of corneal opacity like arcus senilis, which was apparently congenital. The patient was 56 years of age. She had a daughter 32 years of age who showed the same defect.

Basterra reports a case involving both eyes; in the right, vision of 0.5 was obtained with +2 S. Left, vision 025 with +6 S. Corneal astigmia, R., 1.5; L., impossible to determine. (See illustration, p. 73.)

Corneal Opacity.—**Posey** reported a case of corneal haze in a miner, which he believed was due to the action of currents of air which were laden with small irritating particles of dust. The change in the cornea appeared to be a hyaline one The haze was confined to the pupillary area of both eyes. There was a grayish-white stippling of the anterior layers.

Zentmayer presented a case, 62 years of age, of *zonular opacity* of the cornea. The interesting feature which was that in one eye the opacity was associated with iridocyclitis, secondary glaucoma and blindness, whereas the other eye appeared normal except for the opacity. The process appeared to be a senile dystrophy. **Key** presented a case of ciliary staphyloma in a man 62 years of age, who became almost completely blind. The cornea was infiltrated with calcareous deposits. **Uhthoff** has reported a typical case of bandlike opacity of the cornea.

Zentmayer presented a case in which a horizontal sigmoid opacity 1.5x4 mm. was present in the center of the cornea. This was surrounded by many small round or nearly round dots, one-half mm. in diameter, arranged in a circle around the larger opacity. Remaining spaces and rest of cornea were studded with pin point opacities. Opacities were subepithelial, but in one or two places the epithelium was slightly elevated. The condition was practically the same in each eye. Wassermann was negative by two tests, von Pirquet slightly positive. **MacKellar** has reviewed the indications and contraindications for optical iridectomy. **Onishi** recommends incision in the scleral tissue and separation of the iris by insertion of a spatula between cornea and iris.

Chotzen and **Kuznitzky** report upon experimental work and a clinical experience in the treatment of corneal opacities with ultraviolet light. They noted good effects in three cases of trachoma, but no essential improvement after parenchymatous keratitis. Recurrences left the eyes worse. Similar unfavorable result occurred in sclerosing keratitis with tuberculous origin. **Sulzer** and **Chappé** report a single case of corneal opacity following herpes zoster treated by the X-rays with decided improvement.

Conical Cornea.—**Jackson** reports a case of extreme conical cornea in a male, age 20. The curvature of the central part was fairly spherical and corresponded to 80 D. of refraction. Vision first failed after severe pneumonia when the patient was ten years old.

Amoretti reviews what has been written upon the connection of conical cornea with the internal secretions, and publishes a series of cases that seem to bear upon it. **Stähli** reports a case of conical cornea in which a Fleischer's ring of discoloration was observed, and also epithelial pigmentation in a normal cornea.

Keratoglobus.—**Boas** in a thesis upon megalocornea reports two cases. One was associated with embryotoxon and tremulous iris, but with normal vision. In the other the cornea was entirely clear, but there was a typical glaucomatous excavation of the optic disc. **Marklund** has written upon the heredity of megalocornea.

Keratosis.—A case of keratosis of the cornea with keratosis of the skin in a 19 year old woman is reported by **Matsuoka.** There were many small yellowish spots of keratosis on the skin of the body which were pointed, local epithelial elevations of the derma. She also had tuberculosis of the larynx. The conjunctiva of the globe was injected, and there was a diffuse opacity

of the cornea, varying in thickness but especially marked in the middle and lower portions. It appeared to be whitish and the upper portion was of a silky luster. Only a peripheral portion was examined histologically. It showed undoubted proliferation of the epithelium and enlargement of the papillae.

Staphyloma.—**Fuchs** has recorded with the aid of thirty illustrations and a plate showing histologic changes the anatomic conditions encountered in staphyloma of the cornea, both in the cornea itself and in the other portions of the eye. Congenital staphyloma of the cornea with defect of the posterior surface is the subject of a paper by **von Hippel** who reports four cases.

SCLERA.

Blue Sclerotics.—**Van der Hoeve** demonstrated three members of a family in whom appeared blue scleras, fragile bones, and otosclerosis. De Kleijn (Y. B. V. XIV, p. 53), and the above could establish a family of 22 members in which ten times these conditions were associated with otosclerosis. The eleventh member showed blue sclerotics and otosclerosis, but was free from bone fracture. According to these authors the etiology of otosclerosis is still unknown, and the question is whether the mesodermal tissue, or the nervous tissue is primarily affected, or whether both are dependent on another cause.

Spurway claims that in 1896 he wrote to the British Medical Journal describing the association of fragile bones, blue sclerotics and otosclerosis. The credit is usually given to Eddedoes, who wrote in 1900.

Marconi describes blue sclerotics in a young soldier, who had brittle bones with numerous fractures, and defective development of circulatory apparatus. **Bolton** describes a female infant of sixteen months with mongoloid idiocy and blue sclerotics.

Harvie presents a case of blue sclerotics in a boy five and one-half years of age. He had multiple fracture of the left side. Mother had blue sclerotics and had fractured her humerus in early life. One brother had blue sclerotics and multiple fractures. The other three children are apparently healthy and normal. The bones were soft, easily bent, porous and seemed to lack mineral deposit. The muscles and ligaments showed lack of tonicity, so that the joints had a wide range of motion. **Rothschild** has written an inaugural thesis on the association of the blue sclera and brittle bones.

Scleritis.—**Irwin** presented an unusual case of scleritis, of possible tubercular origin. Wassermann reaction was negative; so also was the von Pirquet.

Stilwill presented a woman aged 52 in whom the scleritis was supposed to be due to tuberculosis. The case being a typical sclerosing keratitis.

A case of circumscribed primary abscess of the sclera is reported by **Menacho.** The patient, a girl of fifteen, gave no history of previous trouble with the eyes, or of any general disease throwing light upon the lesion. In the upper nasal quadrant of the sclera 4 mm. back from the cornea she presented a circular swelling 9 mm. in diameter protruding 5 mm. beyond the general curve of the sclera. The diagnosis lay between cyst and abscess. On opening with a Graefe knife its character was demonstrated. The cavity was found to be 6 or 7 mm. in diameter. A piece of overlying sclera 1 mm. in diameter was excised. The area of hyperemia and swelling somewhat increased afterwards, but the healing was satisfactory, altho increased vascularization could be noted seven months afterward.

Pockley has written a paper on monocular episcleritis.

ANTERIOR CHAMBER AND PUPIL.

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This section reviews the literature for 1918. Its literature frequently overlaps that of the uveal tract.

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DIGEST OF LITERATURE.

DEVELOPMENT OF ANTERIOR CHAMBER—**Speciale-Cirincione** has studied the development of the anterior chamber and especially the development of

the parts limiting the anterior chamber and the iridic angle. The material for his studies consisted of recent human embryos of the second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and ninth months to term. The formation of the anterior chamber was closely connected with the development of the cornea, the ciliary muscle, the tissue of the iridic angle, the iris, and the pupillary membrane. During the first month of embryonic life none of these structures exists. The progressive development of the anterior chamber is traced through the successive months of embryonic life to the last month of fetal life, when it is complete, tho shallow, corresponding to the marked convexity presented by the iridic surface and the crystalline lens. After birth the anterior aspect of the lens becomes flatter while the difference of curvature between the cornea and sclera becomes more pronounced and the anterior chamber becomes deep.

Cyst in Anterior Chamber—An implantation cyst, following an injury of the eye, is described by **Roxburgh.** At the time of injury a prolapse of the iris was removed, and later there was pain and diminished vision, with slight increase in tension. Some iris was adherent to the back part of the cornea, and beneath the cornea was a translucent cyst 4½ mm. wide, which was embedded in the iris.

Hematoidin Crystals in the Anterior Chamber—**Pichler** cites a case which five years ago had a hyphema of 1.5 mm. At the present time the case presents four or five small flaky prismatic crystals with rhombical bases floating in the anterior chamber. The crystals change color in the light. These crystals are seldom found alone, as in this case, but are usually combined with cholesterin crystals.

Instrument for Measuring Depth of Anterior Chamber.—**Raeder** constructed a single tube instrument containing a series of adjustable prisms thru which he can focus on two points, the cornea and iris simultaneously. The depth of the chamber is read off on a scale directly attached to one of the prisms. Accuracy to 1/10 mm. is claimed.

Intraocular Reposition of Iris.—To replace the iris which is occasionally drawn up towards the wound after extraction of soft cataract by a keratome, **Elschnig** introduces a fine needle into the anterior chamber from the side, and divides the tissue on the surface of the contracted part of the iris. If the iris tissue is adherent to the cornea, the point of the needle is inserted into its superficial layer and the iris levered downwards. Eserin is used for the first day and then atropin.

Aqueous Humor.—**Löwenstein** and **Kubik** publish a description of their work in estimating the index of refraction of the aqueous in rabbits, under normal conditions and also after the use of dionin, massage, diathermy, artificially produced hyperemia, subconjunctival injections, intravenous injections of ten per cent sodium chloride and ten per cent dextrose, and removal of vitreous and aqueous. They conclude that the index of refraction of normal aqueous in rabbits, at a temperature of 17.5° C. is between 1.335385 and 1.335418; prolonged instillation of cocain has no effect upon it; a brief forward luxation of the globe is also without influence. Introduction of powdered dionin raises the refractive index; subconjunctival injection of equimolecular solutions of about equal dissociation alter the refractive index to an equal extent, and the effect differs in duration. Subconjunctival injection of physiologic salt solution, and of distilled water, causes a great rise in refractive index. Massage of the globe does not lower tension but leads to marked rise in the refractive index; superficial traumata produce no effect on the refractive index. Hot fomentations have a very great effect; diathermy yielded results of considerable duration; congestive hyperemia produces a rise in the index. Intravenous injections of ten per cent dextrose leads to no increase, nor does injection of distilled water, normal rabbit serum, diabetic serum, and coma serum. Alterations in blood pressure have no determinable effect; loss of vitreous to the

extent of 1.2 c. cm. produces a rise in the index, still apparent eight days later. The aqueous of the dead rabbit has a refractive index of 1.

Kahn found that the pressure necessary to cause fluids to flow from the posterior to the anterior chamber in rabbits and cats was 30 mm. above the normal pressure, in rabbits' eyes, and 50 mm. in cats' eyes. He stimulated the severed end of the cervical sympathetic causing a dilatation of the pupil, which caused a more rapid flow in the rabbit, while in the cat the flow was retarded. This he explains on an anatomic basis, due to the difference in relationship of the lens to the iris in these animals; and concludes from his irrigation experiments that there is no normal physiologic pupillary closure, and the stimulation of the cervical sympathetic causes a change in the degree of this closure.

Magitot deals fully with the various phases of the literature and his own personal investigations and experiments in regard to the origin of the aqueous humor; and concludes that the primary aqueous is a true secretion, formed in man from the third to the fifth month of fetal life, and has a triple role, optic and static, neuroprotector, and lens conserving. The normal aqueous resembles the cerebro-spinal fluid, is hypertonic, and although unable to nourish the nerve cells, it constitutes an excellent medium for the conservation of energy. He finds that the aqueous is stagnant, not animated by any current, but probably subject to slow absorption, being replaced by the neuroglial cells. Aqueous lost by tapping is replaced by serum, transuded from the capillaries, added to a certain quantity of normal aqueous expressed by the meshwork of the vitreous; and this serum is slowly eliminated in proportion as the neuroglial dialysis reconstructs a normal aqueous.

Seto, in an exhaustive article to be completed in a future publication, shows the rapidity and amount of resorption into the aqueous of fluorescein dropped into the conjunctival sac, the amount absorbed into the aqueous being determined by the calorimeter. He first used fluorescein and sodium bicarbonate, and found that it caused abrasions of the cornea in one or several places. He then used fluorescein and potassium and obtained no corneal abrasions. The aqueous was removed at the end of 20 to 30 minutes and the amount of fluorescein determined. The same experiments were repeated after making corneal abrasions and incisions into the corneal substance.

Kumagai studied the effects of eserin, pilocarpin, and adrenalin on intraocular pressure and the amount of albumin in the aqueous. The albumin content of the aqueous of a normal rabbit was .02 to .04 per cent, and intraocular pressure was 17 to 24 mm. Hg. Under the influence of eserin the albumin content was increased to .08 to .15 per cent, the increase beginning from 20 to 25 minutes after the instillation of eserin; and reaching its maximum in one-half to one hour, after which it gradually receded until about five hours after the beginning of the experiment when it became normal.

The intraocular pressure was increased, within 15 to 30 minutes, amounting to 4 to 6 mm. The pressure then rapidly receded to 3 to 4 mm. below normal. The cause of the increased pressure and albumin content of the aqueous, the author believes, is due to the fact that the pupil is contracted, thus stretching the tissues of the iris, while the subsequent decrease in pressure is due to change at the angle between the anterior and posterior chambers. Pilocarpin has much the same action upon the intraocular pressure and albumin content as eserin, except less pronounced.

Subconjunctival injections of adrenalin caused the albumin content to increase .09 per cent, the intraocular pressure at first increasing then decreasing until at the end of one hour it was 3 to 4 mm. below normal. Mere instillation of adrenalin in the conjunctival sac did not affect either the intraocular pressure or the albumin content of the aqueous.

The author belives that the principal source of the aqueous is the iris, because fluorescein injected intravenous-

ly is secreted only in the anterior chamber. This is also the case in an eserinized eye.

Secondary Pupil.—**Giri** reported a case in a female aged 23, R. E. pupil is excentric and smaller than the left, almond shaped, with its long axis extending up and in a down and out somewhat above and more to the nasal side than usual. A pigmented dot, almost in line with the pupil and 1 mm. external to it is seen. Under strong magnification in the dark room, and with good illumination, the pigmented spot was seen to expand and contract with the dilatation and contraction of the pupil. With a mydriatic the spot presented a circular lumen of 1.5 mm. thru which a secondary reflex was obtained. The aperture has a pigment border like the normal pupil and a suggestion of a sphincter-like arrangement of fibres around it. He believes that this opening has the same structure as the normal pupil.

Pflügk observed that excentric shifting of the pupils during the act of accommodation from the center of the cornea is not rare in animals, and in a considerable number of species the day pupil is displaced from the centre. In the dark, with maximum dilatation, most vertebrate animals have a round pupil.

In man, the pupil is not in the center in the majority of cases, and in the accommodative adaptation the pupil shifts, as a rule, toward the nasal side. A strongly excentrically placed day pupil can, with maximum mydriasis, become nearly concentrically round, corresponding to a circle slightly smaller than the cornea. As a rule, the nasal side of the iris in the day pupil is intrinsically narrower than the temporal side, and in resuming the original shape after coming out of the mydriatic, the nasal and temporal sides do not expand equally.

Mydriasis.—**Leahy** has shown that, in some cases of chronic alcoholism and the various types of alcoholic psychoses, there is temporaily a definite absence, sluggishness, or limitation of pupillary reaction. The pupils are often widely dilated and then show an absence of light reaction; or the pupils may be moderately dilated, but with a definite limitation of range and sluggishness of reaction. He is unable to explain this temporary loss or limitation of pupillary reaction observed in the alcoholic group.

Ravenswaaij has noticed a reflex transient dilatation of the pupil which can be utilized to detect malingerers among men claiming to be totally deaf. The man is placed in a strong light, told to look at a distant object, and then a third person, several yards distant, calls out a few words in a loud voice, with an interval between each word. The pupils dilate at each word but return almost at once to their former size.

Tuckett believes that iron salts injure the endings of the third nerve in the iris rather than stimulate those of the sympathetic, and that the dilatation is due to the prevention of constrictor impulses reaching the iris through the third nerve. He has found that the sympathetic nerve endings are injured by iron salts as much as those of the third nerve; and that the dilatator pupillae loses its function and is slower in regaining it than the constrictor pupillae. He cites a case of penetrating injury of the eye which showed the toxic effect of iron salts on the neuromuscular mechanism of the pupil, viz.: marked degeneration or injury of function of both the sympathetic and third nerve fibres ending in the iris, and it also showed recovery of function of the third nerve fibres before those of the sympathetic.

Verhoeff, referring to Tuckett's publication, repeats his assertion made a number of years ago that the cells of the dilatator and constrictor muscles become densely packed with iron pigment in cases of siderosis bulbi, due to the marked affinity for iron of these muscles and that this accounts for the impaired motility of the iris, and that it is not due to selective action on the nerve terminals.

Miosis.—**Curdy** shows that eserin can produce contraction of the pupil and reduction in tension in iridectomized eyes; and that miotics also pro-

duce other characteristic symptoms in such eyes, such as spasmodic pains and spasm of accommodation, due to the action of the drug on the ciliary body.

Anisocoria.—To determine the frequency and diagnostic value of inequality of the pupils, **Tarun** has studied several thousand eye cases. For the determination of the pupillary reactions a concave mirror was used; and a plane mirror, at a distance of one meter, for inequality of the pupils. A constant source of light and a uniformly dark room were used. The cases were divided into five groups as follows: First, refraction cases; second, active intraocular lesions (exclusive of diseases of the anterior pole of the eyeball, glaucoma, etc.); third, lesions of the optic nerve; fourth, paralysis of the motor nerves and Argyll-Robertson pupil; fifth, reflex conditions producing irritation of the trigeminus.

Of 2,913 cases in the first group, 19.7 per cent were anisocoric. In the second group there were 63 cases, and 33.3 per cent had unequal pupils. In the third group of 51 cases, there were 35.3 per cent anisocorias. In the fourth group of 30 cases of ocular muscle paralyses there were 40 per cent of anisocorias, and of 43 cases of Argyll-Robertson pupil, aniscoria was present in 70 per cent. He believes that inequality of the pupils is of little value when the pupils are active to light, when there is a slight difference in size, and in some cases when even a marked difference exists. That it is of the utmost value in determining the location of the lesion of the cerebrospinal axis when there is slight difference in size plus inactivity to light, directly or consensually. That it is of value at times when one or both are not uniformly round and sluggishly active.

Lutz, discussing the loss of hereditary correlation between the two halves of the body, the pair organs, and especially the eyes, believes that aniscoria may, in rare cases, be based on unilateral inheritance, but believes that a physiologic inequality of the pupils can only be accepted when we are able to prove that all parts of the pupillary reflex way are intact and that at the present time this can not be done with certainty.

Fomaget C. and **H.**, report eight cases of functional inequality of the pupils associated with strabismus, A. J. O. v. 2 and in some cases with nystagmus; and conclude that there is a functional anisocoria which is distinct from the organic; and it is due to a dynamic disturbance of the regulatory center and does not affect the voluntary or reflex movements of the iris.

Roche gives the histories of nine cases of inequality of the pupils in which the macular or paramacular region was involved. Some were of a traumatic nature and others of unknown etiology. Cocain mydriasis and pilocarpin miosis did not alter the relative size of the pupils; but eserin produced such a maximum miosis that no difference between the size of the pupils could be observed. The larger pupil was always in the eye showing the macular or paramacular changes, irrespective of the total amount of disease present in the two eyes or the relative amount of vision present. Pupillary reflexes were very active when the sound eye was illuminated. The mydriasis was probably due to a hypertonus of the dilator caused by direct excitation of the sympathetic fibres by the lesion in the posterior pole. In two of the cases the inequality of the pupils disappeared, showing it was due to an irritation and not to a paralysis.

Mayou mentions a case of inequality of the pupils which was noticed shortly after the birth of the child. The right pupil was smaller than the left, did not dilate fully, was not dilated by cocain, but reacted to light. There was also slight drooping of the right eyelid with some diminution of lacrimal secretion and sweating on the right side of the head, together with slight enophthalmos. This was the third case of this kind that has come under his observation and all had followed prolonged labor with the use of instruments.

(Continued next month)

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

ANTERIOR CHAMBER AND PUPIL.

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MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

(Continued from the April issue.)

ARGYLL-ROBERTSON PUPIL.—**Bollack** cites a case illustrating the Argyll-Robertson pupil following an injury to the eye. There was complete paralytic mydriasis and paralysis of accommodation following the injury. Two months later there was contraction of the pupil, no response to light stimulus, but response to convergence. Atropin caused maximum dilatation. Two months after that there was a slight response to light. He cautions against concluding that the Argyll-Robertson pupil always indicates a central nervous lesion.

A case of unilateral Argyll-Robertson pupil is also reported by **Lutz** who states that only five cases of unilateral immobility to light, with conservation of consensual reaction in both eyes, have been reported. He discusses the Argyll-Robertson pupil in the light of our present knowledge and states that these unilateral cases are mostly precursers of general paralysis and emphasizes the importance of a careful examination of the light reflex in every case of anisocoria. He also discusses the different theories which tend to fix precisely the situation of the anatomic lesion and believes that, to explain the Argyll-Robertson phenomenon, we must not look for the lesion in the spinal cord, nor in the ciliary ganglion, but in the region of the photomotor center.

Dunn disagrees with Lutz as to the location of the lesion, believing that it can be situated nowhere else than in the ciliary ganglion and can be caused only by microorganisms or their products which shut off, in the ciliary ganglion, the sensoromotor and sensorosympathetic connections. He reports cases to further accentuate the fact that the primary pupillary response to light is an autonomic reflex, and as such belongs to the vegetative system, and further is mediated thru the ciliary ganglion; to call attention to what constitutes the true Argyll-Robertson phenomenon; and to explain how and why the array of symptoms constituting the uncomplicated Argyll-Robertson syndrome vary from case to case and in the same case at different stages of its history. Dunn also states that when the pupils do not respond to light, either directly or consensually, and do respond in convergence, it does not necessarily make the case one of Argyll-Robertson pupil. The true Argyll-Robertson pupil, free from complications and before degenerative changes affecting either the retina or the motor fibres in the ciliary ganglion set in, gives the above syndrome plus the fact that the pupils are contracted.

Uribe-Troncoso describes a case of unilateral Argyll-Robertson pupil and believes the pathologic lesion to be a breaking of the reflex path between the nucleus of the oculomotor nerve and the anterior corpora quadrigemina.

Brav, Fry, and **Lamb** call attention to the importance of pupillary reactions of eye in general examinations of patients.

THE UVEAL TRACT

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This section reviews the literature for 1918. Sympathetic disease is considered separately in the next section. Many uveal diseases are included among the ocular lesions of general diseases, and are referred to under that heading. For previous literature see A. J. O., Vol. I March and April, Digest of the Literature, pp. 57 and 65.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

ANATOMY. EMBRYOLOGY AND PHYSIOLOGY. **Nicolai** spoke on the *dilatator pupillae* with demonstration of the fibers believed to exercise such a function. He seriously doubts the muscular nature of the membrane of Henle, on account of the dubious staining by methods recommended for muscular tissue. He accepts that as a rule tonic tension of the antagonistic occurs during contraction of a muscle, and that also an innervation of the dilatator occurs during contraction of the sphincter.

In 1895 Axenfeld described occasional lemniscus, i. e., loop formations, in the anterior portion of the ciliary nerves thru the sclera to its exterior surface. Further such observations were made by Groenouw, Meller and Fritz. **Fuchs** found them accidentally in eyes which were examined for other purposes, 13 in all, and considers their occurrence as rare. Never more than one loop was seen in one eye, excepting one case which showed two. They are not confined to a certain side, but are most frequent at the lower side, in the anterior segment, only three times in the posterior segment. In two cases the loop extended only thru the inner two-thirds of the sclera, in eleven it pierced the sclera completely and its apex lay free in the episcleral, respectively orbital, tissue. The shape of the loop was different. In three cases it represented a simple bend with slight thickening; in nine cases with such thickening that it protruded like a mushroom, sections of which showed a splitting of the nerve into bundles. At the vortex the neurilemma was thickened, while the sides were covered with very thin neurilemma lying immediately on the wall of the scleral canal. If, as frequently happened, the nerve was accompanied by blood vessels, loose connective tissue was found between it and sclera. Arteries and veins were encountered between loop and sclera and between the ends of the loop. In two cases the artery was a ciliary artery going from outside toward the interior. In all cases the vessel was much thinner than the nerve so that the vessel could not have caused the deviation of the nerve.

Fuchs examined the large collection of Dr. Hochstetter of specimens of human embryos, without attaining a clue for the mechanic etiology of the loops, against which speak also the partition of the nerve into single bundles and their circumvolution in neuromalike nodules. The loops can only be explained by an abnormal tendency of growth. The nerve grows more than the sclera and neutralizes the greater length by a duplication which goes to the side of greatest resistance in the sclera. It is the consequence of a germ variation, the ultimate cause of which probably will remain unexplorable. Fuchs refers to a similar, mechanically not explainable, abnormal growth of nerve fibers in the optic nerve which drift into the sheathes where they are lost. In some cases a conic process arises from the anterior border of the chiasm, which consists of nerve fibers forming loops, an exaggeration of the normal S shaped bend of the nerve fibers in the anterior portion of the chiasm.

Mazzei found from experiments on dogs that *spermin* is an active *myotic*. He injected the extract directly into the anterior chamber, and found that when 0.4 cc. was used, myosis was obtained in ten minutes. With 0.2 cc. of the extract of spermin injected into the anterior chamber myosis was obtained in 13 minutes, and then after the injection of 0.3 cc. of a 1 per cent solution of atrópin into the anterior chamber of the same eye mydriasis occurred in fourteen minutes. He concludes that spermin has a definite myotic effect on the eyes of dogs. That its action is retarded materially by the mydriatic effect of atropin, when both are used together. That in his experiments the action of atropin solution injected directly into the anterior chamber took from one to two minutes to produce mydriasis instead of from seven to fourteen.

With the Nernst lamp and the corneal microscope **Koeppe** made many interesting observations. He used the No. 3 objective with 4 and 5 oculars, which enlarged the structures under observation 65 to 86 times. Augstein's observation that the pupillary border is more strongly developed upward and outward in the right eye and upward and inward in the left eye, and that it diminishes downward and inward in the right eye and downward and outward in the left was not substantiated. Hohman's findings that the pigmented border of the pupil shows normally a variety in development was confirmed, but Axenfeld's hypothesis that there is some connection between the depigmentation seen in old age and cataract

formation could not be substantiated. That the depigmentation of the pupillary border occurs practically only in light irides and cannot be readily demonstrated in the darker types was proven in a portion of the cases examined.

Examination of the *glands* in this region leads the author, contrary to Schieck and Alt, to the conclusion that pigment epithelium plays no genetic rôle in their formation, and yet the presence of epithelial elements in such proximity to the structures mentioned certainly speaks for a causal significance of these elements.

ANOMALIES. — PIGMENTATION.—In a boy, aged 7 years, observed by **Hudson**, a portion of the lower quadrant of the left iris, comprising about one-half of its extent, exhibited uniform dark brown pigmentation, with nodular prominences systematically distributed over its surface, the condition being similar to that described by Coats in the Transactions of the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom, vol. xxxii, p. 165. The uveal fringe of the corresponding pupillary margin was somewhat hypertrophied, but the eye showed no other pigment anomaly. At the posterior border of the margin of the lower lid was a small pigmented swelling of nevoid character, and there were numerous small pigmented nevi in the skin of the face. The eye was amblyopic from squint.

HETEROCHROMIA.—**Fuchs** corrects and supplements his former investigations by the anatomic examination of three eyes with heterochromia. From this he abandons his former view of the metamorphosis of the tissue of the iris, which even after longer duration of the disease retains its normal structure. The pigmentation of the iris in both cases was the same as that of normal little-pigmented eyes, and a later destruction of pigment does not come in question, because the few pigmented chromatophores were normal. There were no evidences that the iris had formerly been more pigmented and had lost its pigment by pathologic processes (inflammation, increased tension), i. e., no remnants of destroyed chromatophores, as irregular lumps or free pigment granules. Thus the principal question, whether the lighter color of the iris in heterochromia is the consequence of inflammatory changes (Weill), or, as Fuchs assumed, precedes them, is decided in favor of the latter view. A still unknown morbid cause exerts, in earliest infancy or even during intrauterine life, an inhibitory influence on the development of the mesodermal pigment of the iris; and in some of these cases, produces at a later stage a lingering inflammation. The presence of congenital anomalies in both his cases, as in those of others, speaks for such an early morbid cause.

The ectodermal pigment develops at another time from the mesodermal, is of different chemical nature and is in its development influenced by other factors than the mesodermal pigment. The cause which underlies heterochromia apparently acts only upon the development of the mesodermal pigment; the ectodermal pigment in the lighter eye is just as dark as in the darker eye. Besides the changes of the stroma pigment the heterochromia is characterized by the chronic inflammation and opacity of the lens. The inflammation consists in a slight diffuse infiltration of the uvea with lymphocytes, plasma cells, few eosinophiles, and mast cells. On the surface the inflammatory changes are two-fold: Precipitates are formed by cells emanating from the uvea and conglomerating. Thru proliferation of the epithelium of the ciliary body accumulations occur on it, like in other cases of chronic iridocyclitis. There is no tendency to plastic exudation, posterior synechiae, and pupillary membrane. Anatomically the inflammation extends to the choroid and retina, which may not be apparent clinically. The inflammation lasts in the same manner for many years, without leading to deeper changes of the uvea as otherwise in chronic iritis.

Vision generally is not more impaired than corresponding to the opacities of the media. Opacity of the lens occurs in many, but by no means in all cases of heterochromia. As the lens often remains clear in more severe

changes of the uvea, it cannot be attributed merely to so slight an inflammation of the uvea. It must be assumed that in heterochromia either a cause exists which is especially deleterious to the lens, or that in cases in which cataract develops a disturbance of development of the lens prevails from the start which predisposes to the later opacity. For this speaks the occurrence of cataract in young persons; and, if found in older ones, that it has no hard nucleus, showing that the physiologic sclerosis of the central parts of the lens did not take place.

v. Herrenschwand reports the clinical histories of 15 cases of heterochromia of the iris, of the type first described in 1902 by Fuchs. The age fluctuated between 10 and 54 years, with predominance of males, as emphasized by Fuchs. Heterochromia with cyclitis occurred in one case, cataract and cyclitis in the lighter eye in nine, heterochromia and cataract in five, fine opacities of the vitreous in three, in one of these opacities like dust in both eyes, in the darker eye with otherwise normal conditions, in the lighter eye with precipitation and cataract. In four cases the pupil of the lighter eye was larger. Of congenital changes were found: Coloboma of the optic nerve with amblyopia, once opaque nerve fibers with amblyopia, once opacities and pigment dots on the anterior capsule as remnants of pupillary membranes in both eyes. In none had the lighter eye gradually become discolored in the course of years.

Entirely different from this kind of heterochromia with cyclitis and cataract is the heterochromia without these complications, characterized by more or less marked paresis of the sympathetic nerve on the side of the lighter eye. This is rather frequent in the Tyrol, and the author reports 13 cases, which he observed only incidentally, as none showed a functional disturbance of the lighter eye. In 11 there was an externally visible struma, the existence of which could not be excluded in two cases, as not the magnitude but the manner of its extent determines the nocuous influence upon the surroundings. All showed narrow palpebral fissure and pupil, slight enophthalmus, injection of the conjunctival vessels, slight hypotony.

While in heterochromia of Fuchs the iris has, from diminished pigmentation, a soft, dull aspect and less marked relief of the anterior surface, in the second group the lighter iris shows the same structure as the other, and the heterochromia is due to defective or lacking development of the anterior border layer. Since most pareses of the sympathetic nerve occur without lighter color of the iris, they only can have an influence on the color of the iris if they set in, at, or before the time of the development of the anterior border layer and its pigment, i. e., in the very first time of life. In heterochromia with paresis of the sympathetic nerve there certainly is a lesser quantity of pigment in the lighter eye than in the darker, on account of the absence of an otherwise most-pigmented layer. If in spite of this no complications arise, as in the first kind, v. Herrenschwand concludes that diminished content of pigment by itself is not the cause of the complications.

Aniridia.—**Markel** presented a girl, aged 15, with complete bilateral aniridia, convergent strabismus, fine, rapid lateral nystagmus, slight photophobia. The ophthalmoscope showed irregular spokes and dot-like opacities (a lamellar cataract). She attended school and advanced each year with her class, but stopped last year in the sixth grade, because of vision becoming too poor. She was advised to continue her studies at the institution of the blind. In the discussion Heckel thought that, since the sight had been better, needling of the cloudy lenses might be helpful.

Coloboma.—**Loeb** examined a nurse with bilateral atypical coloboma of the iris, and normal fundus. The right eye was almost amaurotic, owing to a high degree of myopic astigmatism, while the vision of the left eye was quite good after correction of a small amount of myopic astigmatism. The patient assured the author that wherever the anomaly had appeared in her family,

it had partaken of the same character as in her eyes, namely, bilateral, upwards, and more pronounced on the right than on the left. In this family were instances of both direct and indirect heredity, running thru five generations. Counting each affected parent and his children, whether affected or not, as a separate family, there were seven families containing 20 children, of whom 10 or 50 per cent were affected. There were two families in which the parents were not affected and the children were likewise normal. Finally, there was a case of indirect heredity of one child thru an unaffected mother. If the present number of families and children was added to the previous statistics, there were 76 families with a total of 206 children, of whom 70 per cent were affected.

Shannon reports two cases of congenital coloboma of iris and choroid. The right eye of Emma T., aged 7, was smaller and presented a coloboma down and in, reaching to periphery of cornea, and an extensive oval coloboma, involving the retina, choroid and optic nerve, the long axis vertical. The papilla was enlarged several times and so altered in appearance that its exact location was in question. The border of the coloboma was clearly defined and pigmented. In the left eye the coloboma of the iris had the same aspect, the coloboma of the choroid was narrower, and its posterior edge reached only to the lower margin of the normal papilla. V. R. fingers at 6 feet. L. 20/30. Both eyes of her sister, Ella T., aged 8, simulated very closely the abnormalities of her right eye. V. = 1/10 in each. Convergent strabismus.

The family history was interesting. The examination of the father, Charles T., revealed right eye normal, V. = 20/30, left eye convergent 40 degrees, of normal size, partial coloboma of iris below and inward, typical glistening white oval coloboma of choroid, involving very slightly the lower border of the normal papilla. Corresponding defect of the visual field for white and colors. Charles T. had five children, all girls, in four of whom the eyes were affected: Mary, aged 6, had R. keyhole coloboma of iris to corneal margin; extensive coloboma of choroid, involving the entire papilla and extending to periphery of fundus. V. R. fingers at 3½ feet. No squint. L. V. 20/30. Coloboma of iris similar to that in right eye, and choroidal coloboma to lower margin of papilla. Hazel, aged 4, V. 20/30 in both eyes. R. narrow bridge of healthy iris tissue stretching across lower third of coloboma which was of the keyhole type and complete, pointing directly downwards. Left: Complete pear-shaped coloboma of iris, directly downward. Large coloboma of choroid to about one-half disc width below papilla in both. The fifth child, aged 15 months, had no other defects.

The sister of the father had normal eyes, the second of her two children, aged 7 months, had bilateral microphthalmus and coloboma of iris and choroid, involving the papilla in both eyes. One of the three brothers of Charles, aged 42, had incomplete coloboma of left iris. A posterior polar cataract prevented any view of fundus. The author desires to corroborate by these cases the contention of de Beck, Arlt, and others, that hereditary influence is a predominant factor in many cases of iris coloboma.

Howard gives a detailed histologic description of the eye of a girl, aged 5 weeks, showing multiple *congenital abnormalities.* The interesting features were: The presence of rod and spindle-shaped as well as round granules in the pigment layer of the ciliary body and iris, indicating that the presence of the elongated form is not, as is generally supposed, a distinguishing feature of the pigment epithelium of the choroid alone. The same condition is found without exception in the eyes of many other cases, including embryos of all ages, children, and adults. A fibrous connective-tissue tumor of the pectinate ligament on the nasal side and absence of Schlemm's canal on the temporal side. Persistent pupillary membrane, with annular posterior synechia and entropium uveae, noninflammatory origin. Processes with zonular

fibers from the posterior surface of the iris.

Marin reported a case of congenital *polycoria* of both eyes. There were three pupils in the iris of the left eye, and the normal pupil was decentered upward and nasally and was elliptical in shape. The other two occupied the lower temporal margin with only a fine strand of iris separating them. The right iris had five pupils. The normal pupil was in its proper position, and another irregular pupil, 4 mm. in diameter, was located on the external margin. The other three were situated in the superior portion and only separated by a fine membrane. They were about one mm. in diameter, and were best seen with oblique illumination. The fine strands separating the pupils were not provided with epithelium.

Other congenital anomalies were present in both eyes. In the left he found myopia, disseminated choroiditis and some myelin fibers on the inferior portion of the disc, and the right had a cataractous membrane. The boy's mother and father were first cousins, and all of the family of eight children showed some evidences of congenital anomalies due to heredity, the result of *consanguinity*.

Meller removed two hydrophthalmic eyes from an infant seven days old, after its death, and examined them histologically. The left cornea was enlarged, and Descemet's membrane was ruptured, due to an extension and swelling of the cornea. There were no changes in the cornea of the right eye. The iris of both eyes showed developmental defects in the meso- and ectodermal tissues. There was extraordinary thinning, especially at the root of the iris, and complete absence of crypts. Partial coloboma, inversion of the surface ectoderm, and irregular pigmentation of the inner surface were also found. The iris angle was rather sharp. Schlemm's canal was present, but of variable width and in a relatively backward position. The ligamentum pectinatum was in its fetal state of development. There was a subluxation of the lens. The optic nerve was atrophied, dependent upon central brain changes, and the lamina cribrosa bulged forward.

He calls attention to the various theories which have been expounded as to causes of this disease; and subdivides hydrophthalmus into two classes, the first, due to a developmental defect which appears at birth, called primary hydrophthalmus, and a second, to a pathologic process which interferes with the filtration process during childhood, called secondary hydrophthalmus. The two forms are often impossible to differentiate clinically. The author states that in many cases the supposed hydrophthalmos is only an atrophy, especially of the choroid, particularly where the process is associated with a long standing ocular disturbance.

Uveitis.—Etiology and Pathogenesis.—**De Schweinitz** in his clinical lecture, and **Jackson** in his address, give splendid synopses on the etiology of uveitis; with special reference to focal infections, with illustrative cases. Both emphasize the notable advance of our knowledge within the last four years, which throws an entirely new light on this subject, especially by the elaborate investigations of Brown and Irons (Y. B., v. 13, p. 130, et seq.) Rheumatic iritis has disappeared from our classification of iritis and chronic rheumatism has given way to focal infection. The patient gets an inflammation of the uveal tract, not because he has rheumatism in the strict sense of the term, but because his uveitis is a manifestation of toxemia coming from the infection of which he is the subject; and his muscle, joint, and fibrous pains and lesions are other manifestations of the same cause. It is probable that almost every case of inflammation of the uveal tract is of septic origin, which may be exogenous or endogenous. Sometimes the uveal tract is involved in an inflammation which in all probability is nonbacterial in origin; and de Schweinitz considers it reasonable to believe that iridocyclitis, which is frequently present in the subjects of gout, is caused by, or at least associated with, the defective nitrogen

metabolism which underlies gout; and that there is a similar connection between iridocyclitis and diabetes.

Byers quoted 25 cases particularly to show that an investigation into the causes underlying inflammations of the uveal tract resolves itself into a search for: (a) Some systemic disorder of which the ocular disturbance is an expression (more especially syphilis and tuberculosis); or (b) Some focus or foci of infection originating the uveitis by way of metastasis. De Schweinitz expresses the same thought by saying that e.g. a syphilitic subject may develop a uveitis from a septic area which is itself nonsyphilitic; and conversely that, in the presence of an evident and active focal infection, the examinations must include those which shall determine whether the patient is the subject of a general infection. If, altho an area of focal infection is found, its removal is not followed by a subsidence of the uveal disease, one must not be content to end the examination with the discovery of a septic area, as there may be more than one infection.

Pyorrhea or *tooth abscesses* and *diseased tonsils* play the etiologic rôle in the cases of **Bell, Loeb, Spencer, Holland, Hubbard, Byers, Cullom, Shoemaker, Harrison, de Schweinitz, Brown, Osborne, Westfall** and **Jackson.** In **Fahmy's** experience the cases of severe iritis after cataract extraction occur in those with septic lesions of the mouth.

Wirtz reports his observations within the last seven years, on diseases of the eye due to affections of the teeth. First he discusses the anatomic relations of the teeth and the eye and its surroundings, which in various fashion make a propagation of dental affections to the visual organ possible; e.g. by the periosteum and the bone, thru osseous canaliculi extending from the canine and premolar teeth in the superior maxilla, to the lacrimal sinus and the inferior orbital margin. The most important part is attributed to the veins, especially the venous plexus of both organs which partly have the same outflows, viz., the pterygoid plexus and the anterior facial vein. This, with the ophthalmo-facial vein, connects the venous plexus of the orbit with the numerous outlets of the teeth.

After describing the resulting affections of the lids, the orbital margins, and the orbit, he illustrates the most frequent intraocular affections of dental origin, viz., those of the uvea, by interesting cases of acute and subacute iridocyclitis, chronic iritis, exudative central choroiditis with optic neuritis, phlebitis of the retina, parenchymatous keratitis and marginal keratitis. The removal of the pathologic processes at the dental roots at once changed the aspect of the acute ocular diseases, which before that did not yield to any treatment, so favorably, that all cases were permanently cured within from 8 to 12 days.

Wirtz distinguishes two types of immediate dental inflammations of the uvea: 1. Acute iritis with participation of the ciliary body and intense exudations into the refracting media. They set in suddenly and, in a few days, reduce vision to perception of light. The usual palliative treatment has no influence upon the course of the disease. 2. Chronic iritis, which generally is confined to the iris and shows little tendency to exudations, so that after persistence for many years the refracting media are scarcely clouded and vision is not much impaired. Its course is characterized by the large number of relapses, that usually heal after palliative treatment.

The etiologic dental affections in both types show great differences, and seem to produce the variations of the clinical aspect and course of the eye diseases, which undoubtedly are infectious, elicited by bacteria originating in the dental foci. The patients with chronic relapsing iritis belonged to circles in which a regular mouth hygiene is the rule. Their teeth had been taken care of and, when diseased, had been treated. They did not know that they had a dental affection until revealed by Roentgen rays.

The mouth conditions of the patients with acute iritis were very bad, their teeth decayed, periodically painful and filled with remnants of decomposed

food. Wirtz therefore assumes that in these cases very virulent pathogenic germs were conveyed to the eye in great abundance, in those of chronic iritis weakened germs in smaller number. That these with apparently good teeth had enough virulent material for affecting a distant organ, the author ascribed to special conditions, the most important of which is the manner of conservative dentistry. The teeth with diseased roots were rendered painless, treated antiseptically and closed air tight.

It is not always possible with our modern methods to destroy the pathogenic germs, and if in such a case the tooth is sealed, the growth of the anaerobic germs is promoted and they are impeded in their usual development to the outside, so that the arising gases and inflammatory products escape to the bone, may reach the efferent bloodvessels and thus be conveyed to the eye. In several of his cases gold crowns on diseased teeth, attached artificial teeth irritating the root and ill-fitting prostheses favored the extension of the infectious dental disease.

The fact that those parts of the eye, which have especially large connections with the venous plexus, viz., iris, choroid, and optic nerve, become predominantly affected, speaks, according to Wirtz, for the propagation in the veins.

Since the establishment of a dental department at the Herman Knapp Memorial Eye Hospital two years ago the investigation of dental infection has received particular attention and the report of **Steinbugler** represents the work of the first year and a half, carried on in collaboration with Dr. Joseph M. Levy, who performed the dental work, and Dr. Marshall Carleton Pease, Jr., who performed the bacteriologic work. In all fifty-three cases were examined, the diagnosis of these cases being as follows: Acute iritis and iridocyclitis, 13; acute and chronic choroiditis, 10; chronic iridocyclitis, 9; postoperative iritis, 4; detachment of retina, 4; episcleritis, 2; dendritic keratitis, 2; and one case each of chorioretinitis, chronic cyclitis, iridochoroiditis, interstitial keratitis (nonspecific), vesicular keratitis, keratoiritis, retrobulbar neuritis, retinal hemorrhage, and ulcer of the cornea.

In examining this series of cases, fifty-two of the fifty-three patients showed dental infection on the same side as the affected eye. This would lead to the belief that infection does not occur thru the blood stream, as if this were so it would seem that more cases in which dental infection was present on the opposite side to the affected eye would have been noted. In view of this observation it is a logical conclusion that infection is carried either by means of the lymphatics or thru osseous channels.

In summarizing the results of the investigation the following conclusions were reached: (1) Dental infection does not present a definite clinical entity, altho it is most often seen in the form of a low-grade chronic infection involving the iris, choroid, and ciliary body. (2) Dental infection is more frequent than has heretofore been believed, and it must be carefully sought for by means of the X-ray. (3) The infection is carried to the eye, in all probability, thru the lymphatics and osseous channels. (4) The streptococcus viridans is the organism most frequently found in cultures from tooth roots or sockets, and is the main bacteriologic factor. Other organisms, as the staphylococcus, pneumococcus, and bacillus pyocyaneus, must also be considered. (5) In acute cases a mixed infection is the rule, the streptococcus viridans being most often associated with the staphylococcus; whereas in chronic cases the viridans alone is common. (6) The streptococcus complement fixation test has not given satisfactory results, the findings not being consistent with the clinical picture.

De Schweinitz calls attention to a practical point, viz., that occasionally the removal, for example, of septic tonsils is followed by a sharp exacerbation of the associated ocular disease. It is quite possible that during the enucleation of the tonsils some additional septic material was liberated which was responsible for the increased virulence of the uveitis. A similar active increase

in arthritic symptoms sometimes follows tonsillectomy.

In **Stieren's** patient, a man, aged 26, with violent iridocyclitis of left eye and almost unbearable pain, the radiograms of the teeth were negative, but the *right* antrum showed a distinct shadow. After the antrum was opened and drained, a decided improvement was noticed in twenty-four hours, and the eye was quiet in four days. The patient suffered a relapse three weeks afterward, as he had neglected to have the antrum treated after leaving the hospital. An inspection showed again an infection in the antrum, and reestablishment of free drainage and cleaning again brought prompt relief of the eye trouble.

Uveo-Parotitis.—**Weve** reports three cases in which epidemic parotitis was evidently responsible for iridocyclitis. Lues, tuberculosis and pseudoleukemia could be excluded. (This was not done by Heerfordt, 1909.) He thinks that it is more common than would be supposed from the scanty literature, which is explained by the fact that the iridocyclitis usually precedes the parotitis by from one to three weeks. The swelling of the parotid glands in a boy, aged 14, kept up for several months, but they gradually subsided, and the iridocyclitis improved under scopolamin and cold compresses. After five months there came an acute relapse of both the parotitis and iridocyclitis.

After discussing the histories of Heerfordt's three cases of febris uveoparotidea, **Gjessing** reports a case which came under his observation. The subject, a girl, age 11 years, had typical phlyctenules at the corneal limbus, with deposits on Descemet's membrane and hyperemia of the iris of both eyes. There was a right posterior synechia which retarded pupillary dilatation with atropin. Vision of both eyes 5/18. The parotid and cervical glands were enlarged, lacrimal glands not affected. The patient reacted both generally, with increase in temperature, and locally by a decided increase in the hyperemia of the eyes, when old tuberculin was injected subcutaneously. He was unable to follow the case further and so could not give the final outcome.

Gastro-Intestinal Autointoxication.—**Wirtz** mentions that affections of the teeth frequently produce disorders of the digestive apparatus, by insufficient mastication and the immediate general effect of the infection, leading alternately to constipation and diarrhea. If in intestinal trouble a simultaneous ocular affection exists and indican is abundantly found in the urine, the eye disease is apt to be attributed to autointoxication. Indican in the urine in such cases therefore demands careful examination of the teeth, as both intestinal and ocular affections may be of dental origin, and the dental eye disease may be aggravated by the dental intestinal autointoxication.

For about two years and more **Dwyer** made investigations on focal infections of the eye, due in all probability to the absorption of toxins from the intestinal tract. He begins with what he considers the normal average intestinal contents. The reaction (with phenophthalein) is generally slightly acid. The food detritus with regard to the three fundamentals, fats, carbohydrates and proteins, was examined. The guiding principle was to cut out of the diet those types of food that were not assimilated, in other words, indol, skatol, and phenol. These are normally present. The former two are absorbed into the system, appearing as indican in the urine. The gram-negative colon bacillus is usually found there throughout life. The ptomaine producers are usually Gram-positive, large bacilli, producing either acid or alkali.

In most of the patients examined the contents were highly acid or alkaline. In both classes the colon bacilli were either entirely absent, or present only in very small numbers, the other bacteria being practically Gram-positive, and the indol and skatol contents was high with a high percentage of indican in the urine.

A few of the eye cases are reported, of iridocyclitis and plastic iritis, that would not respond to any form of treat-

ment, and were thought to be focal infection, but treatment of the teeth and tonsils was unavailing.

Dysentery.—That amebic infection should be taken into consideration as a cause of iritis **Pacheo Luna** shows by a case of bilateral acute iritis with posterior synechiae in a girl, aged 18, who had suffered for a week from dysentery, due to entameba histolytica in great abundance. The case easily yielded to diet and intestinal lavage with creolin. He explained the process, not by the development of the amebae in the tissue of the iris, but by the action of their secretions on it; which, introduced into the intestines and absorbed, were carried by the blood into the eye. Besides local treatment emetin hydrochlorid was injected, with the result that the manifestations in the left eye disappeared on the third day, and after two more days in the right eye, and that the examination of the fecal matter proved negative.

Maxwell and **Kiep** observed six cases of iritis or cyclitis in patients infected with bacillus dysenteriae in the Mediterranean region, in four of them with arthritis. They concluded: (1) Patients suffering from an infection by bacillus dysenteriae (Shiga) may occasionally develop anterior uveitis as a result of this infection, as pointed out by Morax. (2) This ocular affection may, or may not, be accompanied by articular manifestations. (3) The ocular affections would appear to occur most frequently about one month after the first signs of involvement of the bowel, but may occur as early as the twelfth day. (4) The articular-ocular syndrome corresponds exactly to that occurring in another affection of a mucous tract, viz. gonorrhea, as pointed out by Garrod.

Affection of Bladder.—In **Strickler's** case of iridocyclitis in a woman, aged 25, with positive Wassermann and von Pirquet, and root abscesses of the right upper bicuspids and molars, their removal and antiluetic treatment had no effect. The catheterized urine was loaded with staphylococci, pneumococci, and colon bacilli. A marked leucorrhea was found, but no gonococci. She objected to mercury, as the gums were sore, when it was decided to direct the treatment against the bladder and vaginal disease, together with K. I. She made definite improvement in every way since.

Gonorrheal Iritis. — **Von Hippel** relates the clinical history of a man, aged 18, who developed four weeks after gonorrheic infection, swelling of the right tarsal and knee joints with metastatic conjunctivitis and iritis in both eyes with thick exudation, cloudy aqueous, synechiae, and hypotony. The case terminated with intense atrophy of the iris, remaining mydriasis with almost entirely abolished pupillary reaction, apparently due to synechiae extending over the whole surface during atropin mydriasis; and loss of central vision from metastatic optic neuritis, which is extremely rare.

In a patient of **Loeb** were probably two foci of infection which produced typical acute iritis of the right eye, viz. the tonsils and the testicle which was swollen from a gonorrhea seven years ago, tuberculosis and syphilis being excluded by tests. Possibly the tonsillar condition was itself a manifestation of a metastatic gonococcal infection which would well account for the improvement following the removal of the tonsils and subsequent treatment with vaccine prepared from them.

In presenting a man with iritis, who had gonorrhea sixteen years ago and six relapses since, rheumatism and a swelling of his knee after a fall, **Fraser's** experience left no doubt as to the character of the case. An exudation in the anterior chamber, like this, was not common. Seventy per cent of the cases had gonorrhea. In no case in which there was exudate in the anterior chamber was he unable to demonstrate gonococci or a gonorrheal history. **Boyd** presented a case of uveitis due to gonorrhea, with punctate keratitis and deep anterior chamber.

Meningitis.—**Terrien** observed a case of suppurative irido-choroiditis in a meningitis case, which developed in a boy 18 years of age. The eye symptoms started with sharp pain in the

right eye and conjunctival redness. On the following day the diagnosis of suppurative irido-choroiditis of moderate intensity of the right eye was made. The cornea was infiltrated, but not sufficiently to obscure a view of the iris, which was cloudy. A total posterior synechia of the pupillary margin was present, and a thick hypopion filled the lower portion of the anterior chamber. The globe was painful to pressure. The patient could only detect the movement of the hand a few centimeters from him with the diseased eye. On the fourth day after the onset, cyanid of mercury was injected subconjunctivally, but it had no influence on the progress of the inflammation. On the fifth day the eye had lost all vision. Meningococci had been found in cultures from the blood of the patient, and he had the symptoms of a mild meningitis.

The eye condition rapidly progressed and on the sixth day 4 cu. mm. of antimeningococcic serum was injected into the anterior chamber, which was followed by slight improvement of the eye symptoms. Two days later the serum was given intraspinally, and the patient's condition improved and the inflammatory exudate into the anterior chamber absorbed. The ophthalmoscope on the tenth day after the disease revealed marked inflammatory retinal changes. By the fifteenth day the globe had started to atrophy. Photophobia developed in the left eye and because of the danger of sympathetic ophthalmia the right eye was removed. The author also discussed the pathologic findings in the sections from the eye that were prepared for microscopic examination. .

Experimental Iridocyclitis.—**Woods** produced anaphylactic iridocyclitis in dogs by sensitization thru intraocular injections of dog's uveal emulsion in the fellow eye, and intoxication through intraperitoneal injection. The condition begins with signs of ciliary irritation, followed, in such dogs as develop the disease, by an outspoken iridodyclitis, with subsequent descemetitis. Three out of ten animals developed such a condition. Histologically the process is a thickening and round-cell infiltration of the anterior portion of the choroid, and the iris; with an involvement along the pectinate ligament, of Schlemm's canal, and a descemetitis. From the mode of occurrence, character, and pathology of the disorder, it is believed to be sympathetic ophthalmia in the dog.

Herpes Zoster.—**Thompson** described four cases of hepes zoster affecting the ciliary nerves. **Mayou** reports two cases. A woman had a severe attack of herpes zoster affecting the first division of the fifth nerve, especially along its supraorbital and supratrochlear branches on the right side. The nasal branch was not affected. The attack followed influenza. Five months later, she developed acute iridocyclitis. The cornea in its deeper layers was steamy, and there was wrinkling of Descemet's membrane. The iris was discolored, and there was a bright, uniform, ciliary injection, with a slightly minus tension and no indication of the situation of the vesicle. Under atropin and hot bathing the condition improved comparatively rapidly. There was some keratitis punctata and considerable exudation into the vitreous. Down and outwards in the sclera there was a raised nodule of a deepish violet color, with some injection of the vessels around it. The remainder of the sclera had now become practically normal. This nodule was evidently the situation of an herpetic vesicle which occurred on one of the anterior ciliary nerves.

Another woman suffered from a severe attack of influenza, which was followed by an attack of herpes zoster of the first division of the fifth nerve on the left side, which affected the supraorbital, supratrochlear and nasal branches. Two months later she was seized with a severe pain in the left eye, and acute ciliary injection with a hazy area in the cornea below. The opacity was not entirely limited to the deep surface, but was also superficial and the epithelium over the surface was roughened, there was little or no iritis present, the pupil being evenly dilated with atropin. It was treated with atropin and hot bathing, and the eye tied

up. In three weeks the ciliary injection had largely subsided to the area affected. The cornea in its lower part was still opaque, but the opacity had become limited in its extent. In the sclera opposite the opacity in the cornea was a small nodule, which was raised and covered with dilated vessels. Both cases occurred in patients who had previously had influenza, and it is supposed by some observers that the toxin of the influenza bacillus is the cause of the eruption along the nerves. (A. G. Shera, Lancet, March 24th, 1917). The other point is the long interval before the eye becomes affected after the onset of the herpes.

Demaria observed two cases of uveitis, grave and bilateral in two patients affected with *vitiligo*. In a man aged 18, the coincidence in the march of the ocular condition and the vitiligo was so regular, that it would have been easy to correlate both conditions. In a woman aged 43 years, the uveal inflammation started six years after the beginning of the vitiligo and was very severe. However a general examination did not show other pathologic conditions to which the ocular condition could be referred. In the first case a tuberculin injection gave a strong positive general and local reaction, and in the second case the Wassermann was positive.

Demaria thinks that the vitiligo had nothing to do with the eye trouble, was a mere coincidence; and that the tuberculin and Wassermann tests show the true nature of the disease. He even doubts if in the cases reported by Gilbert in 1901, and Erdmann and Komoto in 1911, there was observed a true relationship between the vitiligo and the optic neuritis and uveitis and choroiditis, or if they were of other origin; because, except in the case of Erdmann, diagnostic tuberculin injections were not made. New clinical observations are necessary to settle this point.

Treatment.—The articles, reviewed under etiology, also contain the essential points of treatment; which culminates in the search for the source of infection, if necessary by means of Roentgen-rays, and the eradication of the focus, as removal of tonsils and apical abscesses. It is thus summarized by **Krebs**: If the members of the dental profession will devote their time and energy to the caring for and prevention of diseases at the roots of the teeth, with the same remarkable skill that they have displayed in correcting defects of the visible parts of the teeth, a skill which has made American dentistry supreme throughout the world; if the rhinologists in general will become still more expert in diagnosing and treating sinus and tonsillar infections; and if the general practitioner will become more resourceful in recognizing and removing all, even the mildest, foci of infection throughout the body, eye diseases of all kinds will become less frequent, and even such disturbances as are due to ocular defects will become more amenable to treatment.

Wirtz's observations demand the control conservatively of treated teeth, until the inflammatory process at the root seems really cured. The means for knowing this is furnished by the Roentgen rays. **Fahmy** considers the best way of treating pyorrhea alveolaris with a tooth brush, and an antiseptic powder containing pure carbolic acid 1 per cent, powdered soap 10 per cent, and prepared chalk 89 per cent. The routine treatment of cases where other infections are excluded is, as described by **Steinbugler,** to have the teeth X-rayed, the blood examined, the streptococcus complement fixation test being employed, the teeth treated and if necessary extracted; and a vaccine prepared from the culture obtained at the time of extraction. The factors most concerned in the cure or improvement were the extraction of the offending teeth and the resulting drainage of the infected sockets.

Vaccine Treatment.—**De Schweinitz** has not been impressed with the slight value of the commercial vaccines, and quotes from a recent paper of Hektoen on vaccine treatment in general that, "the results from the routine use of commercial vaccines, polyvalent and mixed, have no value as evidence for or

against the curative usefulness of vaccine treatment; and hence no value either with respect to the soundness of the theory on which vaccine treatment primarily has been developed. In certain localized infections the results appear to indicate that specific vaccines properly and skillfully used, are valuable, probably because they increase the production of specific antibodies and also stimulate leucocytic and other activities." There is no question in de Schweinitz's experience that in gonorrheal iritis Neisser bacterin will afford in many cases prompt relief. Large doses, 50,000,000 or even 100,000,000 organisms, may be injected at intervals of from three to seven days.

In **Loeb's** case of acute iritis with affection of the tonsils and swollen testicle from a former gonorrhea, the vaccine from the tonsils improved the condition temporarily, but no permanent results were obtained until the antigonococcus vaccine was employed. **Darier** has been experimenting for years with serotherapy in ocular affections, and has found no specific except for diphtheria. In three cases of acute iritis of obscure origin, with no discovery of a specific cause, the pain disappeared within a few hours after using Mulford's sero-bacterins, four injections of which gave a complete cure. In **Steinbugler's** report vaccine treatment in dental infections has been disappointing. The percentage of cures in cases receiving vaccines was only 11+% as compared to a general percentage of cures of 14+% of the cases treated. The administration of vaccines in acute cases gave better results than in chronic cases; and those cases presenting a positive streptococcus complement fixation test, with streptococcus viridans in the culture, seemed to be benefitted more than others.

Dwyer's methods of treatment of focal infections of the eye from the intestinal tract were: In the highly acid specimens, an endeavor was made to alkalinize the contents by irrigation of 1 per cent sodium carbonat solution, and then to practice colon bacilli transplantations in order to approach the normal. The patients were put on rather free diet, cutting out, however, the food, such as meat that was not completely assimilated, i.e., the tolerance for the three fundamental foods was established as far as possible. In the highly alkaline specimens, irrigations with sugar of milk were employed and then the colon bacilli transplanted. At the same time, the Bulgarian bacilli were given by mouth, and sugar of milk, to provide a suitable pabulum for the colon bacilli. The results in the 67 cases treated were in the great majority very striking.

In **Weve's** case of iridocyclitis with parotitis prompt benefit was derived from radium treatment applied to the eyes. In six weeks' treatment the right eye, which had resisted all treatment for a year, was entirely cured. The radium was then applied to the other eye with even more rapid cure.

In **von Hippel's** case of gonorrheal iridocyclitis arthigon had no effect. Altho some of his cases at the average took a favorable course under arthigon treatment, he never could come to the certain conviction, whether the iritis really was beneficially influenced by it. **Baumeister** had seen a number of clinical cases almost identical or similar in origin, which had cleared up in four weeks. When first seen the patients were generally sick and weak. There was intense discoloration of the iris, inflammation and exudate.

De Schweinitz found paracentesis of the anterior chamber of service, as a means of combating intraocular tension during the course of uveitis; and also as a therapeutic procedure in some cases in which the tension was not elevated. In stubborn varieties of the disease subconjunctival injections of physiologic salt solution, probably by stimulating lymphagog activities, should receive attention. He also mentions that in uveitis of almost a malignant character, yielding to no method of treatment, good results have been reported from the use of thyroid extract, advocated by Bordley and others.

Curdy concludes that physostigmin can produce contraction of the pupil, narrowing of the coloboma, and reduction of the tension in iridectomized

eyes with relaxing effect on the radial fibres. It also seems probable that miotics and mydriatics neither increase nor diminish the extent of radial tears of the iris.

Whenever it is possible to deal surgically with a traumatic *prolapse of iris,* **Ramsay** considers it prudent to do so. If a not recent prolapse is small it is wisest to leave it alone. After excision of the prolapse, which must avoid a future anterior synechia, he covers the wound with a conjunctival flap and seals the edges of the flap to the cornea by a coating of paraffin, known as No. 7. If the edges of the wound show signs of septic infection they should be galvanocauterized and afterwards covered by a flap of conjunctiva. In those cases he gives 4,000 units of antidiphtheritic serum subcutaneously, half the dose repeated in 12 hours. After having seen the favorable results of the administration of this serum he advises it confidently in all cases where the eyeball is infected.

When a prolapse of the iris, due to a perforating ulcer of the cornea, with its covering of exudate, shows signs of bulging, operation should be advised. After detachment of the conjunctiva from the corneo-scleral border, the prolapse is burned down to the level of the cornea by a galvanocautery, heated to a dull red, great care being taken not to destroy the exudate which seals the iris to the cornea, and if possible the anterior chamber should not be emptied. The conjunctiva is then drawn over the prolapse and the two raw conjunctival surfaces approximated and fastened by sutures, and covered by a layer of paraffin. Then a disc of 10 per cent collargol gelatin is introduced, which melts slowly and seals any raw edge of conjunctiva. For preventing prolapse of iris, in cases of deep ulceration of the cornea, every effort ought to be made to obviate accidental perforation by timely paracentesis of the cornea through the floor of the ulcer.

Choroiditis.—**Kano** observed a case of peripapillary choroiditis. Close to the disc were an elevated mass of exudation, and a number of white spots in the surroundings and at the macula, which gradually were absorbed. Lues and tuberculosis were not to be thought of, but a special disease may have existed. In a scrofulous patient, aged 15, with hemorrhagic nephritis, a suppurating lymphatic gland of the neck, which had partly cicatrized and had given rise to typical scrofuloderma in its neighborhood, chemosis and swelling of the eyelids, **Masuda** saw ophthalmoscopically pale yellowish spots more or less round, a few of the size of the papilla. These spots were not accompanied by pigment and lay under the retinal vessels. They were more frequent in the equatorial zone leaving the neighborhood of the disc and macula free, and more pronounced in R. than in L. It was interesting to note that the disease of the fundus appeared and proceeded with the swelling of the eyelids. The author thinks that this form of choroiditis has not yet been described, and calls it acute disseminated choroiditis with scrofuloderma.

Jackson presented a boy of 13, whose eyes became painful and inflamed 14 months before, with chronic uveitis. Besides iritis, with many posterior synechiae and deposits in the area of the pupil, there was around the optic disc a narrow ring of white, which broadened out and down, extending a whole diameter from the disc. This region was hyperopic 10 D. The white patch gave the appearance of opaque nerve fibers. The choroid showed small round spots of partial atrophy and still smaller ones like those of retinitis punctata albescens. At the extreme periphery was a grayish-white area without pigment, not much elevated, but the retina was nowhere floating. The uveal inflammation subsided after the tonsils were removed.

Ophthalmia Interna.—**Fuchs** summarizes the findings in four cases. The first a twenty-year old student, ill with chicken-pox, noticed a redness of the eye followed by paralysis of accommodation and of the sphincter of the pupil of the right eye, which still remained eight months after its onset. He believed it to be of toxic origin and not metastatic. In his other cases, there was paralysis without apparent cause.

Three cases had paralysis of the sphincter and not of accommodation. He concluded that in cases where no history of trauma or inflammation is obtained the cause is probably toxic and due to involvement of the nucleus rather than the peripheral fibers of the nerve.

Uribe-Troncoso presented a case of chorioretinitis with fixed opacities in the vitreous in a man, aged 35. With +8 behind the ophthalmoscope a curious aspect was detected in the left eye. In the middle part of the vitreous, nearer the upper and inner side, appeared numerous small, gray-black, round, sharply outlined specks, mostly about 1 mm. in diameter, diffusely distributed and sometimes arranged geometrically in squares or constellations. By shifting the mirror in such a manner that only the ege of the beam of light fell upon the specks, they took a whitish transparent color with darker centers. These specks were stationary, as could be proved by focussing one group, and having the patient's eye moved up and down and again fix. They were studded in one membrane, whose edge was visible on one side, and kept their arrangement and reciprocal distance on all movements. The anterior segment of the eye was normal. Vision=20/100. The right eye, V=20/30, showed a similar group of fixed specks, but less numerous and of lighter color. The author thinks that their appearance is highly suggestive of heaps of leucocytes, as assumed by Straub and Dustrai, similar to deposits on Descemet's membrane, probably fixed by the coagulation of the fibrin in the serous exudate produced by the beginning diffuse inflammation. These opacities might also represent the proliferation of connective tissue cells of the fibrillary stroma of the vitreous, made apparent by the inflammation on the knobs of the mesh.

Uveal Syphilis.—**Libby** presented a man, aged 45, who showed a large circular area of choroidal atrophy with pigmentation on the nasal side of left disc, and a similar triangular patch adjoining its lower temporal quadrant, which seemed like a coloboma produced by choroidal rupture. At the age of 10 the patient had received a blow on this eye and, at 15, noticed floating bodies before it, with gradual loss of vision. At 17 he contracted syphilis for which he took protoiodid of mercury faithfully for three years. Syphilitic manifestations in 1913 led to 2½ years' active treatment with mercury and potassium iodid. No further signs of the disease occurred until June, 1917, when V. in R, dropped in one week from normal to bare ability to go about unaided. This condition persisted for five months, after which the sight gradually returned to normal in three weeks' time. Because the fundus of this eye was entirely normal, and from the character of the loss and restoration of vision, a diagnosis of probable hemorrhage into the vitreous seemed warrantable.

Uhthoff reports the clinical history of a woman, aged 59, with positive Wassermann reaction, who a year before admission was successfully treated for a bilateral specific ocular affections (R. opacities of vitreous, L. iritis), and then came again with violent iritis of right eye. In spite of antispecific treatment a gumma developed at the lower temporal portion of the equator, extending to the limbus, in form of a yellowish grey prominence and leading with severe pain to complete blindness. Ophthalmoscopic view was not possible on account of intraocular opacities. Tension normal. Enucleation had to be resorted to. The iris exhibited moderate inflammatory infiltration and posterior synechiae. The choroid and ciliary body to the root of the iris were uniformly thickened, about 3 mm., and showed gummatous degeneration: Granulation tissue with partly abundant vascularization was found, with incipient transformation into connective tissue, fibrinoplastic inflammation towards the interior in connection with the neoplasm, large necrotic foci, some giant cells, and perivascular inflammatory infiltration within the process and its immediate surroundings.

The affection was very extensive, involving almost the entire temporal half

and the lower portions of the eyeball. The gummatous mass protruded thru the perforation at the equator to the exterior and interior of the globe, pushing the strata of the sclera, forward and backward. The case was remarkable, as the gummatous process originated from the equatorial portion of the choroid, the most frequent starting point being the ciliary body. It also belonged to the cases in which an iritis preceded the affection, which in the majority sets in primarily. It was a late symptom of syphilis, associated secondary symptoms being lacking. Also in this respect the case was rare, since syphilomas of the choroid, and especially the ciliary body, most frequently occur in the first year after infection. The prognosis was unfavorable corresponding to the general clinical experience, that about 64 per cent of the affected eyes become blind.

Fuchs gives the anatomic description of three recent cases of luetic choroiditis, two hereditary, one acquired, of an older case of hereditary luetic choroiditis, and of a case of luetic changes of the choroidal vessels. The first case showed that a certain luetic inflammation may have the same aspect as one due to any other cause; and that even if in other organs, as here in the liver, the luetic products have the character of gummas, this need not be the case in the eye. Gummas occur most frequently in the ciliary body, more rarely in the iris, and have only once been described in the choroid. It was therefore remarkable, that the ciliary body remained free of inflammation. In concordance with literature this case showed that in hereditary luetic choroiditis the infiltration commences in the choriocapillaris, where it reaches its greatest thickness, and that the vessels are changed early.

The second case, a severe iridocyclitis with moderate choroiditis, proved that the affection has not always the described typical behavior. The infiltration of the choriocapillaris was not greater than in the exterior strata of the choroid and nowhere presented a specific character. The exudation contained lymphocytes, almost no polynuclear leukocytes. In the third case the consequences of an inflammation, perhaps similar to that in the first case, were encountered, viz. formation of tough connective tissue and obliteration of the vessels.

In the fourth case, of acquired lues, the iritis occurred in the second stage with the exanthem, and led, half a year after infection, by chorio-retinitis in spite of proper treatment to blindness. The choroid, detached by coagulated fluid, and the iris revealed diffuse infiltration to the suprachoroid, but not the choriocapillaris. It thus differed from the usual choroiditis, in which conversely the exudation occurs not on the exterior, but on the interior surface, and from the other described cases of luetic choroiditis, that the choriocapillaris was not the main seat of infiltration. Besides the diffuse infiltration single foci of lymphocytes existed inwards of the layer of the large blood-vessels.

The fifth case was remarkable on account of the intense alteration of the choroidal vessels without inflammation and the intactness of the retinal vessels. The choroidal veins were normal, well filled with blood, but there was hardly one perfectly normal artery. The changes were of three kinds: 1. Hyalin thickening of the wall; which was so homogeneous, that the individual strata and the muscular fibers could not be distinguished, and so considerable, that the vessel occupied the whole width of the chorioid and even caused a bulging of the choroid toward the retina. 2. Thickening of the intima by a new formed tissue on the internal elastica, obstructing the lumen of some smaller arteries. The posterior ciliary arteries showed the same condition. 3. Conversion of the vascular wall into an almost structureless mass. Only the internal elastica was defined as a sharp undulating line. This alteration was distinguished from hyalin degeneration by the vascular wall not being thickened, but thinned and assuming no stain. These changes may not be rare, but cannot be diagnosed clinically, as long as the pigment epithelium is

intact and covers the affection from view.

Fuchs emphasizes the great variety of the anatomic changes in luetic affections of the eyeground, illustrated by these investigations: mere vascular changes without sequels, or with hemorrhages or with inflammation, or inflammation without alterations of the vessels. The inflammation may be diffuse or focal without special signs or with epithelioid or giant cells or necrosis. The choroid alone may be inflamed or simultaneously with the retina, and the latter only as consequence of the former or primarily with it.

Marin writes that traumatism of the eyes of syphilitic subjects can precipitate an attack of syphilitic iridochoroiditis which yields to specific treatment.

Prelat reported a case of acute iridocyclitis, occuring in a man three days after receiving his second dose of *antityphoid vaccine*. The first dose was given two weeks previously. With both injections the patient had a constitutional reaction with rise in temperature and a transient albuminuria. Following the second injection the patient complained of a severe photophobia, and pain in the eyelids and eyes. The bulbar conjunctiva of both eyes was intensely injected, the iris dull and infiltrated, pupils contracted and did not react. A thick exuate was present in the lower portion of the anterior chamber. In the right a posterior synechia was present, and in about eleven hours after the onset the pupil became deformed. Vision R. 1/10, L. 1/50.

Twelve days later the vascular reaction and pain was increased. A Wassermann test was made and proved strongly positive. In the iris of both eyes several condylomas, the majority located near the iris root, were seen; and the pupillary border was distorted by pressure. Deposits on the posterior surface and in the lower segment of the cornea were present. With intramuscular injections of the iodides of mercury the condition improved and the condylomas reabsorbed. The exudate in the anterior chamber, however, remained, especially in the left eye where it resulted in a seclusio pupillae. The author was unable to determine whether the acute attack was precipitated by the antityphoid inoculation, or simply a coincidence in a syphilitic process that was about to manifest itself as an irido-cyclitis; and calls attention to the medico-legal importance of such a case.

Tuberculosis.—**Frias** reports two cases of primary tuberculosis of the iris in a boy of 10 years and a girl of nine months. The eye was enucleated in each case. No sign of tuberculosis during the six months since, in the boy, who is in good health. The infant seems frail and has bronchitis but nothing to suggest tuberculosis. **Peter** detailed the history of a case of probable tubercular intraocular growth in an otherwise healthy girl, aged 8½ years, who had measles a year ago. Five weeks ago the mother accidentally discovered that the child was blind in the right eye, but never complained of pain. A greyish white mass was found midway between the lens and the posterior pole of the eye down and to the outer side. Projecting out and to the nasal side was a thin semitransparent exudate in the vitreous, fan-shaped, of the appearance of a cactus-like growth, with numerous fine opacities of the vitreous. Transillumination was fairly good through the opaque mass. Bloodvessels were not visible at any time. Wassermann negative, tuberculin test slightly positive, but not decidedly so. She received hot packs, but there was apparently no improvement until after the administration of tuberculin. During the last two weeks a fundus glare has been visible over a larger area, and the child now sees hand movements at two feet, and occasionally a retinal vessel can be dimly outlined. This tended to confirm the author's suspicion of the tubercular character of the condition.

According to **Fraser** there is no exudate in tuberculosis, and usually nodules can be seen at the periphery of the iris. In as much as it alone can give rise to focal reactions, **Byers** considers the subcutaneous tuberculin injection as the only test that yields positive evidence of the disease, tho an absence of a focal reaction does not ex-

clude tubercle. Cautiously given he never has seen a focal reaction do harm. Under certain circumstances with adults, and generally with children, one must be satisfied with von Pirquet's test. It indicates only at best, when positive, that a tubercular process exists somewhere in the body. A positive von Pirquet taken in association with physical signs in other parts of the body, and negative findings as regards any other etiologic factor, is presumptive evidence of the tubercular nature of an uveitis, sufficiently strong to justify specific treatment. If a case of uveitis, supposedly tubercular, fails to respond to tuberculin properly give, a reconsideration of the diagnosis is essential.

In **Black's** case of uveal tuberculosis the tension was greatly elevated. Immediately after the corneal incision for iridectomy the anterior chamber was completely filled with blood and it was impossible to see the iris. With the fourth attempt Black succeeded in removing a piece of the iris. The next day tension was elevated as before and enucleation seriously considered. On the second day the tension was reduced. The blood had partly been absorbed and the iris was present in the wound at two points. This may be an advantage in aiding drainage.

v. Hippel describes the microscopic anatomy of a number of cases of chronic uveitis, in which the appearances resembled those of tuberculosis. The individual descriptions contain many points of pathologic interest, which cannot well be set out in abstract. Numerous illustrations are given in the text, and two plates accompany the paper. v. Hippel does not agree with Meller in admitting that there is always a sharp differentiation between tuberculous and sympathetic uveitis. He quotes cases bearing on this point and says that the differentiation of the two affections by the microscope is quite impossible, and is only to be made by reason of the history of a perforating injury in the latter.

He expresses some doubt as to whether the tubercle bacillus may not be the cause of sympathetic ophthalmia. He considers that there may be a third as yet unknown cause of uveal inflammation of a type resembling that of the tuberculous and sympathetic forms. One of the cases described shows that there may exist a chronic choroiditis without any injury to the pigment epithelium, and consequently not to be seen with the ophthalmoscope. As a result there may be toxic disturbances of the outer layers of the retina, which, however, are likely to be recovered from.

Degenerations and Atrophies.—**Feingold** gives the clinical history and anatomic description of the left eye of a woman, aged 37, with *essential atrophy of the iris*. The defects of iris were of different degrees: some like the large one adjoining the nasal limbus comprised stroma and pigment epithelium, thus being true holes which clinically appeared as accessory pupils and on ophthalmoscopic examination gave a red reflex, others comprised only the stroma and left the pigment epithelium intact, appearing as brownish black areas not allowing the light to pass through. All were situated in the region of the ciliary portion of the iris and only a few very small ones occupied the sphincter portion. Some showed thickened homogeneous walls, but no appreciable decrease in lumen. In the sphincter portion most of the vessels had thin normal walls and only here and there was one seen having hyalin and thickened walls. The sphincter muscle appeared normal and the dilator could be seen in almost all sections where the iris stroma was present. The pupil showed a trace of indirect light reaction. The optic nerve presented a typical glaucomatous excavation, 1 to 2 mm. deep, and behind the lamina cribrosa the cavernous degeneration of Schnabel.

The history as well as the clinical and histologic examinations failed to find any cause for the atrophy of the iris, neither which nor the vascular changes could be considered as the results of glaucoma for these reasons: Vascular changes of the iris, when occurring in glaucoma, are not limited to

one portion of the iris; further, when atrophy of the iris is the result of glaucoma, ectropion of the retinal pigment forms an almost constant part of the pathologic picture; because the atrophy of the iris in glaucoma only very occasionally extends through the whole thickness of the iris. Altho the clinical examination showed in this case as in all others reported, glaucoma as one of the prominent symptoms, the coincidence of so many symptoms not usually found in glaucoma compelled to the conclusion that they must be due to some other cause. Some features of the histologic picture could be interpreted that congenital vascular disturbances in the neighborhood of the smaller iris circle may have induced the changes in the iris.

In the first case of **Allport** and **Smith,** a nurse, aged 25, the atrophy occurred in an eye showing minus three tension after protracted iritis. About the upper half of the iris had undergone atrophy. There were no gaps, so that no part of the stroma per se had wholly atrophied. The normal color of the iris was blue, but the atrophied portion had changed to a brownish black. There was a complete annular synechia, the lens was cataractous and the eye stone blind. With the future uncertainty concerning sympathetic ophthalmia it was enucleated. The etiology of the second case in a woman, aged 20, was ophthalmia neonatorum, altho there had been no active inflammation in the eye since infancy. There was a complete gap of the upper portion of iris from absence of the iris stroma which gave a good ophthalmoscopic reflex. Only a thin rim of iris showed around the periphery.

A case of **Zentmayer,** a man, aged 23, who eight months ago noticed halos around light only at night and complained of foggy sight in the morning, presented in the nasal quadrant of the left iris, a partial atrophy of its stroma, but no holes. Fundus normal, V 5/8, field full for form, but color fields contracted. Von Pirquet strongly positive.

Although shriveling of the iris, usually with ectropion of the uvea, is not rare in connection with increase of tension, **Fuchs** has observed it with diminished tension. Three of his reported cases were traumatic, one of them being of crushing of the eye from behind. One case was of detachment of the retina in a soft eye, in another an exudate had formed in the vitreous from some unknown cause. The iris was so shrunken that it was scarcely visible at the margin of the cornea. In the cases in which the process could be observed, this great diminution of the iris took place in from eight to fourteen days. One anatomic examination was possible, which showed that the shortening of the iris was caused by a membrane that filled the sinus of the anterior chamber and spread from there over the anterior surface of the iris so as to cause an ectropion uveae. The tissue of the iris was drawn together but not atrophic.

The exudation was confined to the posterior parts of the ciliary processes and the anterior surface of the iris. Because of its thin endothelial covering the anterior surface of the iris is more sensitive to irritating substances than the posterior. The posterior layer of the retinal pigment epithelium was shoved over the anterior. It is evident that to produce this sort of shriveling of the iris it is necessary to have a moderate degree of inflammation of the anterior surface of the iris and an absence of posterior synechiae, as when it is fixed in this manner such a shrinkage does not occur. The formation of synechiae was prevented by a lifting up of the iris from the lens, by the sinking back of the latter induced by a loss of vitreous, or by a detachment of the retina, and by the tension of shrinking masses in the vitreous space.

Cysts of Iris.—**Schwenk** showed a man, aged 24, with two cysts of the iris in right eye. When 13 years old, he was hit in the right eye by a stone, causing impaired vision. Eleven years later, in July, 1916, Schwenk found slight reflex action of pupil, iris oscillating, lens dislocated up and out, slightly swollen, T. + 1. In November

the patient returned with deep ciliary injection, keratitis punctata, no details of fundus visible. In December the lens was removed after iridectomy upwards. In October, 1917, the patient came again with a large cyst of iris at 4 o'clock, and a smaller one at 11 o'clock. A broad needle was passed from 4 o'clock, at limbus into cyst, the point of needle extending through cyst wall into pupillary area evacuating contents of cyst. With a Tyrrell hook the cyst wall was engaged and cut off. The smaller cyst could not be found, showing that there must have been a common wall connection. The cause is supposed to be an invagination of epithelium caused by trauma or operation.

Choroidal Atrophy.—The above patient of **Schwenk,** when examined 11 years after injury, showed a large patch of choroidal atrophy with pigmentation in macular region. **Hepburn** showed a drawing of a case with an old choroidal scar with a fibrous band stretching from it to the disc. As there was no history of accident or inflammation, possibly it was congenital.

Mayou presented a girl, aged 25, with colloid nodules in the choroid. During the last six months the sight of the left eye had been failing. She had also suffered from severe headaches and toothaches during this time. General condition normal, and no family history of defective vision. The right eye with 5. cyl. axis 90° = 6/9; the left with 5. cyl. axis 90 = 6/18. A lesion in the fundus is present in both eyes, but rather more marked in the left, which shows a stippled condition of the macula, consisting of roundish white areas, situated principally along the course of the vessels and distributed some considerable distance around the macular region. There is practically no pigmentation around them, altho in one or two places there is slight disturbance of the pigment. No definite change in the visual field.

The clinical appearance somewhat resembles the colloid degeneration of Bruch's membrane, which is seen in old people. A similar case has been shown by Cargill, (Trans. Ophth. Soc. United Kingdom, v. 22, p. 162). In discussion Grimsdale thought this case was the early stages of the condition known as Doyne's family choroiditis. He had under his care at the present time a family suffering from the disease exhibiting a somewhat similar clinical appearance. Mayou said he had put a query before this case, altho he did not think it was very doubtful.

SYMPATHETIC DISEASE.

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This section reviews the literature up to March 1st, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., Vol. 1, April, Digest of the Literature, April, p. 75.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

Sympathetic Ophthalmitis, Pathology. So-called neurotoxemia as a possible cause of sympathetic ophthalmia was discussed by **Wilson.** He believes toxins may travel up the optic nerve to the commissure, and then from both tracts to the crura, to the upper quadrigeminal bodies, to the third nuclei, to the sympathetic connector fibers in the third nerves and to the lenticular ganglia. One of the earliest symptoms of sympathetic ophthalmia is weakness or paralysis of accommodation. The only part of the third nerves involved are the lenticular ganglia. He, therefore, advances the idea that perverted action of the lenticular ganglia is an important factor in producing sympathetic ophthalmia.

Gifford reviews the more recent articles relative to the increase of lymphocytes in the blood in cases of sympathetic ophthalmia. He reports the differential count on nine cases of sympathetic ophthalmia, altho only three of these are reported with pathologic diagnosis; six cases of recent perforating wounds of the globe, and eleven cases of prolonged or repeated nontraumatic inflammation of one eye.

Considering the tendency to accept the view of Gradle and of Browning that an increased lymphocytosis is of diagnostic value, the author reports twenty-eight case observations and draws conclusions as follows:

An increase of mononuclears was fairly constant in cases of sympathetic ophthalmia. Average total mononuclears 34.9 per cent. This high count often persisted for a long time, even in perfectly quiet eyes, but in two cases, was found reduced to normal after the

eye had been quiet for two years. It was not constant in fresh perforating wounds which did not develop sympathetic ophthalmia, average 25.9 per cent. It was sometimes found in these cases, however, in isolated counts. A similar increase was just as constant in other chronic affections, such as non-traumatic uveitis, abscess of the cornea, vernal catarrh, etc., as in sympathetic ophthalmia. In both cases, the increase was most marked in the large mononuclears but the lymphocytes were also often increased. Large doses of sodium salicylat were not found to affect the count constantly in animals or men.

It is the opinion of the author, therefore, that the mononucleosis is not specific for sympathetic ophthalmia, but is found as a reaction of the body to a chronic inflammatory process in the eye, of whatever cause. Altho many clinical facts of importance are omitted in the necessarily condensed reports, the author seems justified in stating that increased lymphocytosis should not be considered of any importance in determining the presence or absence of sympathetic ophthalmia or the likelihood of its occurring in any case.

Sympathetic Ophthalmia in War. —The most important communication of the year is the compilation by **Morax** of the work done by a majority of the ophthalmic surgeons doing military work in France. In all but one case, sympathetic ophthalmia developed after a penetrating wound of the cornea or anterior part of the sclera, usually penetration by a fragment of bullet, shrapnel or bomb, but in a small number of cases accidental punctures. In many of these, iris or ciliary body prolapse is noted, incarceration fourteen times at least, while an intraocular foreign body was present in ten of the thirty-nine cases.

Sympathetic ophthalmia coming on after intervention may be due to the original injury rather than to the operation, but in one contusion case, the operation for traumatic cataract was followed by sympathetic disease. No pure contusion case had been followed by the disease, which would support the usual theory of infection and negative the anaphylactic theory of Elschnig.

Interventions such as conjunctival flaps, resection of iris, etc., or evisceration and enucleation were undertaken with the object of preventing immediate infection or sympathetic disease. The accompanying table shows the number of days after the trauma when the operation was done and the number of days after operation before sympathetic ophthalmia appeared.

The period between the trauma and the appearance of objective signs of sympathetic disease is variable, the shortest being fifteen days and the longest twenty-five years. There were three where the latent period did not exceed from fifteen to twenty days and one case in which it lasted for seven and one-half months.

One must fear sympathetic ophthalmia in the first three months, especially in the second month, but after the third month, it is exceptional. Enucleation within the first two weeks will prevent the development of sympathetic ophthalmia in most cases. He believes that evisceration of the globe ought to be rejected and speaks of the development of sympathetic ophthalmia in a case by Kalt. No signs or symptoms seem to aid in the prognosis of an individual case. Usually the eye remains irritable and tender with photophobia, but not all such are dangerous, for many fail to show the characteristic uveal changes. The end result may be a cure in some weeks or even a year. On the other hand, there may be great destruction of the globe with lessened or increased tension and atrophy. In the series reported, benign cases were predominant, showing the following end results:

Blindness or practical blindness in twelve cases, vision 0.1 in one case, suicide in one case. Vision of 0.5 to 1 in twenty cases, vision of 0.3 to 0.4 in five cases. Fourteen ended badly and the remaining twenty-five ended favorably.

SYMPATHETIC OPHTHALMITIS

Operation.	Interval after trauma.	Time before sympathetic appeared.
Conjunctival flap....	28 days	50 days
Conjunctival flap....	2 months	9 days
Conjunctival flap....	1 month	?
Conjunctival flap....	27 days	2 days
Resection of iris....	1 month	31 days
Resection of iris....	24 hours	32 days
Ablation ant. segment	48 days	3 months
Evisceration	57 days	1 month
Evisceration	4 days	1 month
Enucleation	32 days	12 days
Enucleation .....14 days		22 days
Enucleation	15-20 days	1 month
Enucleation	58 days	2 days
Enucleation	33 days	10 days
Enucleation	39 days	16 days
Enucleation	69 days	41 days
Enucleation	46 days	3 days
Enucleation	45 days	17 days
Enucleation	40 days	2 days
Enucleation	3 months	31 days

Probably all observers expected an increase in sympathetic ophthalmia as a result of the many injuries to eyes during the war. **Lapersonne** saw one in military service and two in civil practice as did Sexe. Sourdille, however, did not see a single case in more than three thousand military wounded, but five in civil practice, three of which resulted in blindness.

At the Lariboisiere Ophthalmic Centre, from September, 1914, to November 23, 1917, there had been seen 6,265 military cases with only one sympathetic, and 23,832 civil cases, with five cases of the disease; one of which ended in blindness, three in full vision and one in 5/10 vision; as a result of mercurial injections and novarsenobenzol intravenously combined with enucleation. All five had the first eye examined microscopically and the characterestic picture confirmed, one case of injury with copper fragment developing sympathetic disease twenty-five months after the injury.

PATHOGENESIS.—**Elschnig** concludes that enucleation and evisceration claim about the same number of cases of sympathetic ophthalmia in the uninjured eye.

In five cases of new patients with sympathetic ophthalmia, the sympathetic affection in one manifested itself three days after evisceration, and in another 14 days after enucleation of the primarily affected eye. In the first case it seems that the seed of the sympathetic ophthalmia was already in the fellow, altho not visible clinically. In the second case the same condition existed. This patient came to the clinic 17 days after enucleation, and three days after subjective symptoms had set in.

The irritating agency which produces the sympathetic ophthalmia can be present in Tenon's capsule at the time of enucleation, and produce sympathetic inflammation in the fellow eye after the injured eye is removed. If this is true there is as much danger of the well eye manifesting sympathetic disease following enucleation as in evisceration.

Where sympathetic ophthalmia sets in early the author believes that the inflammation was present in the fellow eye at the time of enucleation or evisceration, but if it sets in some time after the operation, he concludes that since these manifestations are known to be uncharacteristic, the cause is due to the anaphylaxis of the body, and that the enucleated eye, if present, would be equally affected with its fellow eye.

He states that it is not to be supposed that the antigen resorption of the uveal tissues in the exciting eye, produces immunization, so that after enucleation the fellow eye is endangered. The antibodies produced by uveal tissue are not absolutely, but only relatively specific. This has been proven experimentally. In spite of the presence of the antibodies, the uveal tissues become highly sensitized to homologous proteins. According to this there is no active or passive immunization, but an autoimmunization. The absorption of degenerated tissue products from the injured eye stimulates the production of the relatively specific antibodies.

The author claims that the surgeons who are more radical and remove the injured eye early, as a preventive measure will not meet with a sympathetic ophthalmia in the uninjured eye; after the operation, as frequently as

those who wait until later. If the injured eye is removed late one cannot be sure that the manifestations of sympathetic disease will not appear some time after the operation.

Poulard claims enucleation did not prevent sympathetic ophthalmia developing four months later but his case is so unusual and the diagnosis so uncertain that a brief review is worth while.

The man was wounded on the right eye by a piece of shell, April 30, 1915. May 11th, it was painful, soft, with hyphema, and, by radiography, an intraocular foreign body was located. June 9, enuncleation was done. At the end of September the sight of the left eye, which had kept perfect, began to fail, and he consulted Poulard. On October 1, vision was one-fourth; much floating vitreous opacity, slight signs of iritis present and the fundus showed peripheral choroiditis with small brownish spots. On October 12th, more vitreous opacity, iris markedly affected, with pupillary exudates and synechiae two small spots of corneal infiltration, tension normal, vision equal one-fifth. There was steady progress of iris infiltration with pupillary exudate, the vision lost, the eyeball became small and atrophic. There was no report of the general examination details or pathologic eye findings. The eye was quiet for four months and then in the next two months, the sight was destroyed.

In another paper **Poulard** reports the penetrating wounds of the eye at the Twenty-fifth Ophthalmic Center, from September 1, 1914, to September 15, 1917.

Total number penetrating wounds		858
Prophylactic enucleation		414
Balance		444
Of the latter		
Destruction of eye by injury	76	
Intraocular foreign body	24	
Quiet atrophic globe	65	
Globe preserved with slight vision	98	165
With good vision	67	
Iridocyclitis treated by ablation of anterior segment and currettement		119

There was only one case of sympathetic ophthalmia, which occurred in a patient four months after enucleation of the injured eye, altho 414 eyes were enucleated to prevent later trouble. He in another paper advises against enucleation as being too often unnecessary and always disfiguring. He proposes partial ablation as a substitute which fortunately few seem inclined to accept. Because the disease is comparatively rare does not mean that it would continue to be if our well recognized methods of prevention and treatment were to be discontinued. His deduction that the removal of the injured eye is too radical an operation should not be passed without condemnation, for it is conducive to delay and danger.

Cases.—**Wessely** reported the following three cases: A young soldier was wounded in the right eye by a grenade splinter and the eye enucleated. The left eye, which was healthy at that time, developed sympathetic ophthalmia in fourteen days. It was first treated by inunction but later, when a severe iridocyclitis with increased intraocular tension appeared, an iridectomy was performed and inunctions of electrargol tried. Final vision equal fingers close to the eye. Two months after having the left eye injured by a piece of stone, a seven year old boy was seen with sympathetic ophthalmia in the right eye. Although the left eye was enucleated, he later had a plastic iritis with pupillary occlusion and increased tension. The end result, after an iridectomy and inunctions, was vision of 1/20. A woman of forty-eight was injured by a cow's horn striking the right eye. Two days later, the eye was exenterated. The right stump showed the characteristic findings of sympathetic ophthalmia. Inunction treatment gave vision 0.9. Wessely's conclusion that enucleation within two weeks will not always stop sympathetic ophthalmia is in agreement with Morax's conclusion, but his position that perhaps enucleation caused the sympathetic ophthalmia is untenable.

Chaillous had a soldier who was injured in the right eye by a piece of shell, the wound was located in the ciliary region. The eye was removed six days later. A foreign body was

found in the eye. A dressing of Vincent's powder was placed in Tenon's cavity, and healing proceeded without incident. Nine days later, visual trouble began in the other eye, with lacrimation, photophobia, and pericorneal injection. Two days later fine deposits were seen on Descemet's membrane and the media became cloudy. Diagnosis, cyclitis of sympathetic type. Treatment, intravenous injection 25 cg. novarsenol, which resulted in a cure in about three weeks.

Rousseau's patient was struck in the center of the right cornea by a thorn and the wound was cauterized eight days later. Subsequently treatment, including mercury rubs was instituted. No vision was present in the right, and there was periodic pain in the eye. About five months later cloudiness in the left eye developed. At first it was transitory, then permanent. Photophobia and pain were present. The right eye was enucleated. Mercury rubs were started and atropin was used in the left eye, but symptoms increased and vision became 1/100. Several injections intravenously of cyanid of mercury resulted in disappearance of symptoms and vision rose to nearly 1/20.

Three cases of sympathetic ophthalmia seen in one clinic in a year were demonstrated by **Brown.** The specimens showed the result of a trephining, a rupture of the margin of the cornea after a spontaneous thinning and ectasia, and a penetrating injury.

Faith saw a patient after his eye had been struck with a piece of ice. There was no open wound, simply a contusion of the eyelid with subconjunctival ecchymosis. The pupil did not dilate under cocain and homatropin, vision was reduced to light perception, and tension was 48. No relief followed local treatment or an iridectomy. The history, of having had a foreign body in the same eye for two and one-half years, was then secured, and the X-ray located the offender in the anterior segment. A few days after the enucleation, the remaining eye became injected with Descemet's deposits, cloudy vitreous and vision of 20/40 with a marked lymphocytosis. Salicylates and mercury were given. His very bad teeth were scaled with marked improvement. As the vision is now 20/20 and as no pathologic report accompanies the history, we must hesitate in calling this sympathetic ophthalmia when it doubtless was a toxic uveitis.

Pissarello reports a case of sympathetic ophthalmia in which deafness developed. He believes that the deafness was due to the same condition which produced the sympathetic ophthalmia.

The patient, age 37, received a blow on the right eye with a nail and treated himself by simply washing the eye. Three months after the accident his vision started to fail in the left eye, with severe headaches and deafness. The deafness cleared up after three days, following the removal of the impacted cerumen from the canals. Operation was done on both eyes and the patient was treated for twenty-five days, after which time he improved and received no further treatment. No other history could be obtained from the patient or his relatives.

Six months after his injury he was seen by Prof. Gaudenzi and the author. Three iridectomies had been done, two in the right and one in the left eye. He was in poor general health, and in a state of mental depression and stupor. The lids of the right eye were swollen and cyanotic, there was intense lacrimation and photophobia, the conjunctiva injected and chemotic and the pericorneal vessels were engorged. The cornea was dull and infiltrated. At the superior portion of the limbus an ectatic scar, in which granulation tissue could be seen, was the result of former operations. The anterior chamber was almost abolished, the iris was covered with an exudate which obliterated its details, and the coloboma was pulled upward toward the scar. No fundus reflex could be seen with the ophthalmoscope. The globe was tender to touch, but the tension was normal. There was slight light perception, but no projection.

The left eyelids were swollen, there was intense lacrimation and photophobia, pericorneal and conjunctival injec-

tion and chemosis. The corneal epithelium was irregular and in the upper position exfoliation had taken place in several areas. The scar above showed a bulb about the size of a hemp seed, which protruded thru the lips of the iridectomy wound. The anterior chamber was almost abolished and the iris was covered with a richly vascularized exudate. The exudate covered the coloboma. No red fundus reflex could be obtained. Perception and projection of light were good.

The right eye was enucleated the following day, and mercurial inunctions and injections were started. Locally in the left eye atropin was used and cacodylat of guaiacol 1 per cent was injected subconjunctivally twice. The Wassermann test at this time was positive, and Mantoux tuberculin test negative.

The patient's general condition improved and the cornea became clearer, and some of the exudate in the anterior chamber was absorbed. The vision increased until the patient could distinguish hand movements at 30 cm.

One evening, a month after the right eye had been enucleated, the patient had a violent pain in the head, and on the following morning was absolutely deaf. The left eye again became violently inflamed, the vision diminished to light perception. The headaches disappeared in three days, but the patient remained deaf. No changes were noted in the ears after frequent examinations and the deafness was due to a low-grade meningitis. The patient was kept under observation for another month, but there was no improvement in the eye or ear condition.

The author also reports the histologic findings from the sections of the enucleated eye.

Lebensohn in discussion reported the case of a boy, hurt four and one-half weeks before; the nature of the injury was not known, but there was a small scar in the lower border of the cornea. The injured eye was blind and the other had a fully developed sympathetic ophthalmia. Half a pearl button was found in the vitreous when the blind eye was enucleated the next day. The disease progressed so that the boy was totally blind in three or four months. **Goldenburg** at the same time, reported the case of a piece of cartridge shell in the eye of a child. The eye was enucleated withtin forty-eight hours of the accident and yet sixteen or eighteen days later, sympathetic ophthalmia developed in the other eye. For six or seven years, she has had from 12 to 18 attacks of inflammation, at times with vision almost gone, and on four occasions, optic neuritis. Although X-ray and all laboratory methods failed to show any other etiologic factor, the author questions his own diagnosis, which, lacking pathologic confirmation, must remain undecided.

Schevensteen cited the history of a patient, in war August 19, 1917, who was discharged October 18, 1917, with a complete traumatic cataract. Vision of the other eye was normal. On November 21st the cataract was extracted, the patient, however, squeezed his lids, causing a hernia of the iris, which was excised. The anterior chamber filled with blood which showed little tendency to absorb, but on December 15th the eye was normal. January 9th the other eye became painful and in two days was injected with photophobia, Descemet's deposits, tension slightly minus and vision 0.4. On January 14th, the symptoms persisting, the eye was enucleated. January 31st some papillitis, novarsenobenzol was given twice. Improvement was gradual until April 1, 1918, when cured. Microscopic examination of the enucleated eye showed incarceration of the iris in the corneal wound, with infection and the uveal changes characteristic of sympathetic ophthalmia.

Because an eye had been blind for a long time with a shrunken, hard globe which later became painful, is no reason why **Mansilla** should consider an incipient neuritis in the other eye as sympathetic ophthalmia. After enucleation, the vision of the remaining eye became normal. He believes the dislocated lens found in the enucleated globe the cause of the other eye irritation; the choroid, however, was seemingly negative.

GLAUCOMA.

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This section brings up the literature of the subject to April, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., v. 1, April and June, pp. 79 and 81.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

PHYSIOLOGY.—**Carr** conducted experiments on one hundred cases in the Cook County Hospital to determine whether narrowing of the pupil would lower normal intraocular tension. Tension readings were made with the Schiötz tonometer, and a one per cent solution of holocain was used as an anesthetic. The size of the pupil was first measured, then the tension taken. One half hour later the tension was taken again. The pupils were contracted with eserin salicylat and the tension taken once more. In no case was there a lowering of tension following the contraction of the pupil greater than 3 mm. Hg.

Seidel writes on the local application of muscarin, eserin, and pilocarpin, as well as their injection into the blood stream in animals, as exciting in the glands of the body and in the eye, secretion and absorption, controlling the intraocular tension. The action of these drugs can be inhibited by atropin, comparable to its action on the salivary glands. In the eye there is evidence of an independent relation between the amount absorbed and the secretion, bringing us to the conclusion that there must be in the eye a specific organ of secretion, not merely a passive physical process, but an active cooperation of the living cells. Seidel mentions a number of histologic peculiarities in the ciliary epithelial cells which differentiates them from the general cells; and these variations may be taken as the expression of the differentiation of the cell function.

Hertel comes to the conclusion that the osmotic ebb and flow of the lymph, in the eye as well as other parts of the body, is influenced by the thyroid gland; and that perhaps in the different phases of gland secretion there may be a predisposing factor for the origin of pathologic hypertension. **Köllner** finds that in simple glaucoma the intraocular pressure usually reaches the maximum between 10 and 11 A .M., and drops rapidly to a minimum between 3 and 5 P. M., and this holds whether the eye is under treatment or not.

Bailliart states that there is a direct relationship between the retinal and choroidal circulation, and the ocular tension. It has been shown by experiments that the pressure in the large branches of the central artery at the disc varies from 25 mm. Hg., to 50 mm. It is possible to measure the arterial pressure, at least the diastolic pressure, by use of the tonometer with various weights; and since the choroidal circulation is about 8/10 of the whole, the figures obtained represent

fairly well the tension in the choroidal circulation.

It is possible in each case to determine the ocular tension, the retinal diastolic and systolic arterial tension, and the relation between the total diastolic intraocular pressure and the ocular tension, by studying the equilibrium between ocular tension and intraocular arterial pressure. The sign of disturbed equilibrium is the appearance of a retinal arterial pulsation and the appearance of the maximal oscillation of the tonometer pointer with a weight of only 5.5 grams. Increase of the retinal arterial tension is very frequent. It is found in cases of diabetic and albuminuric retinitis, and retinitis hemorrhagica. In a patient with visual troubles, and local hypertension, this symptom may direct attention to general hypertension. Muscae volitantes and periods of momentary complete or quadrant amblyopia may be the first symptom of ocular arteriosclerosis. Diminution of the retinal arterial pressure. that is, where the minimal pressure is below 20 mm. and the maximal pressure is below 30 mm. If the diastolic pressure falls below the ocular tension, the retinal pulse appears. These cases are severe and point to hemorrhage and syncope. **Bühler** has written on the circulation of the blood within the eye.

Collins conducted an experimental investigation on the effects of *hypotony* upon rabbits' eyes, to support theories advanced in Sequalae of Hypotony, a former paper. The experiments consisted in lowering the tension in rabbits' eyes, in one group by paracentesis of the anterior chamber, and in another by trephining the vitreous chamber. Following these operations the animals were killed at fixed periods, and the eyes removed, fixed in Zenker's solution and hardened.

The author makes the following inferences from the results of the experiments: When the pressure in the interior of the eye becomes markedly less than the pressure of the blood in the intraocular blood vessels, an effusion of serum into the eye takes place. Apparently escape of the aqueous humor produces less lowering of pressure in the vitreous chamber than escape of fluid from the vitreous produces in the anterior. When hypotony occurs from escape of fluid from the vitreous chamber, there is an exudation of serum into the lymph spaces between the choroid and sclerotic. It also gives rise to exudation of serum on the inner surface of the retina between it and the vitreous humor which presumably comes from the retinal veins.

If the hypotony is the result of the escape of aqueous humor, the exudate is entirely from the anterior part of the ciliary body into the posterior chamber. If it results from escape of fluid from the vitreous, it is mainly from the posterior part of the ciliary body into the vitreous chamber. This would seem to suggest that under normal circumstances the aqueous humor is secreted from the anterior part of the ciliary body, whilst the fluid element of the vitreous is derived from the posterior part of that structure.

The most probable source of the serous effusion in the anterior chamber would seem to be the veins on the anterior surface of the iris. When the pressure in the anterior chamber becomes considerably reduced, below that in the iridic veins, serum exudes thru their walls into the anterior chamber.

Tonometry.—The advantages of the **McLean** tonometer are: The calibrations on the scale are in millimeters of Hg., as determined by actual manometer readings. The scale is placed just above the finger piece and as close to the eye as possible so it can be more easily observed by the operator. To prevent capillary attraction of any fluid that might remain on the cornea and reduce friction to a minimum, the plunger has a space of 1 mm. between it and the base and is held in position by the rounded ends of three hardened steel bearings placed at 120° from each other. The limits of normal tension by the McLean instrument 22 mm. Hg., the minimum; and 40 mm. Hg., the maximum, altho the author states that he saw a few eyes with a tension of 36 mm. Hg., which had symptoms

of glaucoma. In a case of absolute glaucoma, before enucleation for pain, the tension was Schiötz 40, McLean 58.

Marbaix calls attention to various cases in which the use of the tonometer cleared up the diagnosis. In a girl of 17 it showed a rise of tension to 35 mm. that called attention to a mild cyclitis previously undetected. In a case of parenchymatous keratitis a reading of 70 mm. Hg. led to substitution of pilocarpin for the mydriatic reducing the tension to normal. Peripheral choroiditis was also revealed by the rise of intraocular pressure. In high myopia the unsuspected glaucomatous complication 50 to 70 mm. was thus discovered. In diabetes with impaired vision high tension was found which was reduced by pilocarpin until the patient was brought into better condition for operation.

Buphthalmos. — **Mayou** reported a case of buphthalmos with congenital anterior synechia and pupillary membrane. The patient was a male 5 years old, family history negative. The condition of the eyes has been the same since birth. There was no discharge from the conjunctiva at birth. Healthy child, corneas enlarged. **Hallett** reported a case of buphthalmos in a child of seven years in which he performed the trephine operation three times on the same eye. The end result was a useful eye.

Peter reported a case of buphthalmos in an Italian child, 5 months old. Both corneas were large, 15 mm. in diameter, bluish in color with central opacities. The sclera was bluish in color and as a rule free from redness. The anterior chamber was very deep. The pupils were large even when under the effect of eserin. The iris was normal in appearance. The fundus details were not obtainable. The tension was increased. Light perception and projection were good. The family history revealed a brother aged 6 years with the same condition. The parents were cousins thrice removed.

Juvenile Family Glaucoma. In addition to reviewing some of the previously reported cases, **Plocher** places on record two family trees illustrating this condition. In the first family of 39 individuals, in five generations seven individuals suffered from glaucoma and three others exhibited prodromal symptoms. In the other family in four generations among 24 individuals eight suffered from glaucoma. In both men and women were affected and it was transmitted to both the male and female lines.

Etiology. **Gifford** reports four cases, in addition to three formerly reported, of glaucoma from the absorption of senile cataract. He believes that the cortex undergoes degeneration and the toxic products absorbed from the lens produce the glaucoma. He doubted that the nucleus irritated the ciliary body, the toxicity of the lens cortex was a bigger factor. **Brown** has reported cases pointing to a relation of eye-strain to the causation of simple glaucoma.

Thomsen reports the anatomic study of an eyeball removed after death ten days subsequent to the onset of acute inflammatory glaucoma, which had not been operated upon. He concludes that increased intraocular tension exists before a pathologic narrowing of the scleral canal, and that the latter must be regarded as a secondary phenomenon in the pathology of glaucoma.

Wipper explains the bulging forward of the iris and lens in glaucoma by calling attention to the anatomic fact that the iris and ciliary body are firmly attached on one side only, where the pectinate ligament is attached to the sclera. With increased pressure in the vitreous chamber the lens and iris are pushed forward. **Jackson** in an editorial on blood pressure and intraocular tension states that the possible connection of glaucoma with increased blood pressure has been a subject of discussion ever since the clinical study of the blood pressure with the sphygmomanometer became common. But no general direct connection between the two has been demonstrated. They may be associated, but the association seems incidental rather than essential.

(Continued next month)

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

GLAUCOMA.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

(Continued from the May issue)

Schieck traces the origin of certain glaucomatous conditions to the displacement of pigment blocking the lymph channels. **Levinsohn** has also written on the pathogenesis of glaucoma.

Elschnig, as bearing on the theory that glaucoma may arise from obstruction of the choroidal blood vessels, reports observations upon a case of pulsating exophthalmos, which do not support this idea. His review of the relations of blood pressure to intraocular pressure leads to the conclusion that it is no longer proper to hold that the latter depends chiefly or largely upon the former. That the intraocular pressure is largely independent of the blood pressure, and that the increased blood pressure cannot be the organic foundation of glaucoma. Nevertheless he finds that methods of reducing temporarily the blood pressure are a real therapeutic resource in the treatment of glaucoma. The nerve element in the production of glaucoma is the subject of speculative analysis by **Constentin.** Disturbance of the mechanism for regulating intraocular tension may arise from excessive accommodation, in the course of ophthalmic zoster, or following certain forms of optic atrophy; or from the pressure of a tumor on sympathetic nerve fibres, or disturbance in the production of hormones influencing the vasoconstrictors and vasodilators. According to this view the local obstructions within the eye are the consequence rather than the cause of glaucoma.

DIAGNOSIS. **Morax** describes two new symptoms of subacute glaucoma, orbito-facial pain, simulating a deep bony pain similar to that in sinuitis and periostitis, and lacrimation. The author had four cases, two cases illustrating the first condition, and two cases the latter. Doubt of the diagnosis existed in his mind until he used his tonometer, which revealed hypertension. By the use of miotics he relieved not only the increase of tension but also the orbital and facial pains and the lacrimation.

Uribe-Troncoso, commenting on Morax's cases, recalls that as far back as 1901, he tried to emphasize the importance of a clear distinction between hypertension and glaucoma. Hypertension is a common symptom for both primary and secondary glaucoma, but it is only indicative of the former when no other disease, inflammatory or mechanical, exists in the eye. With the addition of the tonometer to our armamentarium, we have a means of accurately measuring the intraocular pressure, can arrive at a diagnosis earlier and before the onset of the prodromal symptoms of glaucoma, which heretofore we have relied upon for our diagnosis.

As pseudoglaucoma simplex **Koster** describes a case of congenital excavation of the optic nerve head associated with the seeing of colored rings, headache, impairment of central vision and neurasthenia. The patient was observed for four years without any progressive change in the direction of glaucoma. The same writer elsewhere describes a case presenting all the evidences of acute inflammatory glaucoma with tension plus T 1, and vision reduced to 1/50. By focal illumination and magnification marked clouding of

the lens was apparent. The field of vision was still apparently normal. With 2 per cent solution of pilocarpin the eye cleared up entirely in a week, and with a —1. cylinder had V. = 6/6.

Varieties of Glaucoma. *Traumatic* lesions of the eyes **Magitot** divides into two groups: (a) where the ocular lesion is the more important. In three cases which he quotes there was a decided rise in tension following interference with the venous outflow, although the eyeball was unimpaired. In a case of unilateral anthracoid furuncle of the lid with orbital phlebitis, the tension on the affected side was 45 mm., and on the healthy side 15 mm. The vision was normal.

In group (b) there may be a rise or fall of tension. Inhibition of the intraparietal nerve cells resulting in a passive dilation of arterioles and veins of the uvea, and rise of tension. In other cases there is an excitation of these cells, a contraction of arterioles, less blood in the veins and fall of tension.

Parker has attempted to divide clinically all cases of chronic noninflammatory glaucoma into two groups: (1) Simple anterior glaucoma. (2) Simple posterior glaucoma. The classification is based upon the assumption that either the anterior or posterior lymph system is more seriously involved. The increase of tension of the eyeball is due to the retention of fluids that normally have two sources of outlet, one thru the anterior lymph system thru the spaces of Fontana, and the other thru the posterior lymph system, the perichoroidal space, around the venae vorticosae into Tenon's space, and around the optic nerve. All cases are first given medical treatment for the betterment of general condition, together with the local use of miotics before being subjected to any operative treatment.

If the obstruction is in the anterior lymph system, a broad iridectomy is the operation of choice. On the other hand, if the obstruction is in the posterior lymph system, or in both systems, the Elliot trephine operation is the one selected. The position of the lens and iris may indicate where the obstruction is and determine the choice of operation. When lens and iris are in their normal position the indications are that the obstruction is in the anterior system, the lymph moving toward the posterior outlet. But when lens and iris are displaced forward and a shallow chamber results, the probability is that the posterior system is blocked, and the lymph flow is forward to the anterior chamber.

In **Markel's** case of glaucoma simplex the retinas, especially in the macular region had a peculiar granular appearance, as though covered with minute oil droplets. Heckel gave his opinion that the oil-like points on the retina were the result of a colloidal degeneration; and simply coincidental with the glaucoma simplex.

Treatment. From his studies of the action of arecolin upon normal and glaucomatous eyes, **Knüsel** concludes that this drug is too miotic. The instillation of the hydrobromid of arecolin in 1 to 4 per cent watery solution into the conjunctival sac has a powerful miotic effect. Its action on the pupil, refraction and accommodation is quite similar to that of eserin; and it stimulates intraocular metabolism. The tension of glaucomatous eyes is abruptly and for a short time reduced. It is of greatest service in the treatment of inflammatory glaucoma through its speedy decrease of intraocular pressure. On account of its comparatively brief action it is of less use in the treatment of simple glaucoma. The 4 per cent solution thus used has a distinct influence on the vagus and action of the heart.

Operations—Iridectomy. **Claiborne** presented a case of glaucoma successfully operated on by iridectomy. Wolff in discussion thought that iridectomy was still the operation of choice in the treatment of acute glaucoma. Failing to reduce the tension with miotics, iridectomy should be resorted to at once, preceded by posterior sclerotomy. Bell considered posterior sclerotomy increased the risk of vitreous hemorrhage, infection and subsequent detachment of the retina. Bruder mentioned

a case of glaucoma in which tension was subnormal. Under atropin the tension rose above normal, but became subnormal again when the effect of the atropin was gone.

Peter reports a case of glaucoma in a woman 30 years of age. The right eye had, before he had seen the case, in all probability been treated for months, for iritis. When the case came into the clinic, this eye was blind with absolute glaucoma. There was considerable cupping of the disc in the left eye. A broad iridectomy was perfomed on both eyes. This operation was controlling the tension and the fields at the end of six years.

Lebensohn combines a broad peripheral iridectomy with scleral trephining in both acute and chronic glaucoma. He has successfully employed the method in five cases. The danger of late infection is not increased, because the scleral wound was not any larger than in a simple trephine.

Iridotasis. **Faith** reports a case of glaucoma in which he performed successfully iridotasis. Before operation the tension under miotics ranged between 40 mm. to 56 mm. Hg. For two years following operation the tension ranged 15-20-25 mm., with vision 20/30. The author felt that the operation provided a new route for drainage, which was accomplished better than by the trephine and with less danger of late infection. The advantage of iridotasis, Goldenburg thought, was that a definite communication was established between the anterior chamber and the subconjunctival space. The question was, did the iris remain as a drain, or did it fill up with connective tissue? He doubted whether by drawing the iris up into the wound away from the limbus distended the spaces of Fontana. In iridotasis the bleb was not as large as in the trephining operation, and the danger of late infection correspondingly more remote.

Allport prefers Borthen's iridotasis, in chronic glaucoma, to either the Elliot trephine operation or the La Grange operation. In his opinion the latter are difficult to perform, and objectionable by reason of the danger of primary and late infection. After the conjunctival flap is elevated he passes a fairly large keratome into the anterior chamber. After withdrawing the knife, the posterior lip of the wound is depressed, and if possible, the iris should be coaxed to prolapse into the wound. If the iris will not prolapse it must be gently withdrawn with forceps.

Sclerectomy. A modification of the Lagrange operation is described by **Perez Bufill.** The conjunctival flap is made and an iridectomy done through a lance knife incision. Then a second incision is made meeting the first at an angle, and the flap thus formed excised with scissors.

Histology of Trephined Disc. **Elliot's** discussion of the histology of the trephined disc is both instructive and interesting. The posterior layer is histologically either composed entirely of Descemet's membrane or of Descemet's and the pectinate ligament, or more rarely of the pectinate ligament alone, depending upon the location of the trephine. It has been proven that when a fairly large part of the lining of the disc is covered with fibres of the pectinate ligament, satisfactory filtration may be established. In every glaucomatous case he had examined he found thickenings on Descemet's membrane at the point where it was about to break up to form the pectinate ligament and always on the posterior surface.

Sclero-corneal Trephining. **Kirkpatrick,** when performing the trephining operation, always covers the patient's face with a lint mask soaked in perchlorid of mercury solution; and since this procedure has been adopted, postoperative iritis has been greatly reduced. He immobilizes the eye by attaching a catch fixation forceps to the edge of the superior rectus, or the capsule of Tenon, after the conjunctival flap has been well started. This obviates a good deal of tension on the flap in attempting to hold the eye ball down and also prevents dragging on the iris whilst being cut in the case of a restless and unreliable patient.

Knapp reported a case illustrating the nonreduction of tension following operation. Before operation the tension was 42 mm. Hg. A trephine operation was performed but tension did not come down. Two days later a posterior sclerotomy was done followed by reduction of tension which remained down to 26 mm. Hg. Twelve days after the posterior sclerotomy tension had risen again to 60 mm. Hg. On the following day the conjunctival flap was reopened and a large bead of vitreous was found to fill the opening in the sclera. When this plug was removed considerable vitreous escaped with it. The wound was closed and healed quickly. Twelve days after this procedure the tension had risen to 80 mm. Hg. Another posterior sclerotomy was performed which brought the tension down, and while down another trephining was performed. Since then, the tension has remained down and the eye quiet. Vision counts fingers. Causes for return of tension in chronic glaucoma following operation, according to Elliot are, a dislocated lens and prolapse of the vitreous, Knapp includes vitreous hemorrhage, contributing causes, a relaxed suspensory ligament of the lens from an anteriorly displaced lenticular apparatus, and the degenerative changes in the vitreous body.

Wilmer in discussing Knapp's paper cited a case on which he performed three separate trephinings and iridectomies. The scleral opening would fill up with proliferated tissue and tension would rise. The case had a tubercular history. In discussion Weeks had seen cases in which intraocular hemorrhages had occurred and scleral openings had been closed by iris, ciliary processes, and proliferated tissue. He employs the trephine only in very chronic glaucoma, buphthalmos and like conditions. He considers the operation is complicated by many possible mishaps and is now performing the Lagrange operation instead. Denig uses the trephine in chronic simple glaucoma only. Gifford considers the trephine most suitable in chronic simple glaucoma; and it may be tried where tension is very high. He instructs his patients to use zinc collyrium for the rest of their lives to guard against late infection.

Byers stated, that in his studies of eyeballs lost after sclero-corneal trephining, the histologic findings explain the causes of the failure of the Elliot operation. A woman of 31 years of age, with glaucoma had a sclero-corneal trephining done with iridectomy and was seen nine months later. Examination showed a marked congestion. The bleb over the opening was collapsed, the lens dislocated and the broken conjunctival covering mixed with uveal tissue. The microscopic examination revealed changes that were characteristic of healing corneal wounds, with a marked response to injury or infection on the part of the uveal tract. The dislocation of the lens, and the tearing of its capsule, in this case were attributable to the sudden reduction of intraocular tension following collapse of the bleb.

The second case was in a woman of 83. She was comfortable until the eighth day after the procedure, when there were three short periods in which the patient saw light flashes, ushering in the complete loss of sight. The eye was enucleated. The point of interest in this case was the vitreous prolapse. The trephining was too peripheral. During the first few days the uveal tract was sufficiently strong to support the intraocular structures; but it gradually stretched under pressure; and finally gave way on the eighth day, with consequent rupture of the annular fibres and hyaloid membrane, dislocation of the lens and renewed tension following vitreous prolapse.

Verhoeff stated in discussion that he had examined a number of eyes that had been trephined unsuccessfully; and in the majority of them found that the trouble had been an injury to the lens. In a few cases of hemorrhagic glaucoma, the trephine hole had been closed by proliferation of tissue; but in the others, the result was due to injury of the lens, either by the instrument or capsule rupture. The whole trouble in these cases had been irrita-

tion by the cortical matter as it came from the lens. It makes a characteristic histologic picture; not an intense reaction, but a marked cellular exudation, associated with necrosis of the iris. In all the cases the anterior chamber has become obliterated. The aqueous has been lost and the space filled by this exudate of chronic inflammatory cells.

Jackson had seen two unsuccessful trephinings that seemed due not to any error in the placing of the opening, but to the character of the cases. They were cases of chronic inflammatory glaucoma that had gone on to practical blindness before operation was done. Altho there was no question about the very high tension at the time of the operation, they were essentially uveal inflammations; and pursued a course that did not seem to be materially affected by the Elliot operation. Neither of these eyes were enucleated. They finally quieted down, with renewed high tension but without pain. The operation gave relief from pain but did not seem to alter the course of the disease.

Butler states that he has lost three eyes by late infection but all have followed the Holth punch operation. Six of his patients suffered from a mild late infection or a recurrent iritis. These cases looked very alarming, but they recovered rapidly under the action of atropin, and the hot box. Four of them have been associated with the punch operation and only one with the trephine. The author mentions the following serious objections to the trephine operation, which he considers the best for chronic glaucoma. 1. The difficulty of obtaining an ideal scar, two and three operations have been necessary in some cases before obtaining a filtrating scar. 2. The liability of the lens to come forward, and delay in the reformation of the anterior chamber. Generally at the end of two weeks, the chamber reforms, but it may be weeks before the myopic refraction disappears. 3. Soft eyes which seem more liable to late infection than eyes with normal tension. 4. The liability to cataract, which the author thinks not traumatic. **Meller** has seen late infection four years after trephining, and considers the operation inadmissible for young persons, especially with hydrophthalmos.

Clapp reported five cases in which a trephine operation was performed. The result, in the five cases was a disappointment. One resulted in a late infection, another five months after operation developed a latent iritis with ultimate blindness. A third case had absolute glaucoma in the left eye, with simple chronic glaucoma in the right with increasing tension. A trephine operation was advised and performed, resulting in two days in fulminating glaucoma and blindness. Another case with normal vision, but tension of 35 mm. Hg. maintained by use of miotics; after operation vision fell to 20/100 with hypotension.

Knapp reported a case of detachment and dragging of the retina into the scleral opening, presumably due to retrochoroidal hemorrhage following a trephining for glaucoma. The patient was a girl aged 13, with chronic glaucoma and subluxated lenses in both eyes and sight had been poor for five years. With —7D., vision R. 20/200, L. 20/100. The pupils irregular and eccentric. The depth of anterior chamber not uniform and a tremulous iris. Tension in both eyes 60 to 70 mm. Fields, concentric contraction to about 10°, discs cupped and atrophic. Miotics reduced the tension to 50 mm. A trephine operation was decided upon and performed under ether anesthesia. The result as stated above.

Lister reports a case of simple glaucoma, in which he did a sclero-corneal trephining. Following the operation, there was hypotony as low as —2. Atropin in 1 per cent solution was used with subsequent rise of tension and improved vision. About four weeks after operation tension had risen to 55 mm. Hg., and the use of eserin reduced it to 43 mm., but it could not be reduced farther, and a second trephine operation was performed, after which the tension had remained down for a year.

Ruiz has reported on an experience of 42 trephine operations, and **Tristaino** has published a study of the cicatrix following a trephining. **Alonso** has written comparing the Lagrange and Elliot operations.

THE CRYSTALLINE LENS

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With the reservations mentioned in the first paragraph of the Digest of the Literature this section brings the subject up to April, 1919.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

As the Digest of the Literature last year included all titles up to May, no reference will be made in the present review to those cited in the earlier months of the year. During the latter part of 1918 quite a few foreign references have appeared in the literature, but so far many or most of the journals to which they refer have not been available for review. Hence it can only be stated that **Nordenson** has reported concerning his investigations of the structure and retrogression of the vascular layer of the lens in the fetuses of cattle, while **Goldschmidt** has written in regard to the physiology and pathology of the crystalline lens. To this list must be added the experiments of **Meier** concerning macerative disintegration of human and canine lenses, and those of **v. Szily** on the different forms of congenital cataract. For similar reasons **Jano's** contribution on posterior lenticonus could not be reviewed.

Dislocation of the Lens. *Congenital.* **Spiece's** patient was a boy of seven, the vision of each eye being 5/100, altho with a suitable correction the vision of the right eye could be improved to 20/200, the left to 20/100. Each lens was clear and was displaced upward and outward; no zonular fibres were visible. Investigation of the family showed that the father's eyes were normal, but the mother had a unilateral dislocation up and out. Among six children, two had lenticular disturbances, the patient, and a sister who had a posterior polar vesicle 2 mm. in diameter. Of three maternal uncles one was known to have poor eyes, while among four maternal aunts one was found to have a bilateral dislocation and her son was said to be similarly affected. The maternal grandparents were said to have good eyes.

The child examined by **Allport** and **Smith** had a bilateral luxation, and in addition the globes were of the buphthalmic type, although there was no rise of tension. The uncorrected vision of the patient studied by **Black** and **Boyd** was 20/200, but could be improved to 20/70 for the right eye and 20/100 for the left. **D'Ombrain** observed a bilateral oblique dislocation in the eyes of a girl aged twelve. The vision of each eye was 6/60. The tension was normal. In the discussion of this case, two other cases were referred to, one having been successfully subjected to a scoop extraction. **Marbourg's** report was referred to last year. See Digest of Literature, Amer. Jour. of Ophth., v. 1, p. 87.

Dislocation. *Spontaneous.* **Crigler's** patient, a male aged 48, gave a history of developing cataractous changes twelve years before he came under observation. The signs of aphakia were present and the disc was pathologically cupped. The tension measured 30 mm. Crigler believes the lens became spontaneously dislocated, associated with a tear in its capsule, which in turn produced a secondary glaucoma. No evidence of the lens or its nucleus could be found.

Traumatic. **D'Ombrain,** in connection with the report of the congenital case above referred to, has cited the history of a traumatic case, the lens in this instance being dislocated into the anterior chamber. The lens was clear, but the iris was not visible; central fundus changes were present.

Operations. Several references will be made in the following pages to **Kirkpatrick's** Report of the Government Hospital, Madras. His report showed that twenty operations were performed for dislocated lenses, all having been previously in the hands of the coucher. Of twenty-two cases the lens was found in the vitreous in seven instances. Two of the eyes had an iridocyclitis. One eye was lost as the re-

sult of an expulsive hemorrhage immediately after the section. But in the remaining six cases the lens was successfully removed with a spoon and in five cases the vision was improved. Six were partial dislocations, operation resulting in a visual improvement in four. In five cases the lens was in the anterior chamber and the vision was improved in three. In the remaining four cases, so classified, no true dislocation was found.

Lambert has reported on a congenital dislocation of the lenses occurring in a mother and two children. Complete absorption followed four discissions on each eye of the two children. The one child secured 20/30+ with each eye, while the other had 20/50 vision with the right eye and 20/30 with the left. He also referred to another patient who had been subjected to two needlings, the lens being in the process of disintegration. **Paine's** recent contribution on the removal of lenses dislocated into the vitreous is essentially the same as his previous article. (See Year Book, v. 12, p. 171.) The same six eyes, four patients and five operations are referred to. He states that degeneration did not occur in the five eyes subjected to operation, and all have improved.

Congenital Cataract. **Verhoeff's** patient with coralliform cataract was a male, 39 years old. Each eye was subjected to combined extraction and the vision improved from 5/200 to 20/100 in the right eye, and from 20/200 to 20/100 in the left eye. Each lens measured 7 by 3 mm. Embedded in the lens were numerous crystals of various sizes, some massed together, others isolated. The largest masses were at the poles. They were confined to an area 5.5 mm. in horizontal diameter. Around the large masses the lens substance had undergone cataractous changes. Near the periphery of the lens were scattered tiny round or oval spots. The crystals consisted of rectangular or rhombic plates. After exacting chemical studies Verhoeff believes these crystals to be crystallized lens protein. He has also referred to the character of the opacities in lamellar cataract and believes that in this type, as well as in the coralliform, the lens opacities result from some metabolic disturbance and are not primarily due to degenerative changes in the lens itself. He therefore divides congenital cataracts into the developmental and metabolic types. **Andrade's** contribution on congenital cataract and that of **Vogt** in regard to lamellar cataract could not be consulted. See Hereditary and Familial Cataract and Discission below.

Hereditary and Familial Cataract. **Lehman** has investigated a family history where zonular cataract was traced through four generations. Its occurrence did not indicate that it was inherited as a Mendelian dominant, although on the other hand there was no definite evidence to the contrary. Epilepsy and idiocy were not unusually common. In nearly all instances the cataract was bilateral. Of 60 children or young persons in the family, 25 had cataract and four had convulsions and two rachitis. The best results were obtained by discissions. In one instance 6/6 vision was obtained altho the operations were performed at the age of 14 and 16 years. **Cridland's** investigation went back five generations. Among 56 members of the family, 23 were affected, 23 unaffected and no information was obtainable in ten. The cataracts invariably appeared as dense white striations in the anterior and posterior cortex, the polar areas often presenting a Y-shaped opacity. It usually appeared before the age of 10, advanced rapidly up to 20, and the majority of cases were operated on between the ages of 20 and 30.

Pathogenesis of Cataract. In the examination of 439 individuals over 60 years of age, **Vogt** found that 90 to 94 per cent had deep cortical or supranuclear opacities, but in no instance did he find the incipient subcapsular opacity as described by Hess. He describes the shagreen globules between the capsule and the epithelium and states they are more numerous in the capsule than in the cortical substance. They are rare in infants, increase with age but may be altogether wanting in old age or in the opaque lens. (See Year Book,

v. 12, p. 170.) The surface of the lens nucleus is visible towards the age of fifty and is irregular. The irregularities are consecutive to sclerosis and might be attributed to a shrinkage of the nucleus, but vision may remain good despite this.

In post mortem examination of old people **Vogt** found a frequent form of opacity which was round and massed so as to form a wall in cross-section of the lens. These opacities were situated anterior and posterior to the nucleus, constituting the "opacités en couronne (koronar kataract)". He examined 400 recruits, 20 years of age, all with vision of 0.8 to 1.5 and 20 per cent. of them presented these opacities more or less complete. This form of cataract, which has also been called cataract coerulea, Vogt states is not congenital and claims that he found it in 160 pupils of a primary school whom he examined with this object in view. See below under special varieties. He believes that heredity plays a greater rôle in the etiology of cataract than is generally believed. The contributions by the same author on senile nuclear anterior expansion of the human lens, and the genesis of cataract and the Hess hypothesis could not be reviewed. The same is true of **Schurman's** discussion of the shagreen lens and the contribution of **Hess** on the development of senile cataract. **Schanz** has investigated the origin of diabetic cataract and **Krenger** has cited his findings as to the frequency and localization of lenticular opacities in 401 persons from seven to seventy-one years of age, but neither article was available for abstracting.

Special Varieties. Traumatic. **Jackson's** patient had the left eye injured twenty years before he came under observation. Three months before he was first seen the vision of the right eye became impaired and was reduced to 0.4, while the left was 0.7. The right eye presented marked vascular disease and optic nerve atrophy. In the left eye there were similar vascular changes with a comma shaped opacity of the lens. The head of the opacity was deep in the cortex and had the appearance of a calcarious deposit with a small black speck. The tail of the opacity extended forward towards the center of the pupil. There were a few peripheral cortical opacities. The opacity was attributed to a minute foreign body lodging in the lens.

Herzig has observed a case where the central part of the lens was absorbed with organization of the lens matter in the capsule which formed a creamy white ring behind the iris. There was a history of trauma at the age of twelve and six months later an iridectomy was done. Twenty-seven years later the eye was again traumatized. At the time of the report the eye was somewhat painful and blind, but there were no acute inflammatory symptoms. **Kirkpatrick** in his report refers to fourteen operations for traumatic cataract, the patients varying in age from 14 to 80. Only two obtained useful vision.

Berrisford has recorded an instance of ocular concussion, followed by an annular opacity of the lens,—Vossius ring. A slight laceration of the lid and conjunctiva were associated with it. Within the ring, which was characterestic, there were a few dust-like opacities. The fundus showed a dusky red oval lesion that subsequently developed the typical appearance of a macular-hole. The subject is fully discussed. One of the reviewer's cases should have been included with Purtscher's as an instance of a perforating wound behind the lens producing the lesion.

Cataract Due to Electric Discharge. As the result of a hammer, with which he was working, coming in contact with wires conveying an alternating current of twenty thousand volts, **Arana's** patient was severely burned about the face and neck. Visual disturbances were first noted four months later, and by the end of the year he was almost blind. He states that this is the twelfth recorded observation during the past five years. Operation was successful. See below under Corneal Suture. **Morax** has reported the histories of two cases developing from similar causes, and concludes that iridocyclitis may precede or follow

changes in the lens, and may affect the eyes simultaneously or successively. The lenticular changes are characterized by the fact that they may arise ten days to three months after the injury. In his cases there was no evidence of an infectious endogenous process.

Naphthalin. In an interesting study of the ocular lesions resulting from the ingestion of naphthalin **Diaz Caneja's** observations differ somewhat from those usually reported, in that in addition to cataract formation, the stages of which he describes in detail, one of the two animals developed marked hypertension phenomena. The left eye assumed the appearance of a buphthalmos, corneal sensation being lost. There developed in the upper external sclerocorneal quadrant of the right eye a whitish sector bordering the iris and a second lesion which proved to be an equatorial staphyloma. After reviewing the various theories regarding the formation of this type of cataract, he states that he personally believes that the ocular disurbances caused by naphthalin are not due to its chemical properties but entirely to its insolubility.

Blue Cataract. **Koyanagi** has placed on record the data of three cases of this character all observed in males, the ages being 21, 29 and 45 years. In the first case dot-like opacities of a greenish color were observed by oblique illumination near the edge of the pupil. Under mydriasis, others of an oval or broadly linear form were observed, arranged so as to radiate from the pupil. In the second case the right eye showed blue dot-like opacities, while in the left eye there was a Y-shaped central opacity. In the third case the lesions were unilateral, the left eye having a blue Y-shaped opacity in the anterior portion of the lens. By direct illumination the opacity could not be seen. He cites Lord Rayleigh's explanation as quoted by Hess; that parts of the lens present fine particles of different refractive index causing the dispersion of short wave light, green, blue and purple. In diffuse light they appear blue by daylight or green by artificial yellow light. **Holloway** called attention to the fact that in 1913 he had reported, with other lens case histories, the records of five of these cases, three being in one family. See Vogt above under Pathogenesis.

Concurrent Conditions and Complicated Cataracts. **Kinnier Wilson** has reported on a case of *myotonia atrophica* with a family history of cataract. He states that in most instances cataract develops in these cases about the age of thirty. In the discussion Paton suggested that, just as the appearance of guaiudin in defective action of the parathyroids produced tetany and possibly was the cause of lamellar cataracts, so some similar substance due to a metabolic defect might be the common cause of myotonia and these curious cataracts.

A man, aged 36, consulted **Boyd** owing to intense headaches which were completely relieved by glassing. While a few lenticular opacities were noted at this time the lens became opaque after the expiration of nine months. The teeth, sinuses and Wassermann test were negative. Judging from the discussion the lenticular condition was attributed to some vague systemic condition. The question of cataract in adults who suffer from arrested development and the occurrence of the same condition as the result of disturbances in nutrition have been discussed by **Inouye** and **Ishida** respectively, but their contributions were not available for abstracting. The same is true about **Berger's** paper in which he discusses the question as to whether cataract is always coincident with diseases of the nervous system.

Knapp, after calling attention to the frequency of cataract in cases of *retinitis pigmentosa* and the fact that these have not been regarded as amenable to treatment, reports his operative results in four cases. This with **Kirkpatrick's** operative results on senile lenses in cases of glaucoma will be referred to below under Results of Cataract Operations. See also Spontaneous Resorption.

Spontaneous Resorption. **Gifford** does not believe the spontaneous cure of cataract is as rare as one would suppose; and states that he has seen at

least ten cases where there occurred practically complete absorption of the cortex, and in three of these useful vision was obtained. He has detailed the histories of four cases where associated glaucomatous symptoms were present and in three of these operative measures were resorted to in order to relieve tension. He concludes that the occurrence of glaucoma coincident with absorption of hypermature cataract cortex in eyes otherwise healthy, together with long continued absence of glaucoma from the fellow eye, makes it probable that the glaucoma is the effect and not the cause of the absorption. He further believes that senile cataract should be kept under observation and operated on before it becomes too hypermature, even if the other eye still has good sight.

Among 25,000 patients **Gonzalez** has noted spontaneous absorption in but two instances. The first patient was sixty years of age and cataract was first noted when he was thirty-five. The second patient was fifty-two at the time of observation and previously a cataract had been removed from the left eye. No operation had been performed on the right eye but this was also aphakic and was free from any corneal astigmatism. **Koster** has commented on the importance of ascertaining the factor, whether general or local, that determines the gradual absorption of the lens. He speculates on the advantage of such procedure over operative measures, however successful. His patient, who obtained 6/6 vision after operation, was referred to in The Digest of Literature, Amer. Jour. of Ophth., v. 1, p. 91. See Crigler under Spontaneous Dislocation of the Lens.

Treatment of Incipient Cataract. **Levin** and **Cohen** have recorded their results on three cases of cataract subjected to radium treatment. The first patient had retinitis pigmentosa and associated bilateral posterior cortical lens changes. Twenty-six days after the beginning of the treatment there was some improvement in vision with lessening of the opacities. The second patient had a complicated cataract the result of an iridocyclitis and an iridectomy had been performed owing to secondary glaucoma. Seven days after treatment the vision had slightly improved, the fundus reflex was more evident and the descemetitis less, but the striae and bubbles in the lens were about the same. The third case was a senile cataract and this likewise showed a slight improvement. They very properly stated that it is premature to say whether the action of radium on cataract will have a permanent or any therapeutic value, but they believe the above results warrant further investigation.

Treatment of Immature Cataract. **Scalinci** has discussed artificial ripening as compared with intracapsular extraction. He refers to a high myope of 61 years, who at first refused an operation for artificial maturation but who consented to a preliminary iridectomy. But little progress being made after a period of nine months, she consented to multiple punctures of the lens through the equatorial portion. This was repeated one week later and after a period of about three weeks the lens was extracted without complications. After his procedure of multiple punctures the lens may be extracted after a period of from eight days to five weeks. **Nawrottek's** discussion of artificial ripening was not available for abstracting.

Discission of the Lens. **Houwer** has described the operative procedure in cases of lamellar cataract coming under observation in the clinic of the late Prof. Straub. Using a straight or curved needle the anterior capsule and cortex are freely lacerated. The nucleus, so described, is then brought into the anterior chamber either by exerting pressure in the vertical meridian above or below or if necessary, by inserting the point of the needle behind it and forcing it out by sculling movements. Atropin is then instilled and the eye bandaged. If the lens substance does not dissolve it is later evacuated by means of a keratome entered at the limbus. The final stage is a black pupil or secondary cataract. With the discission the posterior capsule should be incised. From 1910 to 1916, 26 eyes were operated on; 1/3 vision was ob-

tained in 5; 1/2 in 8; 3/4 in 3 and standard vision in 5. Lens substance was removed in 16 cases, in 9 owing to a rise of tension. Discission was resorted to 25 times in 20 eyes.

Santos Fernandez has commented upon the good results sometimes obtained in late operations on congenital cataracts. His first patient was sixteen and satisfactory vision was obtained. The second patient was twenty and was mentally under developed. Despite the avascular condition of the nerve to which part of the patient's apathy was ascribed, he hoped to obtain an improvement by glassing and exercising the visual acuity. Discission was resorted to. While he concedes that early operation is best in these cases he does not regard age as constituting an obstacle to a successful result. In another contribution **Fernandez** reiterates previous statements as to his preference for discission in cases of congenital, traumatic and juvenile cataract. He describes his technic. In **Kirkpatrick's** report the author refers to forty-three cases that were subjected to operation. Six were linear extractions and thirty-seven were dicissions. As indicated, discission is preferred at Madras. **Meller's** discussion on the discission of lamellar cataract could not be consulted. See Dislocation of the Lens. Operations and Hereditary and Familial Cataract.

Couching of Lens. A patient 76 years old, who had previously lost one eye, came under the observation of **Bufill** owing to cataract. Examination showed an old trachoma with an adherent leukoma and an inferior operative coloboma. After appropriate lid treatment an extraction was attempted and failed. Four months later a semi-reclination of the lens was performed by means of a metal spatula introduced into the anterior chamber. With a lens she could count fingers at two metres. He also records that the vision was still preserved in a patient similarly treated and whose history was recorded in 1908. (See Kirkpatrick above under Dislocation of the Lens. Operations.)

Cataract Extraction. — Preparation of the Patient. **Herbert,** in referring to Shankar's criticism of the divergent views of Elliot and himself, in regard to prolonged irrigation with 1-3,000 perchlorid solution for the prevention of infection, states that when Elliot first tried the method it was used imperfectly. Later, when properly applied, he obtained results. He believes it certain that it affords more complete results than have been secured previously. Fifteen minutes should elapse between the irrigation and time of operation. As the result of excessive reaction there may be slight swelling of the lids and slight mucopurulent discharge which are easily controlled by keeping the eye open under a gauze shield. He believes that this cannot be allowed to weigh against the almost complete protection afforded.

The evening before the operation **Kirkpatrick** has the face and lids prepared, the lashes cut and a bandage applied, which is removed one hour before the operation. Herbert's method of irrigating is then employed. After cocainization, a hypodermic of morphin and atropin is given and one drop of atropin is instilled (see below) when the patient is placed on the table. The meibomian ducts are then milked and the eye again irrigated.

Guirol stated that he had abandoned iodin as a surgical antiseptic as it toughens the conjunctiva. Instead he has been using 0.5 grm. each of crystal violet and verde violet in 50 grms. each of distilled water and 80 degrees alcohol. After cocainization this is freely applied and a few minutes later any excess of the stain is washed away. He states he had successfully used this in 100 cataract operations.

Atropin in Cataract Extraction. Commenting on Fisher's suggestion as to the use of atropin, which was referred to in last year's Digest of the Literature, **MacCallan** states that until recently it had always been the custom at the Egyptian Ophthalmic Hospital to instill atropin immediately after extraction wtih iridectomy. He believes there is no difference as to whether it be employed before the section or after making the toilet of the wound. The procedure was discontinued a year ago

owing to the belief that it increased the frequency of adhesion of the base of the pillars of the iris to the wound. **Allport** instills a drop of atropin one hour before operation.

External Canthotomy in Cataract Extraction. **Axenfeld's** custom of performing an external canthotomy under certain circumstances when operating for cataract was referred to in the Year Book, v. 12, p. 181.

Advancement of the Conjunctiva in Cataract Extraction. In the Year Book, v. 11, p. 242, reference has been made to the advancement of the conjunctiva over the corneoscleral incision, as practiced by **Constantinescu.**

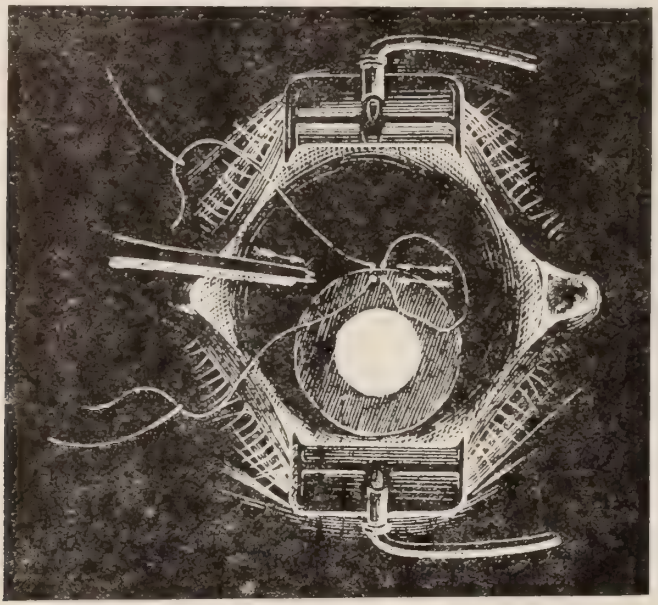


Fig.6. Corneal suture in cataract extraction. (Liégard.)

Simple Extraction. Last year in discussing Fisher's use of atropin in cataract extraction, Taylor made certain statements as to the advantages of simple extraction to which **Hepburn** has taken exceptions. He does not believe that cosmetic gain should take precedence over safety; the pain is of little consequence and there is seldom any in uncomplicated cases; the risk of prolapse of the iris must be weighed against the introduction of iris forceps and entanglement of capsule in the wound; bleeding is not the rule except in complicated cases, while loss of vitreous with gentle manipulation is unusual. Finally, considering the number of needlings, a rise of tension following this procedure is unusual. **Giotti** strongly advocates a return to the classic method of extraction and comments on the few instruments actually required. He states that when the corneal flap is made of sufficient size the iris presents no real obstacle to the extraction of the lens. **Komoto** has also referred to this procedure, the iris being replaced with the back of the knife.

Corneal Suture. **Liégard's** method consists of the insertion of two horizontal stitches by means of a fine double armed linen suture. When operating on the right eye the operator faces the patient and the fixation forceps are applied on the outer side at about 11 o'clock. This being on the side the needles emerge, counter pressure is obtained. One needle is inserted into the cornea 1/2 mm. from the limbus, near 12 o'clock, and by a rotary motion is passed outward, horizontally, and practically par-

allel to the limbus taking a fairly deep bite. (See illustration.) The second needle is passed in a corresponding way through the limbus, that is, through what will be the posterior or upper lip of the incision. The loop of the suture will then lie on the side towards the caruncle. The suture is tied by drawing on the upper thread to prevent gaping of the upper lid of the incision. When operating on the left eye, the sutures are passed from without inwards, that is, towards the nose, the loop will then lie on the side of the external canthus. He believes the one point of fixation selected permits both stitches to be inserted easily and the position of the suture affords an exact estimation of the space for the knife.

Pachecho Luna has recorded two instances where the Kalt suture proved to be of great surgical value. The one patient had advanced tuberculosis, the other was a diabetic with chronic malaria. Despite the fact that the first two postoperative days were very stormy with excessive vomiting and gastro-intestinal symptoms, good results were obtained. **Arana's** patient referred to under Special Varieties of Cataract, obtained a satisfactory result after simple extraction and the employment of the Kalt suture. See Talmey below.

Technic of Extraction. **Junés'** modification consists in not making the complete corneal flap until just before extraction. At the upper limbus of the cornea an incision is made just large enough to permit of an iridectomy and cystotomy. These steps completed, the eye is fixed and the lower blade of Lagrange's sclerectomy scissors is inserted through the small incision into the anterior chamber, so that the curve of the scissors is parallel with the limbus and the cutting edge perpendicular to the contemplated section. The section is then completed on each side in one or at most two cuts. He believes this method avoids the danger of expulsion of the contents of the globe. See Husain below.

Roure prefers a large inferior section with inferior iridectomy and cystotomy. He has cited the following advantages: Difficulty in making the section is avoided by the natural position of the eye, greater corneal field and easier avoidance of the margin of the upper lid. With the upward position of the globe, the iris can be excised with greater ease. Cystotomy can be done without the aid of a speculum and with the least amount of trauma, while if it should be necessary to use a hook in extraction, the conditions are more favorable. In speaking of postoperative sequellae he points out that any lenticular debris tends to fall to the bottom of the anterior chamber, thus avoiding the formation of secondary cataract. In case of incarceration of the iris angles, the pupil is drawn downwards and is still useful instead of being covered by the upper lid and finally in the presence of infection and a painful chemotic eye, it is easier to open the corneal wound, evacuate the anterior chamber and irrigate it if necessary.

Kirkpatrick states that at Madras the Smith-Indian operation is only done in exceptional cases, capsulotomy being resorted to as a rule. The first step is a laceration of the capsule by a Bowman's needle which is entered at the limbus at the point for the subsequent insertion of the knife. A T-shaped incision is preferred. After a corneoscleral or high corneal section an iridectomy is nearly always performed. The lens is first started by pressure on the upper lip and during delivery the patient is allowed to look in any direction. The anterior chamber is then irrigated with McKeown's irrigator, a drop of atropin instilled and the eye closed.

Irrigation of the Anterior Chamber. **Bane** has devised an irrigator, but no description of it was included in the report of the meeting at which it was shown. See Prince below.

Intracapsular Extraction. **Allport** in discussing the Smith-Indian operation states that he believes it is far less serviceable for the various conditions attending cataract extraction in this country than in India. While it may be thoroly adapted to one of Smith's experience and dexterity, he believes the average American operator

should not desert the conservative and invariably successful procedure with which he is thoroly familiar. While he believes some safe and successful intracapsular operation will be devised, he is convinced that the Smith-Indian operation is not the one that will be accepted. As it now stands, he believes it should only be used under favorable circumstances by exceptionally expert and experienced surgeons.

Husain in his subconjunctival extraction grasps the conjunctiva one-third to one-half inch above the limbus and snips it with scissors. It is then dissected down to the limbus and by means of curved scissors the lateral conjunctiva is undermined until large pockets, extending up to the limbus, are formed. The central portion of the flap is then reflected and a keratome entered at the limbus. The corneal incision, to the extent of half of the circumference, is then completed by inserting one blade of a thin, curved, blunt pointed scissors into the anterior chamber, the other blade being beneath the flap. A cut is then made at the limbus. He cautions about the necessity of seeing the blade within the eye and the danger of iris injury, also the risk of button-holing the flap during the last mentioned procedure. The lens is then dislocated with a strabismus hook and as the edge presents the pressure is continued with the hook while the lens is followed towards the incision wtih another hook. In case the capsule ruptures the pressure of the hook is not released. Both eyes are bandaged. The patient is dressed twelve to twenty-four hours later, and if he leaves the hospital at that time he must attend the dispensary for ten days. The average stay in the hospital has been 4.84 days. Of 165 cases observed three months later, 154 had from 6/4 to 6/12 vision, while in 11, the vision varied from 6/15 to 6/60. See below under Results. Also Junés' above.

Prince believes his method eliminates the danger of instrumental contamination of the interior of the eye and facilitates rupture of the zonula and delivery of the lens. After a preliminary sedative and cocain anesthesia, the lids are controlled by his special lid elevator with spatula projection to exert pressure on the posterior margin of the incision. Fixation is secured by needle pointed forceps applied near the cornea in the horizontal meridian. For the section a specially devised knife is used to prevent premature escape of aqueous and prolapse of iris over the edge of the knife. The puncture and counterpuncture are made 2 mm. outside the limbus and 2 mm. above the horizontal meridian. Just before finishing the extracorneal incision, the blade is turned forward perpendicularly, which provides a shoulder preventing the sliding of the corneal flap. An iridectomy is then made by elevating the corneal flap. The zonula is ruptured by simultaneous depression of the margin of the incision by the spatula terminal of the lid elevator and by corneal pressure with a cataract spoon. Where not advisable to rupture the zonula, capsulotomy may be resorted to. He also describes his irrigating platinum tipped pipette as well as his capsule forceps, each blade of the latter having two cups, as on a Kalt forceps, and a cystotome point.

(To be continued next month.)

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

THE CRYSTALLINE LENS.

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(*Continued from the June issue.*)

DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

Kearney has described a method by which the lens may be rotated on its antero-posterior axis by means of a cystotome manoeuvre, thus rupturing the zonula in its entire circumference. After the usual section and iridectomy, the cystotome with blade flat, is entered through the outer portion of the incision and passed downwards and inwards behind the iris until it has reached the locality of the lens ligament in its lower inner segment. The point of the instrument is then engaged in the capsule, a quick, jerky, circular movement is then executed in an inward and upward direction. When the release of the lens is noted the cystotome is carefully withdrawn and the lens delivered. The cystotome has a spear point fixed at right angles to the shaft. In case of failure to rupture the zonula, capsulotomy may be performed. In fifteen cases, thirteen were intracapsular extractions. Seven obtained 20/20 vision, none less than 20/50. Following an uncomplicated Smith-Indian operation, **Loeb's** patient developed an intense swelling of the lids two days later which persisted for several days. The same phenomenon occurred after the extraction of the cataract of the other eye. No definite cause could be ascertained. **Fisher** and **Thornburg** have described a method of developing the technic of this operation by using the eyes of kittens. The various steps are described. Much of the contribution has been previously described by Fisher.

SUCTION METHOD OF EXTRACTION. **Manes** has modified the Barraquer vacuum apparatus. The instrument is provided wtih two kinds of cups, to be used according to whether a preliminary iridectomy has been done. There are two conductors, one communicating with the air, the other with the vacuum. The cup is attached to one end of the instrument and at the other a rubber tube communicates with the vacuum apparatus. The instrument is about the weight of a 2 cc. Luer syringe. The vacuum which should be equal to 50 mm. Hg., is created either by compression of a bulb or by an electric motor. After the corneal section, with or without preliminary iridectomy, the cup is introduced into the anterior chamber and attached to the lower part of the lens. The vacuum is then created and by very gentle traction the lens is withdrawn. In the experience of **Castresana** this method has proved effectual and like other intracapsular methods can be applied to immature cataract. The incision must be large as additional room is required for the apparatus. He believes iridectomy to be indispensable. The method does not diminish the chances for loss of vitreous. **Barraquer** and **Anduyned's** description has been referred to in The Digest of the Literature, Amer. Jour. of Ophth., v. 1, p. 94.

EXTRACTION WITH PRELIMINARY CAPSULOTOMY. **Talmey** has made some suggestions towards improving the operation for cataract. In doing so he states his preference for his modification of the Homer Smith capsulotomy. This consists of making the cross or horizontal incision in two steps; that is, the temporal and nasal portions are made in each instance by cutting towards the vertical incision. Six hours later an inferior and slight nasal section is made, a small conjunctival flap being included. No iridectomy is performed. Three alternately black and white su-

tures are then inserted, so that the wound is divided into four equal parts each 3 mm. long. For each suture, the needle is entered 2 mm. from the edge of the wound, passes through the conjunctiva and superficial sclera, reenters the margin of the corneal lip somewhat nearer the inner surface and emerges at the base of the flap or slightly in the corneal tissue. After expressing the lens with a spoon, or his expression hook, the middle suture is first tied. The sutures are removed on the fourth day. He has discussed its adaptability to intracapsular extraction.

Protective Eye Shield. The use of an aluminum protective shield as described by **Kirkpatrick** was referred to in last year's Digest of the Literature, Amer. Jour. of Ophth., v. 1, p. 98. See the same author under Results.

Complications and Sequellae. Hysterical Amaurosis. In a hysterical woman, 42 years of age, **Garcia** obtained a perfectly satisfactory result following cataract extraction, altho the operation was delayed for twenty days owing to lacrimal disease. Despite the good operative result, no light was appreciated. Twelve hours later the patient had a convulsion. Improvement in visual acuity began on the third day and by the fifteenth day 2/3 vision was obtained with an appropriate lens.

Collapse of the Sclera. In **Loeb's** patient, a partial collapse of the sclera developed immediately after the section. Despite the necessary use of a vectis no vitreous was lost. While a low grade iritis developed, 6/10 vision was ultimately obtained.

Disturbances in the Formation of the Anterior Chamber. After a preliminary iridectomy, uncomplicated extraction and a needling, one of **Knapp's** patients returned six weeks later with a collapsed anterior chamber due to a fine fistula. Several cauterizations and a conjunctival flap failed to give a permanent result but three weeks later the chamber reformed with the development of glaucomatous symptoms which yielded to miotics. The second case developed after a preliminary iridectomy, extraction with conjunctival bridge and the use of capsule forceps. The chamber remained open three weeks. Later owing to a rise of tension and the failure of miotics a posterior sclerotomy was done. This was followed by two trephinings with iridectomies and two days following the second of these operations there developed an acute iritis with exudation into the anterior chamber. A large iridectomy was then performed followed by a third trephining. A successful result with 0.8 vision was finally obtained.

Infection. Following a combined extraction **Radcliffe's** patient developed signs of infection on the seventh day. It was regarded as endogenous and was attributed to a bad tooth, the root of which exhibited necrotic changes but no abscess. Phthisis bulbi developed. **Schwenk** has recorded the history of a patient where signs of infection developed on the sixth day. Under boric acid irrigations, the instillation of atropin and argyrol, the external application of a 50 per cent magnesium sulphat solution and the internal administration of quinin, the eye was saved with a resulting visual acuity of 6/30. Similar treatment was successful with another patient who developed evidences of infection twenty-four hours after a discission for secondary cataract. The final vision was likewise 6/30.

Delirium. **Brownell's** study of this subject was recorded last year. See Amer. Jour. of Ophth., v. 1, p. 97

Persistent Pupillary Dilatation After Extraction. **Loeb** has referred to a maximum dilatation of the pupil that persisted for three months after cataract extraction, and the use of atropin immediately after the operation.

Growth from Ciliary Body After Cataract Extraction. Some time after the extraction of a cataract, **Ring** observed a growth lying on the opaque capsule. It apparently originated in the ciliary body and pressed the iris slightly forward.

General Papers. **Gifford** has discussed the various operative procedures and has emphasized the importance of

the Kuhnt procedure where loss of vitreous is feared. His objection to the Homer Smith method is that there is no certainty that the posterior layers of the lens have become opaque. Nearly all of his cases developed increased tension. After referring to the importance of the preliminary care of the patient, he states that he uses a stop speculum that can be readily elevated to relieve pressure on the globe. When fixing the eye he grasps the tendon of the internal rectus muscle. While he has opened the capsule with the point of the knife and Kalt's forceps, he prefers a capsulotome or toothed forceps. He refers to what he describes as a reverse spatula and states it is of much service in replacing the angles of the iridectomy wound in the presence of a threatened loss of vitreous. When necessary to pull out the lens he has found of service a slender loop in which are three small recurved hooks.

Hoare believes the time to operate is when the patient can no longer "carry on." He prefers lid retractors and believes their use lessens the occurrence of vitreous loss, although they increase the difficulty in getting the lens to present. He regards vitreous loss as comparable to shock, hemorrhage or sepsis in general surgery. He prefers a cystotome and makes a ring-shaped incision. After the delivery of the lens a peripheral iridectomy is resorted to. Finally the anterior chamber is irrigated and eserin instilled in the conjunctival sac. **Allport** has outlined in detail his own routine in cataract extraction. For illumination he prefers a modification of the Ziegler hand lamp. When possible he resorts to a preliminary iridectomy. When doing a combined extraction, he substitutes lid retractors for the speculum after the iridectomy is completed. After irrigating the anterior chamber, White's ointment is placed in the conjunctival sac.

Timberman includes half of the cornea in his incision, no conjunctival flap being used. After grasping the iris it is excised by his assistant. The Smith or Fisher hook is then substituted for the speculum. He thinks the double hook of the last named is bunglesome. An attempt is then made to do an intracapsular extraction and failing in this he resorts to the procedure of Knapp. Both failing, a capsulotomy is performed. He prefers the intracapsular method. **Santos Fernandez** has reviewed the literature in connection with the very old. He has operated on several patients over eighty and one at ninety-five years of age. Good general condition is regarded as of importance. **Jervey** has emphasized the importance of safety. He has referred to the avoidance of pressure on the globe, the value of lid retractors and in those cases of probable vitreous loss, the value of the Kalt suture. He then refers briefly to postoperative infection and its prevention. **Srinivaschary's** contribution was not available.

Results of Cataract Operations. Following the suggestion of Doyne, **Knapp** has operated on four cases of cataract occurring in patients with retinitis pigmentosa. All were typical cases with posterior cortical or polar opacities. Two were intracapsular extractions and in the other two cases a capsulotomy was done. In Case I, the vision improved from 20/200 to 20/70; Case II, from 20/200 to 20/50; Case III, from 3/200 to 15/200, and in Case IV, from 3/200 to 6/200. Microscopic examination of one of the lenses showed the following: Changes in the equatorial capsular epithelium, prolongation of transformed capsular epithelium along the posterior surface and irregular cavities filled with lens detritus in the posterior cortical layers.

Kirkpatrick has reported in detail concerning 1164 cases of cataract that came under observation at Madras. Nine hundred and thirty-one were operated on by one surgeon and all but three were tested. Of the remaining 928, capsulotomy with iridectomy was done in 919, simple extraction in eight and expression in one. Of those operations, 85.35 per cent were successful, vision being 6/36 or better; 6.9 per cent were partially successful, vision being more than 2/60; 3.98 per cent were partial failures, there being some vision but less than 2/60; 3.77 were failures, the vision being H. M. or 0. Among

the 35 failures there was one expulsive hemorrhage and three instances of suppurative panophthalmitis. Iris prolapse occurred in 4.96 per cent of the cases, the high rate being attributed by Kirkpatrick to too early use of a shield. There was loss of vitreous in 2.59 per cent of the cases.

The same author has described his operative results on the lenses of 14 senile eyes that had been previously operated upon for glaucoma. Five were benefited by the operation. Four of these had been trephined and on one an iridectomy had been performed. Of the nine unsuccessful cases three had been trephined and six had had an iridectomy.

While reference has been made above to **Husain,** he has published elaborate statistics as to his results in 1,000 cataract extractions. While he is now doing the operation described above, he still does the Smith-Indian operation under certain conditions, while in children he prefers capsulotomy. Of his 1,000 cases, 737 were regarded as ordinary; 158 were bad eyes, on which he would not have ventured a Smith operation; 93 were immature and 12 were in children or infants. Of the 158 cataracts occurring in bad eyes, 146 were successfully operated, 7 of the 12 failures being due to suppuration and keratitis. Of the 93 unripe cataracts, 86 operations were successful, the capsule bursting in 6. Of the 737 ordinary cases, 722 were successful and 15 were failures, the latter being chiefly due to keratitis and iridocyclitis. Of the 1,000 operations, 29 failed; 6 required a secondary operation; 2 had poor vision, fingers at one foot; 963, including 146 bad cases, had sufficient vision to read or recognize cereal grains with glasses. The percentage of his ocular mortality was 2.19 for the ordinary cases and 7.59 for the bad cases.

THE VITREOUS HUMOR.

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This section brings the literature to April, 1919. For previous literature see June, 1918, p. 100.

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Wheeler, J. M. Persistent Hyaloid Artery. Arch. of Ophth., v. 48, p. 87.

Watanabe. Origin of Pigment in Vitreous Hemorrhage. Nippon Gank. Zasshi, March, 1918.

DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Koeppe has contributed an elaborate study of the histopathology of the human vitreous humor in vivo as demonstrated by the Gullstrand Nernst lamp and corneal microscope. He divides the subject into (1) The pathologic changes of the vitreous without actual change or destruction of its fibers; (2) the histopathologic changes of the vitreous tissues with changes of its fibers and partial or complete destruction, i. e., transformation of its fibrous structure.

As the result of his studies pertaining to the first part he found that the changes observed with the Nernst lamp do not indicate the presence of a hyaline membrane in the posterior half of the vitreous, but there appears to be merely a thickening of the posterior marginal layer similar to that in the anterior portion of the vitreous.

The Nernst lamp demonstrates that in retinitis pigmentosa the pigment migration generally extends beyond the internal limiting membrane and that at this point the pigment cells become detached and wander between the vitreous fibers reaching the anterior margins intact as individual cells. The

vitreous thus regularly plays a part in wanderings of pigment cells. Also in the atypical cases this seems to be the rule.

In incipient inflammation of the posterior portion of the bulbus the Nernst lamp permits differentiation with reasonable certainty, independent of the history and clinical findings, between tubercular, luetic, and sympathetic inflammation on the one hand and conditions due to rheumatic, gonorrhoic, diabetic or traumatic and metastatic, septic inflammation. The possibility of early diagnosis in these conditions represents a distinct advance in clinical methods.

Examination with the Nernst lamp is of as much value as the Schieck and the Behr method in the early diagnosis of choked disc and differentiation from neuritis. While the neuritis leads to the early appearance of white blood corpuscles in the vitreous the histologic picture gives just as early information of the existence of choked disc by normal findings, or the appearance of red blood cells in the vitreous.

The Gullstrand lamp offers not only vital information with regard to the aqueous humor, but likewise indicates the histopathologic condition of the tissues surrounding the vitreous, making possible much earlier diagnosis than by means of other existing methods.

Persistent Hyaloid Artery.—In a myopic adult with 3/200 vision, **Wheeler** found in the vitreous a strand which was attached to the optic nerve and extended forward to within about 2 mm. of the lens. It had the characteristic appearance of a complete persistent hyaloid artery. Fine, delicate strands could be seen to radiate from the anterior end. Wheeler believed that originally the strand was attached to the posterior capsule of the lens but that it subsequently became detached owing to the progressively increasing myopia.

Hemorrhage Into the Vitreous. —**Stieren** has recorded the history of a well studied case of spontaneous hemorrhage occurring in an adult female with a tuberculous family history. Some fourteen years before coming under his observation the visual acuity of the left eye had been practically lost as the result of recurrent attacks. Twelve years after the first attack in the left eye, the right became affected. Owing to a direct history of specific infection of the husband the patient had been given intensive treatment. When seen by Stieren the patient could count fingers at two feet with the right eye; while but L. P. remained in the left. Syphilis, blood dyscrasia, septic and intestinal absorption were ruled out as etiologic factors and under a course of injections of old tuberculin and the local use of galvanism there occurred a progressive improvement resulting in a corrected visual acuity for the right eye of 20/30. In the use of commercial tuberculin he believes it advisable to begin with 2 to 5 minims of the strongest dilutions. He also comments on the efficacy of galvanism in promoting the absorption of vitreous hemorrhages and exudates.

The origin of the pigment in vitreous hemorrhage has been discussed by **Watanabe** but the literature was not available. The contributions of Peck, Elliot and Harrison were referred to last year. See Digest of Literature, Amer. Jour of Ophth., v. 1, pp. 101-102.

THE RETINA.

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This section brings the literature up to April, 1919. For previous literature see Vol. 1, pp. 102 and 113.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

ANATOMY.—**Ochoterena** describes and illustrates the microscopic findings in the retina of the horned frog and discusses the evolution of the eye.

In his injections of the ophthalmic artery for the study of the ciliary and retinal vessels, **Uchida** found numerous anastamoses of the circle of Zinn with the central retinal vessels. For this reason the disc may appear entirely normal in case of embolism, in spite of the total blindness. The vessel-free area of the macula was 0.64x0.55 mm. in the eye of an infant and 0.4x0.5 in an individual of 59 years.

ANOMALIES.—An *embryonic condition* of retina was found by **Fuchs** in an eye with perforated corneal ulcer. The outer nuclear layer was thicker than normal and showed radial stripes as is seen in the fetus; the nuclei in this layer were somewhat elongated and flattened at the points of mutual contact. In the macula the ganglion cell and inner plexiform layers were rather thick, conditions which correspond to the fovea of a seven-months-old fetus.

The *optico-ciliary vein* in **Sautter's** case appeared as a vessel running apparently from the papillary vein outward and downward over the papilla to the margin where it abruptly disappeared. In color it resembled an artery but showed no reflex; pulsation could be induced, by pressure, in the other veins, but not with certainty in this one.

In the consecutive examination of 3554 eyes **Parker** found 34.75 per cent with *cilio-retinal arteries;* they were more often (20.2 per cent) in the upper and lower temporal regions than in the macula (13.2 per cent). In 1.2 per cent the vessel took a nasal course, and in 2.6 per cent more than one such vessel was present.

A *coil of anastomosing veins* arising from the main trunk on the disc, and forming a network in the macula, was reported by **Kraupa-Runk,** who also reports an *arterial anastomosing ring* in the left eye of a girl aged 10: a shallow, greyish-green hole was seen in the lower nasal quadrant of the disc from which three cilioretinal arteries arose; these arteries were connected with one another by a vascular ring in the bottom of the hole. The blood stream in this ring did not run regularly; at times it could be seen in the upper, then in the lower part of it; slight pressure on the eye produced granulation of the blood column in it.

Congenital *coloboma at the macula* could be seen in both eyes of a boy, a patient of **Weeks;** the defects were irregularly circular and appeared to affect retina and inner layers of the choroid only. Plentiful retinal pigment at the margin and scattered pigment in the defects were present. These colobomas are not caused by defective closure of the optic cleft but are due to defective development of the choriocapillaris, as already advanced by Collins and Mayou.

Anomalies due to exaggerated development of the retina were reported by **Fuchs.** A number of abnormalities that until now have been observed only in fetal eyes he found in eyes of several individuals, the youngest of which was 7 years old. In the eye of a child of seven he found folds and cysts. The folds were really projections of atypical retina or protrusions of the external retinal layers. The top of the fold or cyst was formed by the greatly thinned nuclear layer, the cells were cylindric, as found by Seefelder and Lindenfeld. The rosettes in fetal eyes are said to be formations of a similar nature. In addition there were indications of exaggerated development of the pars optica at the expense of the pars ciliaris of the retina: the ora serrata extended farther forward and small parts of atypical retina were found on different points of the ciliary body. In another instance the granular layers, in the lower equatorial region, became suddenly thin, the ganglion layer could not be made out positively and the nerve fiber layer was very thin. In the eye of a sixteen-year-old girl enucleated on account of an extensive scleral wound, he found anomalies of the ciliary portion such as

several layers of epithelium, island of rudimentary retina on the inner surface of the ciliary body and a small area of cystoid degeneration at the anterior margin of the retina; the eye further showed characteristics of a senile eye. In the eye of a boy of eight enucleated after an injury, he found thinning of the ciliary portion, the epithelium in several layers and secondary ciliary processes. The ora serrata was 4 mm. behind the anterior chamber and cystic degeneration in the anterior portion of the retina. In the eyes of two adults he found exaggerated development of the pars optica of the retina showing an advancement of the ora serrata, as little islands of atypical retina in the region of the cilary body and greater height of the ciliary processes. In the pars optica the outer layers had grown more strongly resulting in invagination into the inner layers.

Histologic examinations of 8 cases of *projecting folds of the retina at the disc* are reported by **Fuchs.** The protrusion consists of nerve fibers, retinal elements and mesodermal tissue. The nerve fibers arise from the optic nerve or from its fibers near the scleral canal; they are placed inside of the rudimentary retina in bundles; at times they return as little ribbons to their point of origin. Nuclei resembling those of the retina are imbedded in a network of fine glia fibers. The mesodermal elements are blood vessels, connective tissue and elastic fibers. The outer layer of the secondary optic vesicle takes part in these formations in a small number of the cases only. The pigment epithelial cells are irregular and poorly pigmented. In some cases cystic spaces exist. When situated between choroid and sclera the protrusion is flat, when near the disc it is thinner; it may have the form of a finger; most of the time it begins at the disc and extends under the choroid. In several cases other anomalies coexist. In two cases rudimentary retinal tissue was found in the inner layers of the sclerotic, in four cases the invagination entered the optic nerve trunk, in two it entered the dural sheath, and in two it penetrated into the sclerotic next to the disc. These conditions would not be recognized with the ophthalmoscope. The initial cause in all cases is undoubtedly an exaggerated growth of the secondary optic vesicle at the posterior border.

Physiology.—Discussing the physiology of the retina, **Bayliss** mentions the photochemic reaction of the visual purple and the time course of the reaction, as illustrated in records of electric changes accompanying light action in the eyes of certain animals. Excessive contrasts produce injurious effects on the retina. It is not known what occurs in the retina in unpleasant sensations from excessive contrasts, but after very intense and long exposure cell damage can be found. In mild glaring the discomfort is only temporary, but habitual exposure to moderate glare will probably hasten failing sight later on. It is difficult to define glare because of the varying power of different eyes as to resistance and recuperation and because of the different influence of light of a given brightness according to state of adaptation of the eye. The American suggestion that the ratio of brightness of objects in the field of view shall not exceed 100:1 seems reasonable. No unshaded bright light should be within the direct range of vision; bright sources are permissible only immediately overhead, because the eye is shielded by brow and upper lid. A general test for eye fatigue, to demonstrate the effect of different systems of illumination, is difficult to give because the questions of bodily health and fatigue as well as eye strain enter into it. The difficulty of a general fatigue test was concurred in by Collins in the discussion: The limits of fatigue vary widely among different people according to the position of the eyeball in the orbit (the deep-set eye being less liable to fatigue); the size of the pupil, the length and color of the lashes, the pigment in the skin of the eyelids were factors, and he had found that to smear a little charcoal on the lids would give some protection when traveling in glare.

The fact that glasses which satisfactorily corrected hyperopia in daylight

proved too strong, that is, "over corrected" in the evening when out of doors, led **Ogata** and **Weymouth** to the investigation of refractive difference of foveal and parafoveal vision. Small differences of refraction exist between vision in light and in the dark, foveal and parafoveal. The difference is from 0.33 to 0.5 D, the parafoveal region being more myopic. Persons that have to distinguish signals in dim light should have glasses suitable for twilight vision. The facts found may explain the difference in the refraction found by the retinoscope and the subjective method. The differences between vision in the light and in the dark, whether foveal or parafoveal, are to be explained by Jackson's theory of the widened pupil admitting the peripheral more strongly refracted rays. The higher myopia of the parafoveal region is due to the shorter cones and the consequent outward bulging of the external limiting membrane; the so-called external fovea. **Ferree** and **Rand** studying the lag in the retina's response to colored and colorless light and its change with the change in the intensity of light found that it is only of importance in such uses of the eye as permit of very short exposure to its stimulus and that different individuals differed in the amount of lag for a given stimulus, for different wave lengths and white light and for the effect on these differences of changing intensity of light. This is of practical importance in signaling with colored and colorless lights.

In order to obtain data as to the power of the eye to sustain clear and comfortable seeing with different illuminations, **Feree** and **Rand** tested the more common illuminants such as kerosene flame, metallized carbon filament, Mazda globes, etc., under the same conditions of installations, shading, etc. So far the results indicate that in the case of a given color the power of sustained clear vision decreases with increase of saturation of color, but some colors affect the eye more than others. The worse effects showed colors toward the short wave end of the spectrum. The belief in the great value of the old-time kerosene flame is not borne out by these experiments, it being very inferior to other illuminants, the gas-filled Mazda globe, for instance.

A threshold test for practical use is suggested by **Young.** On pieces of white blotting paper he produced standard size spots of black, red, green, blue and yellow inks of different dilutions from 1 to 512 in such manner that each successive spot was half the intensity of the previous one. These pieces of paper were fastened, in proper order, on the gray pages of a photograph album and the cards are successively presented before the patient's eyes. The palest black recognized gives the threshold for light. For red, the threshold for light and color coincide. With both eyes exposed the thresholds are twice as keen. Ordinary variations of illumination do not matter. He and Sinclair examined a number of patients by this method. The relationship of color perception to certain diseases was noticeable; in glaucoma the light sense was much reduced, and in retinitis of pregnancy perception of yellow was greatly affected. Young also suggests discs to be used with a revolving apparatus.

In addition Young points out that discs containing black, gray and white will, when revolved, produce the sensation of color instantly, and he advances the theory that human color sensations are at times the product of a succession of retinal stimuli of various light intensities.

To demonstrate Purkinje effects to a class, **Gaehr** lets a wheel with reddish and bluish color be spun in the light of a strong lantern; he then slowly turns its plane until the light just grazes it. By this reduction of the intensity of light, the red becomes invisible and the effect of this is, in a general way, to change the apparent color of the disc through a series of pretty shades.

Persistence of vision Gaehr demonstrates by means of a lantern and a slide bearing some letters. The image is thrown on black velvet or into an open door and a white stick is moved up and down in the plane of the image. Different portions of the image will be

seen on the stick, and if the stick be moved fast enough the eye will see the entire image.

Exposing colored light for a very short time and varying the intensity of it, **Zahn** watched its disappearance during central fixation and then endeavored, under light adaptation, to find the conditions that will make the light appear as bright as the surroundings. The data as to the luminosity of the different parts of the spectrum when viewed with the fovea centralis correspond to the figures of other observers. In other experiments he found a remarkable similarity of his minimal time luminosities, the minimal field luminosities of Siebeck for the paracentral retina and the luminosity values of v. Kries for the totally color-blind periphery of the retina. The luminosity of the different parts of the spectrum is therefore the same for the foveal, paracentral and pripheral portions of the retina. The maximum luminosity corresponds to the spectrum region of 589 $\mu\mu$. These experiments confirm v. Kries' statement that the physiologic elements for eccentric colorless vision are also present centrally, only that in the center the elements for color determination are present in addition. Luminosity is dependent on the first factor alone and is only slightly modified by the color element.

To study the ability to distinguish two separated objects in twilight vision **Larens** utilized the following three methods: (1) the two objects are viewed at the smallest possible angle permitting their separated perception, about one minute (method of simultaneous observation); (2) a straight line forming the exact continuation of another one is moved laterally and the smallest amount determined still permitting detection, about 10 seconds (nonius method); (3) two lights are given in succession or a displacement is periodically produced (observation of moving objects). The objects were illuminated just enough to keep them just below the limit of foveal vision. The second and third methods are superior to the first one.

Below the light limit for the cones vision is entirely a function of the rods, while with strong light adaptation the rods most probably have no share in vision. The stronger the illumination, the more the function of the cones over that of the rods comes into play. **v. Kries** attempts to find the numerical relation of this divided function. If the function of the cones is to be compared with that of the rods, color sensation must be excluded by examining the peripheral retina. Here the brightness of two colored lights varies according to absolute luminosity and adaptation, between two extreme values, the lowest one of which represents the sole function of the rods, the highest one that of the cones. In the experiments gray and red paper were viewed with the extreme periphery of the retina and the condition determined which would make both appear of the same brightness. The two colors produce the impression of the same brightness with greatly reduced illumination but under strong light adaptation the red appears 4.3 times as bright as the gray. To determine the brightness of the given color, the examined looked thru a hole in white screen at the colored paper, the illumination of which could be varied until it would appear as bright as the white screen. The data thus gained are utilized to derive the formulae for the numerical relation between rods and cones in the function of the eye.

Blood Movement in the Eye.—**Abelsdorff**, in remarking on a work of A. Bühler, calls attention to the fact that he and Nagel had already written on the subject of blood movement in the eye, independently in 1904. They explain the phenomenon as a pseudo-shadow due to absorption of light in the red corpuscles of the capillaries of the retina. Bühler founds his explanation on a light refraction of the corpuscles, which act as convex-concave lenses.

Eye-Ground as Seen with Sunlight.—Using Therner's ophthalmoscope with sunlight from a heliostat, **Ishihara** found the color of the fundus of the Japanese reddish-gray-brown, a color not ordinarily seen with other light. The macula appeared yellow. In Albinos the fundus was light yellow.

Color of the Macula.—**Gullstrand,** in a long paper, defends his view that the macula appears yellow because of the light reflected from the pigment through the thin retina of this region.

Vogt, who formerly held the same view as to the color of the macula as is still defended by Gullstrand, now believes it to be a true color of the retina and quotes a number of cases to prove his contention.

Vogt describes vertical parallel lines which he observed in young individuals during examination with red-free light. These lines are best seen between macula and disc and are at times very marked in the upper and lower foveal margin. They are considered as a reflex from the inner surface of the retina. Similar conditions have been noticed by Lindsay Johnson, Haab and Frost.

Subjective Phenomena. — During his observations on the visibility of the blind spot with intermittent illumination, **Wassenaar** watched a revolving disc with segments of black and white from which one gets the impression of a red or velvet background with streams of green color moving across it. The flickering of the revolving disc makes the retinal vessels visible in colors which differ with the velocity of the disc: shining lines when the disc revolves at comparatively low speed, violet-red when the speed is greater; if the velocity of the disc is further increased the flickering becomes less, the disc assumes a more even violet hue and green meandering lines run over the violet background from the fixation point, which appears as a gray-green spot. He could observe these violet-red and green lines, which apparently are retinal vessels, for a few moments only, then a number of interlacing currents appear. These have been described already by Helmholtz as streams without banks which change their position continually, and have been considered by Vierordt as retinal vessels. Wassenaar thinks they are the chorodial vessels which have become visible. During all experiments absence of larger vessels in the foveal region could be ascertained. **Wassernaar** calls attention to the flash of bright red light; which one sees when one eye is entirely covered and the other one, with lids closed, is alternately rapidly covered and exposed to moderate light. He believes that the visual apparatus reacts to a stimulus at first differently from the way it reacts a moment or two later.

A woman aged 51 with arteriosclerosis and sclerotic kidney saw during several migraine attacks the field of vision filled with regular hexagons. This is interpreted by Klein as autooptic perception of the retinal pigment. Sudden disturbance of intraocular tension, vasomotor disturbances, nervous irritation or toxic processes, he thinks, may lead to disturbances in the pigment epithelium which will produce stimulation of the neuro-epithelium leading to the perception of the pigment epithelium.

Arterial and Venous Blood Pressure.—In his improved method of measuring the retinal arterial blood pressure **Bailliart** makes the examiner apply the spring dynamometer to the eyeball between upper and external recti. Gradually the pressure is increased until he can observe pulsation of the artery with the ophthalmoscope; having read the pressure on the dynamometer, he again increases the pressure until all arterial pulsation ceases. Slight relaxing of the pressure will make pulsation begin again and at this moment the pressure is again noted. In this way diastolic and systolic arterial pressures have been counterbalanced by the pressure of the dynamometer. With the Schiötz tonometer, using the 10 gram weight, the pressure in the anterior chamber is now measured, while the dynamometer is applied to the eye at the same place as before and pressures are exerted to the amounts used before to counterbalance diastolic and systolic arterial pressures. The two Schiötz readings now give the diastolic and systolic pressures in the retinal artery. The method can be simplified some by using a table prepared by Bailliart which indicates to what figure a given intraocular pressure (Schiötz) will rise when different dynamometer pressures are applied to the eye. With the normal intraocular

pressure assumed to be 18 mm., diastolic and systolic arterial pressures amount to 25 and 50 Hg., respectively. If in an eye with normal tension, the dynamometer pressure of 35 and 80 grams is needed to counterbalance the respective diastolic and systolic retinal pressures, these pressures must be considered excessively high.

Smith finds Bailliart's procedure entirely sound but thinks the intraocular pressure of the normal eye ought possibly to be assumed higher, about 24 mm. Hg. He insists that subsequent examiners should use the exact instruments, if the results are to be comparable.

In the study of pressure in the retinal veins **Bailliart** starts with an analysis of the fact that the fundus veins frequently show spontaneous movement. Of 66 normal individuals examined, he found 28, or 42 per cent, without any spontaneous venous movements; in some of these, venous movements could be produced artificially by turning the head, compressing the vessels of the neck, etc. Slight spontaneous movement was found in 14, or 21 per cent. In 37 per cent a distinct venous pulsation existed. The venous pulse is slow, less snappy and shorter than the arterial pulse, or the blood column in the lumen of the vein seems to show a piston movement. This latter form is rare among normal individuals and is more frequent with disturbed relation between the venous and arterial pressures. One must avoid mistaking for a venous pulse certain spurious movements. The vis a tergo is the only force pushing the venous blood, and the nearer to the center of the disc, the more the pressure diminishes. At the moment of the ventricular systole the venous pressure commences to diminish in the larger venous branches and at the same time the intraocular pressure is at its height. With the diminution of the intraocular pressure during the diastole, the veins fill again. If the intravenous pressure is constantly higher than the intraocular pressure, then the veins will remain dilated; but if the difference between the diastolic and presystolic pressures in the interior of the veins is strong enough, a return current of the blood column at the moment of the presystole will be seen and the impression of a piston movement inside of the veins will be produced.

(1) If the minimum retinal venous pressure is below the maximum intraocular tension, the fundus veins show spontaneous movement and slight pressure applied to the eye in the manner described for the arterial tension, abolishes the venous pulse. This could be noted in 37 per cent of his patients. Spontaneous venous pulse is consequently found when the minimum venous pressure at the disc is below the intraocular tension and the venous pressure in such case surpasses the intraocular pressure by, at most, a few mm. when it is at its height.

(2) When the fundus vein shows no pulsation then the venous pressure is either constantly below the ocular pressure or it is constantly above it. Compression of the eye will decide which condition exists. If the venous pulsation is absent because the ocular tension is constantly below the venous pressure, compression of the globe will make pulsation appear as soon as the ocular pressure so modified will be above the minimum venous tension, and pulsation will disappear as soon as the ocular pressure will equal the highest venous tension. With the normal individual the least pressure makes the pulsation appear and it is sufficient just to increase this pressure to see the pulse die out before the first arterial pulsation. Eight, or 12 per cent, of his normal patients showed this symptom.

(3) When the spontaneous venous pulsation does not exist because the ocular tension is constantly above the venous pressure, then, of course, pressure on the eyeball will not make venous pulse appear; compression will only make the vein collapse. Twenty, or 30 per cent, of his cases belong to this group.

(4) In those cases where pulsation is irregular, appearing and disappearing, under different conditions during the examination, the highest ocular tension and the minimum venous pressure are so near one another that they are hold-

ing one another in balance; the slightest modification of the venous pressure makes pulsation appear and disappear. This was found in 14, or 21 per cent, of his cases.

From this can be seen that in the normal individual the venous pressure of the disc is always very near the ocular tension and that it varies around it according to the phases of the cardiac cycle and according to the systolic and diastolic oscillations of the intraocular pressure. In the venous hypotension the minimal venous pressure cannot be estimated, but, by pressure on the eye, the venous hypertension can be figured out. Considerable arterial pressure goes without venous pulse, and spontaneous pulsation is found among individuals with low blood pressure. Venous pulse is found in cases of embolism of the central artery and in albuminuric retinitis, where the arterial pressure is at its maximum, spontaneous venous pulse is not the rule. In glaucoma spontaneous pulse is far from being a constant symptom, since the ocular pressure is generally higher than the venous pressure. If it is assumed that the average intraocular pressure equals 18 to 20 mm., the venous pressure at the disc oscillates above and below the maximum intraocular pressure; the venous pressure will consequently, in the majority of cases, be between 18 and 22 mm. If, with Priestley Smith, the intraocular tension is assumed to be 24 mm., the retinal venous pressure will amount to 22 to 25 mm.

Diagnosis. — By the ophthalmoscopic examination with red-free light **Vogt** could discover atrophy of the nerve fiber layers in the retina, in retrobulbar neuritis, before the disease had made any changes in the disc. Normally the nerve fibers show as a typical striation from the macula to the disc. This striation soon disappears when the nerve fibers atrophy from any cause and its place is taken by a peculiar marbled appearance of the region between macula and disc.

General Pathology.—Affections of the macula in consequence of disease in other parts of the eye occur, says **Fuchs**, because the fovea is the most sensitive part of the eye. But, because pathologic changes are often difficult to differentiate from postmortem changes, it is necessary to remember that these latter can occur through retarded fixation before the preserving fluid penetrates the sclera. Such are: Cavities in the tissues, detachment and breaking down of the cones. Mueller's fluid produces shrinking of the vitreous, detachment of the retina and thickening in the region of the fovea by pulling Henle's fibers from the more tangential into a more radial position; spaces develop which are most often empty but contain coagulum at times; the shrinking vitreous occasions spaces in the inner nuclear layers.

Contusion may cause incomplete tear of the retina in the macula, spaces may form through edema, small tears, or circumscribed atrophy of the tissue; a central scotoma can result without any ophthalmoscopic signs. Changes in the retinal epithelium lead to adhesions of the retina to choroid. A high degree of destruction leads to hole formation. Perforation of the eye produces changes in the macula only when it is followed by inflammation of iris, ciliary body, etc. The macula is at times the only portion affected. In endophthalmitis the spaces in the retina contain coagulated fluid, fibrin, and often leucocytes. In sympathetic ophthalmitis the macula is often unchanged, since the infiltration of the choroid does not extend into the chorio-capillaris and since the pigment epithelium is normal; in other cases the macula is seriously affected. Macular changes occur easily when the retina is attacked from the anterior surface, but hardly when from the choroidal side. Endogenous inflammations of the anterior portion of the eye, as iritis and iridocyclitis, give off toxins which affect the retina similarly as in purulent keratitis. Affection of the fovea by toxins from endogenous inflammation from small choroidal sarcoma is an exceptional occurrence. Tumors, etc., pressing on the eyeball from behind may, by diminished blood supply, lead to nutritional tissue change in the retina. In glaucoma the fovea becomes wide and shallow because of

the atrophy of the nerve and ganglion layer, but the macula can appear normal even in very old cases. Characteristic for glaucoma is the cystoid degeneration of the macula; it begins as edema at the edge of the fovea. Simultaneous with the edema of the external reticular layers, clefts appear in the inner nuclear layers with diminution of the number of nuclei. The clefts are the result of destruction of nuclei and not the consequence of edema. Rods and cones often remain unaltered for some time, even with extensive destruction of the external nuclear layers, thereby showing the opposite relation from that found in the destruction of the rods and cones when the corresponding nuclei disappear rather early. The inner nuclear layers suffer early because the capillaries of the retina end here. The cystoid degeneration at the ora serrata has the same reason. The extension of the clefts to large cavities is accomplished through edema. The macula, in glaucoma, may also show simple atrophy and is thereby transformed to a thin glious membrane with few nuclei, and the rods disappear. Retinitis externa is found in some cases of glaucoma; the neuro-epithelium is gone, pigmented epithelium is hypertrophied or missing, and the retina is adherent to the normal choroid. In other cases of glaucoma, the retina is entirely, or to a large extent, atrophied, pigmented and adherent to the lamina vitrea. In these cases hole in the macula can develop.

Meller's opinion that angiomatosis of the retina, or von Hippel's disease, is essentially a primary tumor-like, infiltrating proliferation of glia with secondary vascular changes is found fault with by **von Hippel,** who shows, from an examination of different specimens, that a diffuse glial growth with tumor character can be found under the most diverse conditions and that glial formation can be shown to be secondary. After necrosis of the specific retinal elements the glia develops space-filling activities and grows to an unusual degree. Anatomically no sharp line can be drawn between proliferation and tumor formation of the glia.

In the experiments to investigate the regeneration of the retina **Urra** wounded the retina, under the guide of the ophthalmoscope, by piercing the eyeball behind the lens. In the histologic examination his polychrome stain was quite useful, but for the study of the nervous structures his new method of impregnation of celloidin sections is preferable. The sections are first heated on the slide with a few drops of either Liqu potas. acetat Gylcerin, equal parts, or 1 per cent Sol. Potas. ferrocyanid; then washed in water; with a few drops of 3 per cent Silver nitrat, 15 grams 2 per cent Protargol, 2 drops, on the slide, the sections are gently heated three or four times to the emission of steam; the excess of the silver is poured off or removed with filter paper. A few drops of water containing Hydroquinon are poured over the sections; when these turn sepia brown they are immediately washed in water, dehydrated in alcohol, cleared in creosote and enclosed in balsam. The method is said to be easy, reliable and to impregnate the axons and major part of the cells excellently. Nervous regeneration of the retina, he says, is a positive histologic fact, though the restoration of function is impossible. The axons, in spite of their surprising impetus, never succeed in restoring nervous conduction. The wounded retina goes through a period of regeneration but finally undergoes total atrophy giving the clinically well known lesions.

The star figure in the macula of albuminuric retinitis **Nowaga** found to be formed by thickened Henle's fibers and hyalin degeneration as evidenced by the different stains; eosin, van Giesen, etc.

(Continued next month)

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

THE RETINA

MARCUS FEINGOLD, M. D.

NEW ORLEANS, LA.

(Continued from July issue)

Schnaudigel describes a cellular thickening in the ganglion cell layers surrounding the macula; he considers it as a ganglioma, a tumor. Other layers of the retina showed cystic degeneration. In the discussion Fuchs would consider the condition a degenerative hypertrophic process.

In a boy who died of amaurotic idiocy when 13 years old, **de Vries** found —chorio-retinitis with very fine pigment spots giving the impression of luetic retinal disease. Blood Wassermann was strongly positive. Histologically the changes characteristic for amaurotic idiocy were found in the retina. The nerve fiber, ganglion and inner reticular layers were almost unchanged; inner and outer nuclear layers were reduced in thickness, the latter often entirely missing. Cones and rods were absent over a large area and intact only in the periphery, a condition contrary to what is found in pigmentary degeneration or in congenital lues. In the posterior half the pigment epithelium had disappeared entirely in places or had lost its pigment; the pigment cells showed irregular arrangement here and there, and were occasionally found in the retina. Similar changes have been described by Stock.

Suganuma confirms Wolfrum's views that the lamina vitrea consists of two parts. One layer is the basal membrane of the retinal epithelium and the other consists of a network of elastic fibers communicating with the chorio-capillaris; a narrow space exists between the lamellae. In glioma the basal membrane is first destroyed. In choroidal tumors the elastic fiber layer becomes first destroyed; tears develop which extend into the chorio-capillaris and bleeding may follow; organization and shrinking of the hemorrhage constrict the tumor at its neck leading to secondary necrosis. If the basal layer alone is damaged, the outer layers of the retina suffer some. But when the elastic layer is destroyed, disturbance in the chorio-capillaris leads to severe damage of the outer layers of the retina. He further gives in detail his views of the origin of pathologic pigmentation and especially in pigmentary degeneration of the retina.

In the literature **Fuchs** finds thirty-one cases of angioid streaks and only one histologic examination, by Magitot. Similar lines but of different appearances were noticed by three observers after postoperative detachment of the choroid. They differ from angioid streaks by their known etiology, their unilateralness, the rapid development and their different appearance. They form no ring around the disc and run less radially, they never appear red and never show the white lines which at times accompany the angioid streaks. In an eye of a man aged 24, with serous detachment of the choroid after perforation of the cornea, he found several kinds of folds: 1. The wellknown folds of detached choroid marked by the line of the pigment epithelium; 2. Folds of the neuro-epithelial layer of the retina alone, while the inner layer appeared perfectly smooth; 3. Folds formed by the lamina vitrea and pigment epithelium projecting deep into the choroid, thus making two surfaces of pigment epithelium come in close contact. These folds would appear as dark lines ophthalmoscopically and would show irregular lateral projections, if after reattachment of the choroid these folds are not abolished. In another kind of fold, in a shrinking eye,

he found the pigment epithelium did not extend down with the lamina vitrea but had accumulated at the entrance of the folded membrane.

Retinal Asthenopia. — In many cases of asthenopia **Snellen** found the disc hyperemic, the margins indistinct and the vessels tortuous. Normal vision does not prove normal function of the retina. In anemic persons the function of the retina is lowered, ordinary light acts insufficiently and the automatic reflex action of accommodation is lacking; greater attention is therefore necessary. This conscious act tires the patient more quickly than an accommodation accomplished by a purely automatic reflex. A weak convex glass will strengthen the stimulus for focusing.

Retinal Blood Vessels.—**Nakamura's** patient, a blacksmith aged 24, whose left eye was blind thru an injury, complained of visual disturbances of the right eye. In the upper part of the fundus small red *miliary aneurisms*, especially on the veins, could be seen and here and there silvery, shiny exudate behind the vessels; a small detachment was found in the lower periphery. Tuberculin reaction was strongly positive. Finally the eye became blind thru detachment and glaucoma.

Bilateral *multiple angiomata* of the retina **Collins** reports in a patient who in 1911, when 20 years old, complained of a film in front of her and of seeing black dots. At that time the right fundus showed a patch of colloid degeneration out and up from the disc, the left vitreous was full of opacities and the veins were congested. In 1917 the sight of her right eye became misty. An enormous distention of the retinal arteries and veins could be seen, especially of the superior and inferior temporal branches. They were much convoluted, laterally and anteroposteriorally. It was difficult to distinguish between arteries and veins. In the periphery the superior temporal vessels passed into a raised pinkish mass while the retina appeared grayish. The inferior temporal vessels ended in a similar raised but smaller mass; in the temporal periphery was another small mass with large blood vessels going to it. On the outer side of the macula and inner side of the disc were numerous bright, shiny dots and patches with flecks of pigment. Similar but less extensive changes were found in the left eye. Wassermann reaction was negative.

Excessive dilatation of the upper temporal vein and of the corresponding artery of one eye only was present in **Goldsmith's** case. Vision of this eye was better than that of the other one.

Seven years after enucleation of his eye on account of *von Hippel's disease*, **Hoffmann's** patient, aged 46, developed symptoms of an affection of the central nervous system followed by cachexia and a metastasis on a rib. His son had lost an eye from the same disease. This is the first instance of metastasis in this affection.

Strickler's patient, a woman aged 57, showed in the right eye small retinal hemorrhages between disc and macula, also on the upper part of the disc; a few white lines ran towards the macula; marked *angiosclerosis*. The left eye showed small hemorrhages above the disc. Later glaucoma of the right eye developed and no view of the fundus could be had because of the hemorrhage into the vitreous. A similar case is mentioned by Patterson, in the discussion.

The vascular changes in **Jackson's** three cases followed severe injury leading to permanent blindness. (a) The right eye of a man aged 78, showed a grayish-white disc devoid of vessels, only one small retinal vessel was visible passing upward. The whole region for six d. d. from the disc showed complete absence of the retinal pigment and obliteration of the larger choroidal vessels, which were replaced by grayish-white bands sharply outlined by the retained choroidal pigment. In the periphery the choroidal circulation seemed normal but the retinal pigment was scant. (b) In the left eye of a man aged 36, vitreous dust was present in the upper temporal region only; pigment layer and choriocapillaris were completely atrophied except in the up-

per quadrant; white bands ran from the disc to the periphery behind the upper nasal and temporal vessels, and a third linear one horizontally outward. Many choroidal vessels were sclerosed and round, and branching pigment was seen in the inner layers of the retina. The disc appeared red and slightly hazy. (c) A boy aged 12 had his left lower lid torn away and the eye pulled out of the socket by a cow; the eye was replaced by the physician. Later the disc seemed replaced by an old bluish area with brownish-black pigment at the margin, the area was depressed 1 D. and filled in with connective tissue showing no vessels; at the upper and lower ends normal retinal vessels appeared. Rupture of the choroid at the temporal side of the disc. The first case presents the result of the injury to the posterior ciliary vessels and to the central retinal vessels. The second case is one of choroidal sclerosis with normal retina; the white streaks were such as would follow extensive hemorrhage, while pigmentation and atrophy point to inflammatory reaction. Avulsion of the optic nerve is the diagnosis in the third case and the fairly normal vessels do not speak against it.

Embolus of the macular artery was found by **Brown** in a man aged 26, whose left eye became suddenly blind. A small hemorrhage was present above the macular artery near the disc with edema of the disc and macular area, tho the blood flowed thru all portions of the vessels there was a typical cherry red spot. Physical examination including teeth, blood and spinal fluid, was negative, but pus was found in the tonsils. Tonsillectomy was done but vision did not return.

A case of infectious parotitis followed by chorea minor and embolism of the central retinal artery is reported by **Knapp** in a girl of 8 years. One week after mumps typical chorea developed and next day the sight of the left eye was lost; a few days later the skin of the left lid was black and blue for twenty-five minutes. Left pupil was dilated giving no light reaction; the disc was white with blurred temporal margin; the inferior temporal artery alone was very thin; edema of the macula with cherry red spot. As the source of the embolism an endocarditis not sufficiently developed to give physical symptoms is assumed.

Mayou maintains that new vessels on the iris when associated with glaucoma are pathognomonic of *thrombosis* of the central retinal vein. He found new vessels on the iris, in one case, three days after the onset of glaucoma. This symptom is important because of the prognosis, since operations are liable to be followed by subchoroidal hemorrhage. The vessels are derived from the ciliary circulation.

Occlusion of the retinal artery of the right eye in a man, aged 58, is reported by **Krauss.** Only a small section of the artery was visible on the disc; the veins were full and tortuous; innumerable hemorrhages could be seen in the fundus.

In occlusion of the central retinal artery **Knapp** says that in thirty per cent of such cases no positive cause can be found. He found: 1. Thrombosis following parotitis. 2. Two cases of frequent obscurations ending in occlusion of one of the branches; no definite cause could be found except anemia after tuberculosis in one and abscessed teeth in the other. 3. Temporary obstruction observed during an attack caused by an anomaly of the vessels on the disc and momentarily reduced general blood pressure. 4. Obstruction of the retinal artery with exudates and hemorrhages in a patient with chronic streptococcus viridis septicemia. 5. Bilateral retrobulbar neuritis with involvement of the retinal artery in a patient with endocarditis. In the discussion Zentmayer relates a case of a boy aged 12 who suddenly lost the vision of his right eye thru complete obstruction of the arterial trunk by an embolus, the boy having valvular heart lesion; later a patch of exudative retinitis appeared; Chance reported extensive ischemia of the left eye in a pregnant woman; three months after confinement circulation was completely restored, and Ziegler related a case of spasm of the retinal ves-

sels he thought due to disturbance of the parathyroid.

A woman, 75, a patient of **Stilwill,** noticed a cloud several months ago before the right eye; vision poor since then. The entire fundus was dotted with hemorrhages, the disc was swollen and largely covered by exudate; the veins were dilated and tortuous, the arteries small.

Crisp's patient, a man aged 32, with tuberculosis, was seen one hour and a half after his left eye had suddenly become blind. The characteristic appearance of embolism of the retinal artery was found; vessels were threadlike, the fundus puffy, and a cherry-red patch was present in the macula.

SPASM.—A French major complained to **Ormond** that his right eye had suddenly become blind for a short while several times in the last few days and that no headache followed. While relating this a similar attack came on, which Ormond could watch with the ophthalmoscope. Pupil of the right eye was 7 mm., the disc blanched and also the retina immediately around it; only the veins appeared to be present; the inferior retinal vein showed four to five distinct notches. Sudenly sight began to return, the notches disappeared, pupil resumed size of the other eye, the disc looked more red than normal and the arteries showed up. Ormond interprets his findings as a contraction of the central retinal artery, resulting in temporary blanching of the disc and retina in the immediate neighborhood with a gradual lessening of the blood in the veins, so that the endothelial lining became roughened into horizontal folds as the vein had emptied. As to cause: No sign of arterial degeneration, possibly to many cigarettes, or the effect of some toxic product.

VISUAL DISTURBANCE AFTER BLEEDING.—Of five cases of visual disturbance after bleeding which he observed **Pincus** could see one on the third day after the hemorrhage and found an enormous edema of the optic nerve, pale arteries and slightly engorged but pale veins. Two days later the edema was entirely gone and was followed by neuritis and atrophy. As already pointed out by Leber the condition in the early stages is due to lowering of blood pressure and heart action, together with contraction of the arteries. In the later cases it is due to edematous exudate into the nerve head and degeneration of the vascular endothelium. The fact that the field shows poorer vision below seems to prove this opinion.

HEMORRHAGE.—Several cases of retinal hemorrhage apparently due to streptococcus hemolyticus affection of the teeth are reported by **Lewis.** A woman, while under observation of a competent internist and ophthalmologist, suffered from recurrent hemorrhage of the retina. Patches of blood were scattered near the large vessels and minute spots in the macula; marked leucocytosis; marked pyorrhea and apical abscesses containing streptococcus hemolyticus were discovered. With the removal of this source of infection came cessation of the hemorrhages. In another instance of a man aged 70, an infected tooth and streptococcus hemolyticus were found, autogenous vaccine was given, and no further hemorrhages occurred. Similar experience was had in subsequent cases. Lewis assumes that the bacterial toxin has affected the endothelium of the vessels and thus led to the hemorrhages, and he insists that the correct therapeutic lesson be drawn from it.

Preretinal hemorrhage in the macula was the cause of the sudden blindness of the right eye of **Tenner's** patient, a man of 54. Internal examination and Wassermann were negative, but numerous decayed teeth and pyorrhea alveolaris were found. From an alveolar pocket a nonhemolytic streptococcus was obtained in pure culture. Vaccine was given and vision rapidly returned to normal.

In addition to the use of tuberculin **Keiper** urges investigation of the blood pressure in cases of hemorrhage into vitreous or retina, it having amounted in one of his cases to 300 mm. Hg. Commenting on this Jackson mentions that retinal hemorrhage may be ac-

companied by low blood pressure, as already pointed out by Stevens; retinal hemorrhage may occur with high as well as with low coagulability of the blood.

Tuberculosis.—Tubercular endovasculitis of the retina, with degeneration of the optic nerve and of the retina, is described by **Uribe-Troncoso** in a sailor, aged 32. Blindness of the left eye came on in four or five days and neuroretinitis was diagnosed. Salvarsan and mercury were given. About two months later posterior synechiae were present, optic nerve was hazy and covered by a white veil with blurred margins. No vessels on the disc but on the border some of the large vessels could be detected; the lower temporal artery as a whitish cord, the upper temporal and lower nasal arteries as strings of white glistening patches of a beaded appearance. Around the disc a ring of white glistening patches was seen; the whole eyeground was covered by white glistening spots, generally arranged in groups; no pigmentation anywhere. Blood and spinal fluid Wassermann were negative. Rise in temperature and hemorrhage with new vessels developing in the neighborhood followed the injection of old tuberculin.

White's patient, aged 20, developed sudden blindness of the left eye. Fundus showed obliterating endarteritis of upper temporal and nasal vessels, the retina here presenting deep opacities and hemorrhages. Wassermann was negative. Tuberculin gave only a slight febrile, but decided focal reaction.

A bluish-gray lesion extending from near the temporal side of the left disc to the macula was present in **Thompson's** patient, a girl of 17 years. Near the macula a hemorrhage looked like a magnified Purkinje cell. Evening temperature and positive von Pirquet.

In a woman, aged 29, with tuberculosis, **Okabe** observed periphlebitis of the retina. The right vitreous was so opaque that no view of the fundus could be had, while the left eye showed in the periphery periphlebitis with white stripes. Tuberculosis is assumed as the cause of the inflammatory changes in one eye and the bleeding into the vitreous of the other.

Hyperplastic Exudative Nonhemorrhagic Retinitis. — Reporting four cases of organized nonhemorrhagic retinal exudate, one of which showed symptoms of retinitis proliferans, **Jervy** proposes the new term of hyperplastic exudative nonhemorrhagic retinitis. Retinitis circinata might be included under this heading, he suggests. The hyperplastic retinitis of syphilitic and traumatic origin should be classed in this group, while his own cases must for the present be regarded as idiopathic. Lues was absent in his cases; trauma was reported in one; diseased tonsils were found in two cases, and tuberculosis was probable in one. One eye had to be enucleated because of tumor suspicion, tho the probable diagnosis of massive exudation of Coats had been made. Histologic examination was not made. Massive doses of iodid of potash seemed to have a beneficial influence in two cases.

Proliferating Retinitis.—After reviewing the pathology of proliferating retinitis **Zentmayer** reports four cases. The Wassermann reaction was negative in all cases, tuberculin positive in one, coagulation time slow in one, and diabetes in one. Treatment consisted of iron iodid of potassium, subconjunctical injection of salt, dionin, and fibrolysin.

Syphilis.—A complete star or sun-shaped figure of startling brilliancy was present in the macula of **Haden's** patient; it gave the impression as of looking into the depth of a white flower; the rays were equal and commenced around a circular dull red area. Mercury and iodid of potash rapidly restored normal vision but the disc became pale and the field defect persisted. The macular figure was an exudate in and swelling of Henle's layer, secondary to local inflammation in the optic nerve near to and involving the papilla, probably of syphilitic origin.

The form of retinitis described by Jakobson, **Masuda** has seen only rarely, but he has met more frequently the

circumpapillary retinitis which he considers characteristic for syphilis. According to him four forms of syphilitic retinitis exist: 1. Syphilitic retinitis of Jakobson. 2. Circumpapillary retinitis. 3. Diffuse central syphilitic retinitis. 4. Superficial central syphilitic retinitis.

Masuda sums up *retinitis centralis* in the following: The disease is frequent in Japan; it appears in two forms: One shows a slight, mostly round opacity in the macula behind the vessels and can consequently be looked upon as a chorioretinitis centralis serosa. It is found mostly in men above thirty and syphilis seems to play no etiologic factor. The other form shows a slight diffuse opacity in the macula in front of the vessels. Syphilis is always found here. This variety is again seen in two forms. One is more limited to the macula and the other is more diffusely arranged around it; they are named respectively, retinitis syphilitica centralis superficialis, and retinitis syphilitica centralis diffusa. In these two forms an inflammatory edema of the inner layers is assumed.

Renal Retinitis.—**Bray** reviews all ocular complications in renal disease, such as retinitis, neuritis, uremia, etc., and dwells on the prognostic value of retinitis.

In 107 cases of eye affections during nephritis **Bergemann** found, arranged in the order of frequency; Retinal edema, exudates, hemorrhages, choroiditis, etc. Unilateral affection was present several times, three times whitish deposit on the disc was the only symptom, and choroiditis was seen comparatively frequently. The eye affections appeared in acute, diffuse and focal, glomerulo-nephritis, especially in severe cases with tendency to recurrence. The blood pressure alone was not the cause. A special war nephritis does not exist. The prognosis is conditioned upon the recurrence of the nephritis.

More than one-half of the cases of war nephritis show fundus changes, **Hornicker** declares. These are more marked the more marked the nephritis. The albuminuric retinitis forms only a part of the fundus changes and is found in acute and chronic glomerulonephritis and kidney sclerosis. It is an indicator for the violence of the kidney disturbance. Fundus changes and blood pressure show a certain relation; the higher the blood pressure the more likely the fundus changes; retinitis and hemorrhages are found only in high blood pressure. Low pressure together with fundus changes indicates a kidney process which is not entirely finished and is likely to recur. High blood pressure and negative fundus indicate benign kidney sclerosis, but may be found also in the malignant form.

Diabetes.—The result of careful and minute study of a number of diabetics with retinitis is reported by **Onfray.** Diabetic retinitis is characterized by hemorrhages; these may be in the form of dots or large patches, or may be massive and penetrating into the vitreous, thus leading to glaucoma or to detachment of the retina. The onset of the retinitis is rarely observed and is only discovered when causing symptoms. At times both will be discovered about the same time; at other times long intervals will elapse between the first symptoms of diabetes and the appearance of retinitis. The diabetes causing retinitis is often a simple, benign diabetes, but many patients with diabetic retinitis show albumin, and glycosuria will be found together with vascular hypertension. The prognosis as to life of diabetic retinitis is less grave than that of albuminuric retinitis; many patients live long after the appearance of the retinitis. Twenty-five per cent of diabetics have normal kidney function and no vascular hypertension; fifty per cent have vascular hypertension and variable glycosuria, their kidney function being partially intact; twenty to twenty-five per cent have nephritis with azotemia which may entirely hide the diabetes. The central dotlike retinitis represents the purely diabetic retinitis; the forms with larger hemorrhages are associated with nephritis while papilloretinitis is found among the diabetics with azotemia; transitions are numer-

ous. As to the pathology, the hemorrhages may depend upon the conditions of the vessels or be caused by transitory vascular hypertension, or by chemical changes of the blood. Three kinds of white foci are met: Preretinal bands, patches and brilliant spots. The bands are the result of hemorrhages. The white patches are formed by fibrinous network and are often the outcome of bleached hemorrhages. Some of the brilliant spots are not the result of hemorrhages; the fat content of the blood must be taken into consideration, but the problem is still to be studied. The treatment in simple diabetes will have to be dietetic; watching of the vascular tension; limitation of the fluid intake and hypotension regimen are indicated. When vascular hypertension exists the combination of hypotensive chlorine-free with diabetic diet is indicated. Iodides may be used for the vascular sclerosis and to alter the viscosity of the blood, but are contraindicated when the hydremia would facilitate hemorrhages. With azotemia contradictory therapeutic indications are to be met and the physician can only feel his way in the difficult situation.

Circinate Retinitis.—**Steinbugler's** patient, a woman aged 57, with negative history, urine and Wassermann, had poor vision of the right eye for six months. In the macula a reddish-brown spot larger than the disc was surrounded by a horizontal, horseshoe-shaped white patch with many small white patches near it, scattered above and below.

Argañaraz's case of circinate retinitis is interesting because the patient was a man aged 24, who two and a half months before accidentally discovered the poor sight of his left eye. Media were clear, the disc margins were not well defined tho no real neuritis; the vessels showed no changes. Between disc and fovea and extending to the whole posterior pole numerous dotlike shining spots could be seen lying behind the vessels. Central scotoma; vision 116; sinuses and Wassermann negative.

Basterra y Santa Cruz had occasion to see circinate retinitis develop in a woman aged 69. At first hemorrhage in the lower temporal portion of the retina of the left eye and hemorrhages covering the disc were present from thrombosis of the inferior temporal vein. Physical examination negative. Gradually the hemorrhage disappeared, white spots developed and the retina became cloudy in the lower temporal part. Later the white spots appeared smaller but increased in number, forming a semicircle extending from the temporal portion of the disc. Still later the typical picture of circinate retinitis was seen while the inferior temporal vein was bounded by white lines and the macula appeared slightly infiltrated. In the upper nasal field a sector like scotoma extended to the point of fixation. Finally regressive changes showed up in the infiltrated lower temporal part of the retina, the vessels became invisible, the ring of whitish spots less marked and slightly yellow; the spots were fewer and between them the retina appeared grayish.

Angioid Streaks.—**Koehne** was able to examine a case of angioid streaks of the retina published by Pagenstecher in 1908. When first under observation in 1895, the right eye showed only fine spots of pigment in the macula; later on a pigment line showed up near the upper nasal margin of the disc and another one from the nasal margin downwards. These pigment lines had increased since in number and extent, forming the typical ring around the disc from which the blackish-brown lines radiated in different directions, often showing fine serrated edges like a scroll saw. The fundus near the disc appears somewhat diffuse whitish, lighter in color. The left eye shows the whitish focus in the macula already observed in 1899, also new pigment lines and whitish spots in the periphery. The color of the streaks is now purely brownish; during the first examination they were described as reddish. From this case can be concluded that the process is a slowly progressive condition, extending over years, of chronic inflammatory and de-

generative character, showing capillary hemorrhages, connective tissue proliferation, changes in the pigment epithelium and the peculiar angioid streaks. All these changes are of unknown nature. If no angioid streaks were present it would impress one as proliferating retinitis. Koehne could not observe the symptoms observed by Koeffler, who considered the streaks as cracks in the lamina vitrea which appear as dark homogeneous streaks with lighter margins in consequence of the unfavorable reflection of light.

The right eye of **Heed's** patient showed, beginning at the temporal disc margin, grayish retinochoroidal changes, a few pigmented areas and numerous deep retinal hemorrhages. Many deeply pigmented, branching, angioid streaks were running behind the vessels and appeared to come in direct contact with many hemorrhages.

Retinitis Punctata.—Six cases of typical retinitis punctata albescens were observed in one family by **Shiosi.** The field often presented a ring scotoma, at times a central scotoma, but the latter was found only in those cases when the macula was affected. Color vision was markedly disturbed, either red-green and yellow-blue vision was noticeably weak, or only red-green vision was affected.

Retinitis Pigmentosa.—**Fricke** reports a case of unilateral retinitis pigmentosa in which syphilis as the cause could not positively be established. Among the published cases luetic etiology is frequently mentioned, but the gradual development of the disease and the consequent lack of subjective complaints, will, when infection occurs, later on lead to the view that the disease was the result of the infection. In the future careful examination will diminish the causative role of lues in unilateral and bilateral affections.

In a Gordon setter related to the family of *night-blind dogs* published by the author in 1911, **Magnusson** observed typical symptoms of night blindness. The histologic examination of the eye showed in the retina the changes typical for pigmentary degeneration, but the vessels in the choroid and chorio-capillaris were perfectly healthy. A vascular affection as the primary cause of the disease must therefore be excluded, as has already been pointed out by Stock.

Familial Macular Degeneration.—**Clark** reports familial macular degeneration in a boy of 9 years and a girl of 15 years in a family of five children. With both children vision and mental condition began to fail at the age of 7. Both showed in the macula a horizontally oval, dirty gray-yellow area, with fine pigment spots; the surrounding retina had a grayish cast in the boy and appeared atrophic; in the girl it was lighter than the balance of the fundus and looked as if sprinkled with black pepper. Parents not related. Wassermann of patients and parents negative. Clark thinks that familial macular degeneration with and without dementia are the same disease; consanguinity does not determine which form of the disease will develop. The disease belongs to the class of heredo-degenerations together with retinitis pigmentosa, amaurotic family idiocy, etc. Atypical cases are transitional forms. The cause is unknown. In amaurotic family idiocy the ganglion cells of the retina and of the central nervous system are affected; in maculocerebral degeneration, it is the neuroepithelium of the retina.

Progressive familial degeneration of the macula is reported by **Wada** in one male and four female members of a family. They showed whitish gray degeneration of the macula with pigment atrophy and pigment changes.

Of the familial macular degenerations **Stargardt** distinguishes four groups: 1. Presenile macular degeneration of Tay; light spot in macula in individuals above middle age. 2. Honeycomb macular degeneration of Doyne: the honeycomb like arranged spots in the macula of early youth gradually increase, and irregular pigmentation develops. 3. Congenital macular degeneration of Best: is mostly congenital, not progressive and unilateral in one-fourth of the cases the foci are of different size and form and are always immediately below the

macula. 4. Progressive macular degeneration with or without psychic disturbance. The affection in this group begins about the twelfth to the fourteenth year in the forms without psychic disturbance, in the sixth or seventh year in those with disturbances. It is a bilateral affection characterized by yellowish-gray spots and irregular pigmentation, ultimately forming foci of 1 to 2 disc diameters. Around the focus and near the disc small light spots appear. In a given family all members affected are either free of psychic disturbances or all show them. Consanguinity is only one factor in the cases with psychic disturbances.

Macular Degeneration with Dolichocephalus. — **Nakamura's** patient, aged 39, with marked dolichocephalus and idiopathic hemeralopia showed an old neuritis of slight degree and in the right macula a one-half d. d. round depression into which the retinal vessels dipped. The floor of it was dark brown and contained in one place a pigment spot, also two shiny white spots at the edge. Nakamura thinks that in hereditary neuropathic patients a degeneration of the retina, embryologically a part of the brain, may easily develop especially in the so vulnerable macula.

Van der Hoeve, from the examination of 1,336 patients in the last four years, observed senile macular changes in 329 eyes; 173 were in patients more than 60 years of age. Between the ages of 60 and 70, 6.1 per cent showed changes; between 70 and 80, 23 per cent, and above 80 years, 30 per cent. In these eyes lens trouble was very rare.

Hole in the Macula. — **Sedwick's** patient, a colored soldier aged 26, was hit over the right eye and forehead with a stick one year ago. The macula showed an excavated spot a little more than half the size of the disc, deep red in color and mottled, with sharply cut edges and one-half to one millimeter deep. Cholesterin crystals were imbedded in the surrounding retina in close proximity to the hole.

Stilwill's patient had a hole in the macula with a great deal of pigment in and about the margins, after a trauma several years before.

Amaurotic Family Idiocy.—In the postmortem examination of an infant, the fourth one thus affected in a family with six children, **Naville** found aplasia of the tracts in addition to the usual lesions of amaurotic family idiocy. Clinically, he emphasizes, there exist besides the infantile form, also juvenile and atypic forms, all with the same pathognomic degeneration of the cells. The eye findings vary; the infantile form is found among Polish Jews. In the light of the Mendelian theory it indicates a dominant character; it affects 50 per cent of the children and 100 per cent of those of the same sex in the affected families. It may be a type of parental heredity which aborts because the subjects have no posterity.

A painstaking study of the metabolism of a child with typic amaurotic family idiocy is given by **Talbot.** The total metabolism was less than half that of three average normal infants; the metabolism per unit of body weight, or body surface, were both decidedly low.

Winkler reports a clinical observation of a Dutch child with amaurotic family idiocy of the Tay-Sachs type and demonstrated the brains of two children who died from amaurotic family idiocy of the type Spielmayer-Vogt. The two diseases are entirely different according to him.

The clinical diagnosis of amaurotic idiocy (Tay-Sachs) in a Jewish child, the patient of **Westphal** was verified by histologic examination of the central nervous system; the eyes were not examined anatomically. The slight affection of the optic nerve and the severe degeneration of the visual cortex make it probable that the visual disturbance is mostly a central one. Infantile and juvenile forms of amaurotic idiocy are essentially the same process.

Gunn's Dots.—To see Gunn's Dots **Bardsley** uses the plane mirror and looks for them in the penumbra. They are found with smaller errors of refraction and sensitiveness to glare. A

curious case was that of a Jewish boy of 14 to 15 years, in poor health, whose fundus was covered with these glistening points and who could not bear daylight. After a year the dots were only around the disc, especially above and below; his health was much better but the myopia had increased 2 to 3 D.

Taylor has seen Gunn's Dots many times, always above, below and to nasal side of disc, never in the periphery, and scarcely in macula. One must look a little obliquely and with the direct method.

PARASITES.—To the reports of fly larvae as the cause of intraocular affections deposited in the literature since 1900, **Schmidt** adds the fifth case; all except one were in individuals younger than ten years. The modus of infection is not quite clear but it is assumed that the ova get on the child while playing with domestic animals and are then swallowed; later the developed larvae reach the eye thru the blood stream. In the present case a child aged five, showed at first symptoms of glaucoma, then hypopyon, severe pain and vomiting appeared. Repeated paracentesis had to be done and on account of general symptoms the eye was finally enucleated. Examination showed total detachment of the purulently infiltrated retina, pus in the vitreous and in the subretinal space, in a fold of the retina, a seven to eight mm., long larva of hypoderma bovis.

SOLAR RETINITIS AND SNOW BLINDNESS.—To prevent eclipse blinding as a consequence of the total eclipse of the sun of June 8th, **Jackson** urged cooperation of the oculists, newspapers and schools to educate the public. Homemade smoked glasses, dense negatives, especially exposed photograph films, or a card with a pinhole are effective means.

Among soldiers exposed to strong sunlight during a march over snow **Nakano** observed, aside from the typical symptoms of snow blindness, visual acuity reduced to 0.1, hemeralopia and a slight clouding of the macula. Only a few complained of erythropsia. Cure was complete after a week. Yellow glasses would prevent such occurrences, he says.

OGUCHI'S DISEASE.—**Nakamura** describes it in a new form, characterized by congenital hemeralopia, whitish fundus and dark colored vessels, which he observed in nine cases. In all the fundus appeared gray-white but assumed the normal color when the eyes have been covered light-tight for some time, and would soon return to the whitish color when again exposed to light.

Oguchi explains the variety of his disease described by Nakamura by the fact that the visual purple is turned yellowish or white by the action of the light and returns to the normal tone with the exclusion of light.

HEMERALOPIA.—The hemeralopia acquired during the war is due to overwork (surmenage), **Weekers** says. In the diagnosis not only the retinal adaptation as such must be considered but also the adaptation curve. Before the war he has, with the adaptometer of Nagel, found inferior retinal adaptation in persons without any complaint as to their sight. In civil life hemeralopia is found under similar conditions, especially in the coal mines, among the laborers of St. Gothard Tunnel. In these cases he found either retardation or insufficiency of the adaptation. The cause for these cases must be looked for in the overwork and in nervous exhaustion, and for this reason hemeralopia is found mostly among the infantry who have long marches carrying heavy equipment. Hemeralopia has diminished in the Belgium army since conditions have become more favorable as compared with the beginning of the war; then he saw 9 per cent of hemeralopes, now only 3 per cent. Hemeralopia is due to insufficiency in the retinal adaptation from exhaustion. It is to be separated from the hemeralopia of malnutrition. Fatigue changes the function of the endocrin glands and the visual purple and the adaptation might be influenced by them; relation of the superenals to the pigment is well known. Here Jones' results in retinitis pigmentosa with thyroid are mentioned. The hemera-

lopia of the Belgian soldier is not one of malnutrition. But one must remember the role attributed to the vitamins and that scurvy and hemeralopia can be present in the same patient or appear during the same epidemic; herein may be found a possible concurrent cause for the hemeralopia owing to the limitation of the soldier's diet. The prolonged exposure to strong sunlight and the consequent exhaustion of the retina may also be contributary and for this reason he again urges smoked glasses for the hemeralope. Interesting is his new clasification of the hemeralopias from local and general causes. Among the first are: dazzling, corneal opacity, lenticular opacity, pupillary changes, ametropia, siderosis, neuro-retinitis, chorio-retinitis. Hemeralopia from general causes: malnutrition, fatigue, infectious disease, intoxication, autointoxication and unknown causes.

Dor observed three cases in which traumatism was followed by symptoms of hemeralopia and gives details of one. A soldier who had been buried under a collapsed shelter was found unconscious, having sustained fracture of skull and left thigh. Being comatose for three days, he was trephined and found himself completely blind when again conscious. He began to see objects on the tenth day. At the end of a month his sight was greatly restored but marked hemeralopia was present and was still in existence ten months later. Vision was 2/3 and fields not contracted; fundi normal. Dor assumes that the reflex migration of the retinal pigment can be interrupted by intracranial changes, the reflex having its seat in certain fibers of the optic nerve, either in corpus geniculatum or in other parts of the optic fibers. This way one can have hemeralopia with unaltered anatomy of the retina. The counterpart to this hemeralopia in which the retinal pigment does not leave the region of the rods when the light becomes faint, are those cases which are generally mistaken for photophobia and which are rather nyctalopias. In these cases the retinal pigment remains in the position occupied during darkness and does not advance around the rods during light. Cerebral contusion can cause nyctalopia as well as hemeralopia, he says. The term photophobia is to be reserved for all those cases in which the sensitiveness to light is entirely independent of any migration of retinal pigment, as in inflammation, etc.

Among 2,700 eye patients, **Danis** found 203 complaining of nightblindness. The hemeralopia he classifies as follows: 1. With retinal lesions. 2. Of congenital origin. 3. Optical (errors of refraction, cloudy media). 4. Without lesions (essential). 5. Of exaggerators and simulators. The strain of the war, he says, has produced real hemeralopia by bringing about circulatory disturbances in the chorio-capillaris, leading to a defect in the mechanisms of retinal adaptation.

To explain the prevalence of hemeralopia in the soldiers, **Magitot** says it must be assumed that many of them had had hemeralopia in civilian life without knowing it. Conditions with myopia favor it and the stress of active service effects of autointoxication may transform relative into absolute nightblindness; abuse of alcohol may predispose to it. Rest in bed, on milk diet, with diuretics and abstention from meat afterward will, as a rule, rapidly cure true hemeralopia.

As to the cause of idiopathic nightblindness, **Koeppe** found on examination with a Nernst slit lamp and the corneal microsope uniformly diminished transparency of cornea and lens. With this congenitally diminished transparency a congenital weakness of the light perceiving elements of the retina go hand in hand, the two creating the hemeralopic disposition which will lead to hemeralopia after exhaustion, malnutrition, etc. This diminished transparency of cornea and lens may be considered an objective method to prove the patient's claim of nightblindness.

Stenitzer and **Schroeder** could not detect any special influence of cooked liver on the hemeralopia.

Jess observed repeatedly hemeralopic complaints in patients with perforating injury of the eye or with phthisis

bulbi. He believes that there is some causative relation between the disturbance of adaptation of the hitherto healthy eye and the perforating injury of the other eye, that the hemeralopia is a symptom of sympathetic irritation or ophthalmia. The curve of adaptation of one of his patients showed marked lowering while the curve of the same patient nineteen days after the enucleation appeared entirely normal. The field in the same case before the enucleation was moderately constricted and the color limits reversed, while after the enucleation field limits and relation of colors were perfectly normal. He mentions ten other similar cases. He also demonstrates the fields of cases of acquired hemeralopia which all, after the disturbance of adaptation had disappeared, show the peculiarity that the yellow field limits become normal only after the blue limits have reached the normal extent, a condition considered of diagnostic importance by him since 1916.

A war nightblindness does not exist, **Hillemanns** declares. Most cases of disturbed light sense are found in myopes because of the damage of the pigment epithelium and of the rods by the myopic stretching; ophthalmoscopic changes are not necessary. It is doubtful whether disturbed light sense occurs in high hyperopia and astigmatism; in these cases the effect of the dilated pupil is of greater importance. Opacities of the media will reduce vision when the pupil becomes wide; dioptric hemeralopia. In the examination the central visual acuity must be separated from the peripheral light sense. Many patients with chorio-retinal disturbance show disproportionate reduction of vision with reduced illumination. The test object during reduced illumination falls also on the extrafoveal rodcontaining region. As the simplest and most practical military method of examination of adaptation, he therefore recommends examination of the visual acuity with reduced illumination such as in a poorly lighted room or with the use of smoked glasses because it is of greatest importance for the function of the eye in the dark how its central direct vision is influenced by the reduced illumination.

Of the 700 cases of hemeralopia observed by him in the Servian army, **Nechitch** could follow 528 for a longer period. Four forms of hemeralopia exist, according to him: It is either symptomatic, as in chorio-retinitis and retinitis pigmentosa, or idiopathic and without any perceptible fundus lesion. In daylight symptomatic hemeralopia has reduced visual acuity, the idiopathic form, normal vision. Patients with errors of refraction or corneal opacities have no real hemeralopia, theirs is a pseudohemeralopia. Congenital hemeralopia is seen in individuals with weak adaptation but more or less normal vision. The hemeralopia of the World War is an idiopathic hemeralopia caused by defective nutrition. The sensitiveness of the retina in this affection is not the same over its whole extent, thus producing five types of idiopathic hemeralopia: (a) total; (b) with peripheral vision; (c) with eccentric vision; (d) with relative scotoma; (e) with annular scotoma. It is a binocular affection and it may change its type during treatment. Improvement, even spontaneous cures, are not rare, but not lasting. In this disease the functions of the retina are lowered and the photochemic changes are hindered thru the defective nutrition of the retina. Treatment must be in hospitals to improve the general condition of the patient. Cod liver oil, subconjunctival saline injections, iron and arsenic tonic. Relapses occur when the general condition has not sufficiently improved. No ill consequences have followed long duration of the disease.

Only by the separate examination of adaptation with red free and long waved light can a clear conception of nightblindness be gained, **Best** maintains. His adaptometer, consisting of discs covered with radioactive substances, is devised for this purpose. During dark adaptation the increase of sensitiveness for light from radioactive substances ceases in the rodfree area but continues in the periphery for thirty to forty minutes longer. For longwaved light such contrast between macula and periphery exists

only in a minor degree. From this must be concluded the presence of at least two photochemical processes in the retina. He detected simulation of nightblindness in two patients because they claimed not only to see light from radioactive substances but even the longwaved red. In doubtful cases the behavior of the patient during reduced illumination is to be watched by the examiner wearing dark glasses. The end value of dark adaptation varies greatly for the periphery, less for the rodfree area. The disturbance of adaptation may be uniform through the whole extent of the spectrum, the whole process of dark adaptation is disturbed; or the disturbance is primarily in the accumulation of visual purple or of a recipient substance for long waves; or, finally, the disturbance concerns not only the accumulation of the receptive substance but also the corresponding color sensation. The German army had no epidemic and no war hemeralopia. Sixty-six per cent of his cases were caused by errors of refraction. Ten per cent had no lowered end value of dark adaptation; in these cases the retardation is a very fine indicator. Objective changes such as pigmentary degeneration, choroiditis, optic atrophy and corneal opacities were found rarely. The fundus changes described by Augstein are not characteristic. Functional neuroses were present in 8 per cent. Malnutrition, nephritis, digestive disturbance, in 2 per cent. He has not seen the peripapillary edema of Jess. Dazzling as the cause was noted in 2 per cent. Overwork as the cause is negligible. Most of the patients knew of their defect before the war. A hemeralopia acquired during the war cannot be denied but is very rare. Tobacco and alcohol produce a central scotoma but leave the dark adaptation of the periphery intact and cause, therefore, no nightblindness. Retinal and choroidal affections will sooner lead to disturbed adaptation than optic nerve affections. In all cases of retrobulbar neuritis dark adaptation was less disturbed than the color field. In three cases of color blindness adaptation in long-wave light was not nearly so diminished as in light from radioactive substances. For nightblindness acquired during the war 5 per cent of the earning capacity should be allowed as compensation.

Utilizing Nagel's adaptometer and Foerster's photometer, **Huebner** studied the course of adaptation of normal soldiers and of those complaining of poor vision at night. The diagnosis of hemeralopia can only be made, he says, when disturbance of adaptation has been proven positively. Persons with an inferior nervous system may develop disturbance of adaptation thru stress of war. Hemaralopia as a symptom of other eye affections exists. He has observed no hemeralopia attributable to defective nutrition. Patients who, in spite of normal adaptation, complain of poor vision at night are not true hemeralopes; their complaints are explained by low vision even in the day time and by lack of experience.

Referring to the facts established by Koeppe and himself with the Nernst slit lamp, that the lens is less transparent in cases of congenital hemeralopia, **Schieck** suggests that in the soldier's papers should be entered within which limits he might be employed on account of night blindness.

Polock observed an inversion of the phenomenon of Purkinje in five cases of congenital hemeralopia. He used a flat screen, half of which was red, and the other portion blue, and had it so arranged in a dark room that varying intensities of daylight could be thrown on both colors equally. He found in all of his cases that as the light intensity was diminished the blue was the first to disappear, and when tested from obscurity the red was the first to appear, and increased in intensity as the light was increased.

In certain cases of hemeralopia both colors appear and disappear at the same time and an inversion of this phenomenon is not present.

For the determination of the function of the eye in the dark **Boehmig** experimented with the apparatus of Cramer. This consists of a Landolt ring (D-25) coated with radioactive substances and mounted on a black board, and is to be viewed in varying

distances and after varying dark adaptation. Persons able to recognize the break in the ring in three meters, after forty-five minutes dark adaptation, are militarily fit for all purposes; those seeing the break at one meter and below are to be considered nightblind, and they are unfit for front duty. Between these two groups are the men whose front duty is to be qualified.

Hemeralopia as one of the manifestations of a cerebral symptom complex following traumatism or infections has been found by **Goldman** in a number of cases and he places the seat of the disturbance in the optic thalmus. The fundus was always negative. In some cases hemeralopia and the other cerebral symptoms disappeared after some weeks. These cases are not due to neurasthenia nor are they simulated.

After a critical review of the literature on hemeralopia, **Birch-Hirschfeld** gives the results of his painstaking investigation of a number of soldiers with hemeralopia utilizing his 5-point adaptometer. This consists essentially of a dark metal plate having five holes of 4 mm. each, arranged in four corners and the center of a square of 3 cm. These holes are illuminated by light falling on frosted glass plates from an electric globe whose resistance can be varied. During examination at 30 cm. the image of the five points on the retina is a square of 15 mm.; this way central and perimacular adaptation can be compared with one another at once. By the means of an exposed photographic plate (black of different shades) different parts of the 5-point square can be blotted out. 77.8 per cent of his cases had hemeralopia before entering the army; in 22.2 per cent it is said to have originated during the war, in consequence of hemorrhage, intestinal disturbance, dazzling, etc; 52.1 per cent had normal fundus; 10.3 per cent a paucity of pigment; 39.3 per cent had the fundus changes similar to those described by Augstein; 43.6 per cent were myopes; 16.2 per cent had normal vision. Improvement could be noticed in 2.2 per cent. The field was concentrically contracted for blue, in reduced illumination. Reduced illumination affected their visual acuity more than that of normal individuals. He distinguishes three types: 23.9 per cent with raised liminal value and no disturbance of adaptation; normal threshold, but adaptation markedly disturbed, 13.7 per cent; adaptation disturbed and threshold raised, 62.4 per cent. The cause for nightblindness is a functional disturbance or inferiority of the apparatus for adaptation; it is frequently inherited and congenital; faulty nutrition, general diseases and local affections of the eye are predisposing causes. In mild cases with good vision service at the front is not prohibited; in severe cases only garrison duty is permitted. Prospect of improvement is better in fresh cases. Improvement of general condition and protection of the eyes against light are advisable.

Concerning the use of his adaptometer, Birch-Hirschfeld takes issue with Haass. Only the results of repeated examination are to be utilized in the examination of the nightblind and the data are to be compared with the data of the normal examiner obtained under the same conditions.

His extensive experience in nightblindness Birch-Hirschfeld summarizes in a paper from which only the most important conclusions are here reproduced. The threshold stimulus and the end value of adaptation are to be compared with the values of the normal eyes of the examiner. An apparatus whose luminosity can be varied is to be used. Fundus and field examination are important. 77.4 per cent knew of their affection before the war; in 10.1 per cent a factor occurring during the war, such as hemorrhage, intestinal disturbance, malaria, etc., caused the affection. Of errors of refraction myopia was most frequent. Fundus was normal in 59.7 per cent; 20.6 per cent had marked deficiency of pigment; in 8.4 per cent the pigment changes of Augstein were seen. The field was narrowed for blue and white in reduced illumination; the field for yellow was rarely affected. Raised threshold value was present in 36.3 per cent; simple diminished adaptation in 2.3 per cent and 61.4 per cent were combined forms.

Meyer examined three hundred cases of hemeralopia, and concluded that the illumination rate for blue especially was established, and that there is no specified color limit for it, but the color gradually becomes gray as the limit of the field of vision is approached.

He further demonstrates an undersensibility for red in nearly all cases. He believes that there is no such disease as the socalled "war hemeralopia," and only in fourteen cases the hemeralopia could not be explained by anatomic findings or history. In all other cases the condition was accounted for by the army rations, combined with the strain of night duty in the field or a general neurasthenic predisposition.

High grade hemeralopia interferes considerably with efficiency both at home or in service, and while the middle or low grades would not disqualify from garrison duty, a high grade hemeralopia ought to disqualify from service.

In papers by **Junius** and **Lundsgaard** the present status of nightblindness is fully discussed. **Abney** also reports cases of congenital nightblindness.

For the determination of minimum light sense and retinal dark adaptation **Downey** suggests *a new photometer* for practical clinic use containing discs of the radioactive "marvelite," sulphid of zinc, impregnated with radium. As a standard was chosen a disc which would just give the sensation of light to one entering the dark room from a well lighted room. This disc is the minimum light stimulus for the light adapted eye. By covering similar discs with a varying number of sheets of opaque white celluloid, discs of various light intensities were produced. With this apparatus experiments were undertaken which largely confirm the findings of other investigators. Further work is promised.

Detachment. Referring to his writings since 1896 on treatment of detachment of the retina, **Jocqs** reports a cure of detachment in the upper temporal quadrant of the left eye of eight days standing. Incision with a cataract knife was made, atropin bandage and rest in bed were ordered. The detachment at first abolished soon returned. Subconjunctival injections, bandage during the night atropin and dionin were now prescribed. Twenty-one days later the detachment had entirely disappeared when the field limits were normal. Gradual improvement of vision followed and the case was still cured five years later. Most recent detachments of the retina can be cured, he says, by emptying of the subretinal fluid, subconjunctival injections of sufficiently saturated saline solution, carefully watched compression bandage, atropin, dionin and rest in bed, which latter must not be so strict as to discourage the patient from submitting to treatment.

Reporting a cure of detachment with tear in the right eye of a few days standing in a man aged 37, a myope, **Darier** gives his views as to prognosis and treatment. Traumatic detachment gives a fairly good prognosis when treatment is begun early. For this as well as for myopic detachment he recommends rest in bed, compression bandage and subconjunctival injections of saline solution, 2 per cent to 4 per cent and even 10 per cent to 20 per cent. The saline injection can be made painless if one or two decigrams of 20 per cent saline solution is added to one gram of acoin serum (acoin 0.015, fish gelatin 0.03, isotonic serum 1 cc.). Gradually the quantity of 20 per cent saline solution added to the acoin is increased until a 10 per cent saline injection is given. Dionin may be added to further diminish the pain. The stronger the reaction the longer the intervals will have to be. If this treatment has been of no benefit the subretinal fluid may be emptied in addition. Leeches, philocarpin, salicylates, etc., may be useful. If the Wassermann be positive subconjunctival injections of mercury with addition of cocain should be made; with a positive tuberculin the treatment will have to be accordingly.

Carbon dioxid snow when applied to the sclera of rabbits directly or through the conjunctiva will produce an inflammation in choroid and retina

leading to adhesion between the two but will leave the media clear, **Schoeler** reports. This fact he has utilized in the treatment of detachment of the retina in one case of long standing.

After mention of the cases of detachment of the retina previously reported **Curtin** says that he and Thomson have operated after their method about seventy cases, most with old detachment and with negative results. No eye had to be enucleated; the operation is safe. Vitreous hemorrhage occured once, probably from opening of a chroidal vessel. Six patients were cured, showing complete reattachment and restoration of vision and field for one year.

Falling from a wheel **Rochat's** patient with low myopia struck the back of the head and detachment of the retina developed a few weeks later. Rochat concludes that detachment of the retina may follow many months after indirect trauma. In the discussion Halbertsma mentions a similar case.

The detachment of the retina in **Young's** patient is said to have developed three weeks after a jet of compressed air had been directed against the eye from a distance of five inches.

Detachment of the retina below in both eyes of the patient of **Fernandez** a man aged 44 followed fall from a horse two months before. Fields of both eyes were contracted, more of the right one, mostly in the upper nasal sector of the right eye and upper temporal sector of the left eye. Treatment was rest in bed, mercury, nux vomica, dionin, pilocarpin and hot applications. About five months later decided improvement in vision was present.

The detachment in **Haggeny's** case of high myopia had been in existence for some years and was followed by increased tension. At first an enormous increase in the depth of the anterior chamber with diminished tension was found, later the chamber became shallow and the tension greatly increased; finally deepening of the chamber again followed with increased tension. The histologic findings are given and an explanation of the varying depth of the anterior chamber is offered, based on the theories of Leber, v. Hippel, Nordensen.

Entoptic Vision.—Since the introduction of the ophthalmoscope subjective observation, as practiced by Brewster, MacKenzie, Listing, Donders and others, has been abandoned **Barrett** declares. In 1905 he made drawings of certain obscurities in his own eyes using a minute illuminated pin hole. Shortly after that incipient cataract was discovered in his eye and the drawing made of it corresponded to those made by him, only his contained more details. With his entoptoscope he has observed curious fluctuations in the obscurities. Two pin holes each 0.1 mm., 2 mm. apart, give a double over-lapping image of the pupil enabling calculation of the distance of the opacity from the retina. The shadow of any opacity projected outside of the eye is inverted vertically and laterally; this is magnified in the ratio of the distance of the eye from the screen on which the image is projected to the distance of the nodal point from the retina, 15 mm. He has seen moving corpuscles corresponding in size to white corpuscles when looking at a bright cloud through a blue glass.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

TOXIC AMBLYOPIAS.

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PHOENIX, ARIZONA.

This section reviews the Literature from April 1918 to April 1919. For the earlier literature see July 1918, p. 121.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

TOBACCO AMBLYOPIA.—**Roberts** remarks that many obscure cases, of sudden or gradual impairment of vision, in which no pathologic lesion can be demonstrated, will eventually be explained by some of the many insidious cumulative poisons, either ingested in the form of medicines or food, or generated within the body from faulty metabolism. The symptoms are so nearly uniform that one is compelled to rely upon the history to determine the specific cause. Three case histories follow, one, tobacco amblyopia in a man aged 43 years. Complete recovery in three months. The second, a boy aged 12 years, due to one cup of coffee at each meal. The third, a female aged 19 years, with hysteric amaurosis cured by suggestive therapy. **Fehr** writes on the subject of Tobacco Amblyopia in Germany.

METHYL ALCOHOL AMBLYOPIA.—**Yakovlewa** had the opportunity of examining eighty patients poisoned with cologne water, denatured alcohol, furniture polish, varnish or similar substitutes the patients had been using in the place of ordinary liquor. The general symptoms of denatured poisoning are depression instead of excitation of the nervous system, pain in the

stomach and chest, and vomiting. In addition there was amblyopia which usually set in rapidly in a few days or weeks, with great impairment of visual acuity, frequent appearance of absolute central scotoma and concentric narrowing of the field of vision. Poisoning from wood alcohol and eau de Cologne gave the same symptoms as described in the literature from methyl alcohol poisoning. There frequently occurs a secondary aggravation of the impairment of vision, following a temporary improvement.

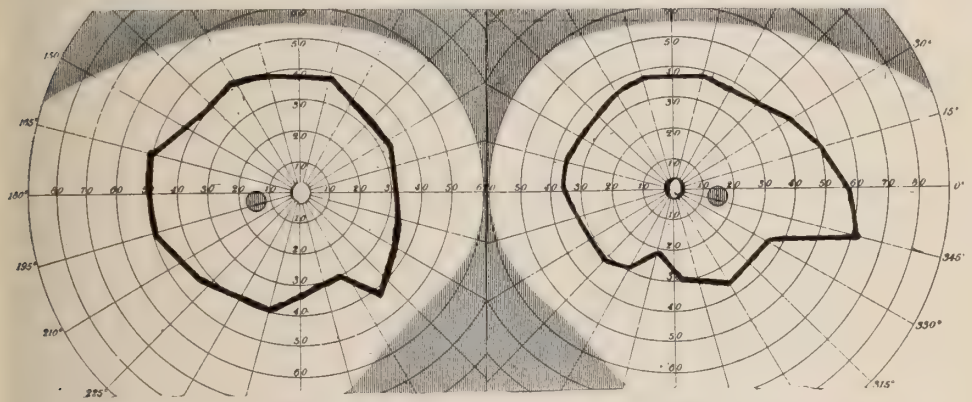
A very excellent case report of a Greek, aged 29 years, with blindness due to the use of "colorite," a commercial product containing 4 per cent alcohol, is published by **Robinson.** Sight of the left eye had been failing for six weeks, at the time of observation, vision was reduced to fingers at one foot. Vision of the right eye was 20/30, twelve days later it was 20/70, from which it sank to finger movements in fifteen weeks. There were no media or fundi changes, the discs were pink. The vessels remained of normal caliber. The form fields were reduced, colors much contracted but no scotoma could be located. Laboratory tests were negative as were also the teeth, tonsils, sinuses and gastro-intestinal functions. During the preceding three months the patient had been employed coloring hats. He worked at this occupation three hours daily in a fairly well ventilated room. The patient became totally blind. A discussion on the observation, by various authors, follows as to the dangers attending the use of commercial denatured alcohol. **Hamburger's** paper refers to the subject of methyl alcohol.

Quinin Amblyopia. — A very comprehensive analytic review of the literature, combined with the personal experience and conclusions, by **Elliot,** constitutes a clear statement of our present knowledge of impairment of vision by *quinin poisoning.* It is of especial value at this time and to those interested in the subject it will repay them to consult the original paper. The writer recently read very carefully the whole literature and was profoundly impressed by the great possibilities for harm that may be concealed in the present movement towards unrestricted use of the drug. No less than one hundred and twenty-five references are analyzed and the information thus obtained correlated under various subheads. One purpose of the paper is to point out how easy it is to diagnose quinin poisoning, thus avoiding the danger of mistaking the signs of deep cinchonism for those of malaria. Regarding the dose of quinin which may give rise to eye symptoms there are certain factors which must be taken into account in every case. These are: (1) The salt of quinin used. (2) The vehicle used. (3) The method of its administration. (4) The total amount of drug retained in the system. (5) The individual idiosyncrasy. (6) The age, sex and weight of the patient. The author discusses the doses of quinin which have proved toxic. The possible dangers in the administration of the drug in association with alcohol and tobacco and caffein. In one case the writer knows that the administration of strong coffee resulted in the amelioration of the signs of amblyopia. The method of onset and course are discussed under the subheading of diminution of central vision, alterations in the visual fields, and perception of colors, dilation of the pupil, ophthalmoscopic changes and unusual symptoms, such as, unilaterality of the affection, alteration in sensation, affections of the muscles. The question of general and aural symptoms are also analyzed. In the concluding installment of Elliot's analysis, the pathology and treatment are reviewed. Under the former, the mechanism of quinin blindness as deduced from chemical and microscopic findings, is correlated. As to the precise nature of the structure selected we are not in a position to pass a final judgment. It is obvious that when a retina is suffering from the effects of a powerful intoxication, the cutting off of its blood supply may become a very important, and even dominating, factor. The ischemia is not the primary cause as there are equally convincing proofs of the ganglion cells and nerve

fiber degeneration becoming early involved under treatment, the author cautions against the injudicious use of the drug. The value of nitroglycerin and nitrit of amyl are referred to. He suggests for consideration; if the intraocular pressure could be permanently reduced by operative measures, from normal to subnormal, it seems reasonable to suppose that the flow of blood through the eye would be increased, thus anticipating an improvement in retinal function. Sclerocorneal trephining may be worthy of trial.

= 6/6 partly; the disc decidedly paler and the arteries slightly but distinctly narrower. Forty-five minutes after the original dose the disc pallor was accentuated and the arteries smaller; the pupils were 4.5 mm. reacted to light and slightly to accommodation. At this time he was given a strong cup of coffee and fifteen minutes later he stated he felt better with improvement in his fields.

Quinin amblyopia from rectal administration is reported by **Nagel.** The drug was pressed, at a time when it should have been totally withheld. The case assumed a medico-legal aspect.



LEFT RIGHT

The white areas show the normal fields, as taken before quinine was administered. The shaded areas show the fields taken half an hour after the dose of 2 grains of powdered sulphate of quinin. The dotted areas show the portions added to each field 15 minutes after a cup of strong coffee had been taken and one hour after the original dose. At this time he stated that he felt his fields were improving. The examination was made with a 1 mm. moderately bright spot, with a self-lit electric perimeter, in a dull light in a dark room. Under these conditions the normal fields should have been a little over the full.

In a subsequent case report **Elliot** describes a most unusual experience with idiosyncrasy to quinin; certain doubts as to the value of caffein, in the treatment of this condition, are apparently dispelled, by the very satisfactory results obtained by the use of strong coffee. The patient complained of unpleasant symptoms following the use of quinin for influenzal colds. Before taking an experimental dose of two grains the disc edges were slightly blurred, suggesting his having had a mild optic neuritis. His vision was 6/6 pupils = 3.5 mm. Twenty minutes after swallowing the quinin he had a headache, was deaf and slow in manner. R. E. V. = 6/12 partly L. E. V. The patient was first observed seven months after an abdominal operation. The day following the operation an enema was administered, shortly after this she fell unconscious for thirty-six hours, and thereafter found herself totally blind for a month; sight then began to improve. At the time of examination R. V. = 0.8 L. V. = 0.6, fields contracted, vessels narrowed and extreme pallor of discs. After affecting a settlement the operating surgeon was prevailed upon to make the following statement;—for the prevention of "post operative gas pains," five grains of quinin hydrochlorid per enema, every four hours, was ordered, (actual intake twenty-five grains.) The pa-

tient showing signs of failing heart, the order was changed to every twelve hours. Instead, the nurse administered it every two hours; after sixty grains in all, the general condition of the patient becoming alarming, the drug was stopped which was followed by the results as above related. **Krauss** refers to his often repeated statement that the safe maximum dose of quinin is in the proportion of ¼ grain per pound of body weight per day. If absorbed this is ample for sterilizing the blood. Larger doses are never indicated. Euquinin can be given in slightly larger doses. Intravenous injections meet the indications of urgency, but by this route the dose must be much smaller.

Ethylhydrocuprein Amblyopia—**Ujiie's** patient with amaurosis, due to the use of ethylhydrocuprein, was a girl aged ten years. In the third week of a pneumococcus peritonitis, the child was given six doses of 0.2 gm. ethylhydrocuprein at four-hour intervals. Two days later there was total amaurosis which persisted till death. The microscope showed edema and vacuoles in the retina with swelling, and beginning destruction of the nerve fibers in the optic nerve. Necropsy of some pneumonia patients, who had taken ethylhydrocuprein without disturbance in vision, showed the optic nerve entirely normal. Transient amaurosis appearing after the use of ethylhydrocuprein is reported by **Ginsberg, Hensen** and also **Oepen;** each discuss ocular complications resulting from the use of this drug.

Opiate and Antipyretic Amblyopia.—**Macht, Isaacs** and **Greenburg,** report on the influence of some opiates and antipyretics on the field of vision. The antipyretics studied were: Acetanilid in doses of 5 to 8 grains, acetphenetidin in doses of 5 grains, antipyrin in doses of 4 to 8 grains, quinin in doses of 5 grains, pyramidan in doses of 5 and 6 grains, aspirin in doses of 5 and 10 grains, salol in doses of 5 and 8 grains, and certain combinations such as acetanilid plus salol, 5 grains each; aspirin plus salol, 5 grains each; aspirin and antipyrin, 5 grains each; acetphenetidin plus salol, 5 grains each; and acetanilid and acetphenetidin, 5 grains each. The effect of these antipyretics was then compared with the action of morphin and a combination of total opium alkaloids (pantopon) administered hypodermically in ordinary therapeutic doses to the same subjects on different days. The experiments were made on the authors themselves and a few of their colleagues with an ordinary perimeter, testing the field of vision for four colors, namely, white, blue, red, and green. The conclusions drawn from some of the observations are that the opiates, while producing but little effect on the field of vision in the normal subject, when they do exert any influence, tend to narrow the field; the antipyretics, on the other hand, when any effect is to be noted, tend to increase the field of vision.

Arsenic Amblyopia.—In a communication by **de Haas,** on the dangers from arsenic in daily suroundings, the author records thirty-five cases. Of this number, in thirty-two, a clinical diagnosis of neuroretinitis arsenicalis was made; less than 60 mgm. of arsenic was found per litre of urine. The condition was focal and with few exceptions the patients were otherwise healthy. The source of the intoxication was wall paper, zinc kitchen utensils, green painted surfaces and possibly arsenic dressing in teeth. In one patient there were many recurrences of the eye symptoms when she even came in contact with any of the above named articles. The fundus was normal except for a somewhat edematous spot below the disc. In a few days this progressed along the course of the nerve fibers, reaching the macular region. During the following three weeks the retina regained its normal aspect. Many of the cases lasted, six months or longer, after the ingestion of arsenic had stopped, before recovery.

Santonin Amblyopia.—**Jacobowsky** comments upon the effects of santonin upon vision.

Lead Amblyopia.—Lead poisoning appears to be more common among children in Queensland than in any other part of the world. It leads not only to the characteristic wrist and

foot drop and colic, but **Gibson,** in 1897, observed in about one quarter of the cases, optic neuritis. Of two hundred and sixty-two children suffering from saturnism, sixty-seven had ocular symptoms. Seven years later the author suggested that the poison was derived from lead carbonat used in paint on veranda railings. It was a rare experience to find, in children with wrist or foot drop, any ocular manifestations.

Binitrotoluen Amblyopia. — In a communication by **Hamilton** and **Nixon** containing a report of several munition workers suffering as the result of binitrotoluen, one is given in detail. It is perhaps so far the first case encountered with bilateral atrophy of the optic nerve and peripheral multiple neuritis. A man aged 39 years, after working with this substance for a year, noticed a numbness and pricking in the feet. At the end of five months he worked outside for a month; the numbness grew less. He then returned to his former work and after five months the symptoms began to return, accompanied by failure of vision. Sight was finally reduced to 6/200 in each eye. The fields were normal to rough tests except that there was some unusual dulling at the central point. The fundi showed a rather well developed atrophy with pale discs and some swelling of the veins and contraction of the arteries. Under treatment with laxatives, iodides and sweating the patient improved. Ten months later he still complained of tingling and numbness. His vision was then, right 20/40, left 20/60.

Emetin Amblyopia.—**Robinson** reports two cases of the toxic action of emetin on the eye. The first case was a young woman who evidently received a 2 per cent emetin solution by mistake for a 2 per cent homatropin solution. In order to reassure the patient, Robinson placed one drop in his own eye. Both were affected practically the same. Ten or twelve hours later the eyes "began to look pink." Within twenty-four hours the irritation, which was somewhat intermittent in character, had reached its height. There was a constant "scratchy" feeling which became very intense at about five minute intervals and accompanied by a spurting of tears from between spasmodically closed lids. These attacks were accompanied by sharp radiating pains through the infra- and supraorbital region. The upper lid became edematous but no chemosis. The bulb was of a violet color. The active sensory disturbance persisted for thirty-six hours after which time remained a marked redness of the eyeball for over ten days. There persisted through a fortnight a spasmodic myopic astigmatism which, at first, required —3.50 sph. ⌒ —3.50 cyl. axis 180 degrees above normal correction to bring the vision up to 20/30. For two weeks after this myopia had disappeared the eye was able to read without its normal presbyopic correction of +1 sph. A few drops of the dubious solution was placed in rabbits' eyes with similar results as above noted. The writer refers to the irritating effects of alkaloids obtained from several other drugs.

THE OPTIC NERVE.

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This review covers the literature of optic nerve from April, 1918, to June, 1919. For previous literature see American Journal of Ophthalmology, 1918, July, p. 124, and Aug., p. 129.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

NUTRITION OF OPTIC NERVE.—**Behr** describes histologic experiments on the structures of the optic nerve, with special reference to their bearing on its nutrition.

The ectodermal nervous connective

tissue and that derived from the mesoderm are completely separated in the optic nerve. The blood vessels of the optic nerve must be considered as foreign bodies, as already stated by Weigert. Behr's researches consisted in the injection of Berlin blue into the human nerves obtained immediately after death, the injection of India ink into the nerves of living dogs, and in the use of various special staining methods. The results of all three methods correspond. The entire connective tissue structure of the optic pial sheath, as well as the septa, rests on a system of easily injected spaces which separates it from the nerve structure proper. The waste products in the optic nerve pass centripetally to the skull. The particles wander inside the nerve bundles and do not pass into the septa or through the pial sheath.

"The nutritive material in solution passes through the blood vessels running in the septa thru the glial limiting membrane into the avascular nerve fibre bundle, where owing to the construction of special glial fibres it is brought to the individual nerve fibres. The fluid then runs with the waste products inside the individual nerve bundles centralwards to the skull cavity, without making any connection with the perivascular lymph spaces or the intersheath space. It leaves the optic nerve first within the skull and then flows into the great collecting reservoir of the cerebro-spinal fluid. In the parenchyma of the nerve also there is a complete fluid current connected with the glial fibre flowing from the periphery centralwards. During life naturally the conditions are more complicated, since the glial limiting membrane and the glial fibres probably exercise an important influence on the selection and partition of the nutritive material in addition to the purely mechanical flow."

Behr then points out that the tabetic atrophy is a genuine syphilis of the optic nerve. In ordinary syphilitic atrophy there is a specific affection of the pial and arachnoid sheaths and of the septal tissue. In other cases the blood vessels are affected in sympathy. In other words, it is primarily an affection of the mesodermal tissue: This is not the case with tabes; here nervous and glial tissues are primarily affected.

In the ordinary syphilitic neuritis, it is possible to get the curative agent in sufficient concentration in contact with the virus. In tabetic atrophy the presence of the glia prevents this. He found there were always minute lesions in the pial sheath in tabetic disease.

Anomalies.—**Köhne** reports a case of circumscribed pit formation in the region of a coloboma at the entrance of the optic nerve.

The patient, a woman 23 years old, complained of a flooding of the field with dark spots and of sudden vanishing of objects in certain movements of the head or eyes.

The right eye showed vision of 6/12, with cylinder + 0.5 D. Axis 90° = 6/6. The field of vision, the blind spot, and other structures were normal.

In the left eye, outside of the anomaly mentioned, there was no indication of pathologic changes. The visual acuity with central fixation was 6/18. She could see no objects to the left of the fixation point, while those to right of fixation point were plainly seen. The left papilla seemed to be temporaly extended, and the margin sharply outlined against the retina, except a small part, where the pit formation lay close to the temporal margin. Here the papilla gradually lost itself in the retina as a reddish brown streak. The plain pigment ring left off in the region of the pit and did not resume its course above. On the nasal side of the papillary margin a scleral ring is visible. The middle of the temporal part of the papilla is white with a suggestion of green, and is bordered above and below by papilla of normal yellow-red color. Above, a vein sharply divides the normal region from the white region; below, this occurs only for a short distance and the colors fade indistinctly into each other. The whole white area is excavated about 2 D. On the characteristic spot can be plainly seen the stretched out hiatus of the lamina cribrosa. Close to the temporal

margin one sees a pit about 1/7 D. D. broad, sharply outlined, and of a delicate olive-green shade, which with the ophthalmoscope flashes from silver-grey to bottle-green, and sometimes seems almost brown. The depth is incapable of being measured. One of the largest veins dips at the nasal side of the papilla, to reappear on the temporal side, and then to travel toward the region of the macula. In the pit the course of the vein cannot be traced; apparently it passes deeply under it.

There seems to be no doubt in this case, after recording the ophthalmoscopic and functional findings, beside the pit formation, there is a coloboma of the nerve head, which includes the greater part of the temporal half of the papilla.

Harwood saw a case in which there was a hole in the temporal side of the right disc just below the center. Two minute blood vessels dipped over the edge, and one could be seen crossing the bottom of the hole. It was best seen with a — 8 D. lens. The vision for the eye was 20/200.

McKee reports a case in which a curtain-like arrangement was seen occupying the position of the disc. It was irregularly rectangular and attached to the retina by three bands, the superior temporal bands missing; pearly white vessels upon it.

It hangs in front of the retina like a curtain with pigmentary changes around its margins. It was thought to be either a coloboma of the sheath of the optic nerve, a congenital defect, a result of birth injury or inflammation in fetal life with subsequent scar tissue formation.

Fejer reports two striking cases of opaque nerve fibers in which the papillae were pigmented, and pigment extended out into the opaque nerve fibers.

Goldsmith reports a case of cystic swelling of the disc. The disc was large and colobomatous. Below it there was a coloboma of the choroid. The cyst was spheroidal and semitranslucent while over it ran two vessels.

Ten Doesschate contributes to our knowledge of the formation of connective tissue on the optic disc in man, recording three cases.

Mayeda had previously mentioned all the cases so far known in literature; and among many authors that advance different explanations Szily and Mayeda believe that this tissue represents fetal remnants.

Zentmayer showed a case of pigmentation of both discs in a negro woman of twenty-seven years. The papilla was oval and presented an unusually large excavation involving four-fifths of its surface and was undermined. The patient presented herself on account of asthenopic symptoms. Within the limits of the excavation on the temporal side was a dark gray crescent. The pigment seemed to be on the outer wall of the excavation. Contiguous with this, outside the excavation, which extended to the scleral ring there was a conus of pigment of much the same tint. Both eyes were the same.

Optic Neuritis — Papilledema. — Ischemia may be the cause of neuritis, and **Duhot** believes that it is due to a reaction of degeneration of the nerve fibers, which may later become sclerosed.

Tilney's new theory of the cause of choked disc is based upon the supposed presence of the supraoptic canal. This canal extends from the cephalic end of the third ventricle along the chiasm of the optic nerves. In the cat this canal extends laterally from the cephalic extremity of the third ventrical and is a distinct continuation of the latter. It is lined with ependyma and is about one centimeter in length. It is situated on the dorsum of the chiasm and in this position extends along the optic nerve. He traces the beginning of the canal in the cat embryo at the early stage of eight somites.

In the adult organism the floor of the canal is formed by the optic chiasm and the bundles of the optic nerve, which fibres also form the lateral walls. The roof is a layer of ependyma and the pia mater. Its lining is formed of an ependymal extension of the lining of the third ventricle.

The canal in the human presents essentially the relations as in the cat. It is more extensive in the infant child than in the adult. It is marked on the surface by a slight elevation extending from midsaggital plane laterally along the chiasm and then along the nerve to the termination of the canal; this is the supraoptic crest. A canal occupying such a position in relation to the optic chiasm and optic nerve can under certain circumstances, undergo such changes, particularly as the result of increase in the amount and pressure of the cerebrospinal fluid contained in this canal, as to compromise the optic fibres passing beneath it. Not only by direct pressure upon these fibres, but also because of interference with drainage canals in this region, which might be rendered less competent or entirely incompetent.

It seems altogether probable therefore in the light of mechanical possibilities that a distention of the supraoptic canal as a result of increased intracranial tension upon the cerebrospinal fluid, may produce changes which manifest themselves clinically in the alterations of the optic disc, either as primarily indicated by papilledema, or as secondary effects, namely, optic atrophy.

The pathologic condition capable of producing such generalized increase of tension is internal hydrocephalus.

Some of the many causes of this condition are excessive secretion of fluid; decrease in the absorption of fluid; blocking of the natural passages of escape for fluid from one part of the ventricular system to another, tumors being the most common cause of the latter.

The occurrence of choked disc is estimated at eighty to ninety per cent of all cases of brain tumor. Opinion is turning to the belief that it is the complicating internal hydrocephalus occasioned by the tumor that is the cause of the changes in the optic disc.

Tilney concludes that choked disc may be the result of the following mechanical disturbances in the anatomic relations:

(1) Intracranial pressure upon the fluid in the subarachnoid space causing distention of the intervaginal spaces surrounding the optic nerves, which is the Manz-Schmidt-Rimpler mechanical theory.

(2) Internal hydrocephalus may cause a distention of the supraoptic canal and in this way put pressure upon the optic nerve and chiasm obstructing the drainage channels of these structures.

Both of these mechanical disturbances may be active.

The toxic theory of Leber has many facts to warrant its acceptance. It may act indirectly as a cause by producing increased activity of the ependymal lining and thus promote an internal hydrocephalus.

Kornder writes on hydrocephalus and choked disc in dogs. Two theories as to its general causation are mentioned (1) von Graefe's mechanical theory and (2) local inflammatory reactions. In the author's experiments the aqueduct of Sylvius was blocked with soft paraffin. The trephine opening was 2 millimeters, or less, and the only opening in the dura was that made by a thin needle. The salient features of one of many typical experiments are as follows:

The paraffin injection was done Oct. 10, at 1.30 p. m.

Oct. 12, retinal veins tortuous and prominent. Dog normal.

Oct. 13, dog apathetic, disc swollen one diopter in right eye, two diopters in left.

Oct. 15, dog extremely stuporous. Marked exophthalmos, disc five diopters in right eye, four diopters in left. Many retinal hemorrhages. The animal chloroformed. A number of experiments were made. The increased intracranial pressure always resulted in slowing of the heart, a drop in the arterial pressure, and an increase of the venous pressure; subsequent to this choked disc occurred.

Dogs were atropinized to remove the inhibitory action of the vagus on the heart. Then the intracranial pressure could be raised to a level of the arterial pressure without a resultant

rise in the venous pressure. An increase in the heart rate and rise in arterial tension resulted instead. There occurred no change in the eye grounds of these atropinized dogs; no exophthalmos developed nor congestion of the anterior ciliary veins.

The existence of a high venous pressure is an important factor in the formation of optic disc edema.

Choked disc is dependant on two factors: (1) increased intracranial pressure, and (2) increased venous pressure.

The second factor due to the first.

Optic disc edema develops in man where an increased cerebrospinal fluid pressure and a slow heart rate exist. As a result of the engorgement of the retinal veins due to the high venous pressure an excessive transudate of lymph into the tissues of the retina and disc occurs.

Necropsy. Dura tense, brain sulci flattened. Optic nerve sheath appears to have a larger diameter, is saculated and on incision fluid escapes from it. Third and lateral ventricles slightly distended; no hydrocephalus. Histological examination of the disc shows distinct swelling, definite separation by edema of the nerve fibres as they pass through the disc and over the retina. No inflammatory signs.

In every animal that developed acute hydrocephalus the first sign of an increased cerebral pressure was a greater prominence of the retinal vessels, particularly the veins. It was some hours before swelling of the disc occurred. The findings in all the necropsies were constant and uniform. It is apparent a condition of acute hydrocephalus can be induced in an adult dog by blocking the aqueduct of Sylvius and when such condition is established choked disc will result. This is a gradual process and required at least seventy-two hours. After three to five days the edema extended to the entire nerve fibre layer. The fibres are separated and the spaces so formed are filled with fluid. There were no round cells; it was only a simple edema. No evidences of inflammation existed.

Whenever a choked disc occurred there was always moderate distention of the ventricles. The hypothesis that choked disc is possibly the result of distention and transmission of fluid through a possible supraoptic canal finds no corroboration here.

The physiology of the circulation is a very important factor in the production of optic disc edema. This is indicated by the following conditions occurring in connection with hydrocephalus:

The early and uniform appearance of a retinal venous engorgement.

The extension of this congestion to the peripheral system.

The development of exophthalmos which may be extreme; this is accompanied by edema of the tissues within the orbit.

Since no proper lymph vessels exist the tissues distend until the pressure exerted in the stretching comes to equal that which obstructs the drainage. The obstruction is the pressure of the cerebrospinal fluid within the sheath lymphatic spaces transmitted from the subarachnoid space of the brain.

These experiments show that retinal venous engorgement is due to and part of the general high venous pressure.

The majority of writers give the etiologic factors of choked disc in the following order and frequency: tumors, syphilis, tuberculosis. In **Marin's** experience tuberculous meningitis was the most frequent cause. Many lumbar punctures are very beneficial, in the latter condition due to elimination of toxins and the reduction of the increased intracranial circulation. The amount of fluid withdrawn should depend upon the age of the patient, and the decrease of the swelling of the disc; the latter being the most important guide.

Schieck writes on the histologic appearance of choked disc with the fundus microscope.

With Köppe's contact glass and the Gullstrand-Nernest lamp one can by means of a silver mirror obtain an exact illumination of the fundus with great stereoscopic magnification, and one can

illuminate and observe different fields just as with the microscope.

If one examines by this method a choked disc, it is clear that in opposition to Biers' observations the limitans interna above the blood vessel infundibulum is pushed forward by a collection of fluid. In some cases it is higher than the swelling of the papilla and has a tent-like form. One can also observe the over full perivascular lymph sheaths. This condition cannot be observed by using the large Gullstrand microscope.

Hughes reports a case of unilateral papilledema. The patient's mother died at the age of thirty nine, from uremia subsequent to removal of kidney for tumor.

The patient was supposed to have had pulmonary tuberculosis. She had headaches for several years. About nine months before the case was seen she had a very severe headache accompanied by nausea and vomiting, dizziness, and a tendency to fall to the right, noise in the head and in the right ear. The headaches were first monthly, then semi-monthly, then weekly. She says she feels "like a man after a jag," following an attack. Deafness in right ear: is losing weight. Sinuses and throat normal. Right turning produces dizziness and a tendency to fall to the right. No nystagmus. Pupils normal. Vision 20/20 each. Right eye normal, left eye choked disc two diopters. Right eye fields normal. Left eye 35 degrees above, 30 nasal, 60 temporal, 30 below. Concentric contraction of color fields. Blood pressure 130 and 100.

In the discussion, Good thought there must be increased intracranial pressure and recommended spinal puncture. There was tenderness in the right temporal region which is indicative of involvement of the underlying temporal lobe.

Vail said normal pupils in a brain case excluded internal hydrocephalus or distention of the third ventricle. He also suggested a radiograph to determine the possibility of involvement of the pituitary.

Tumor of the right auditory nerve was a possibility. The usual location for this to occur was the junction of the two sets of nerve fibres just where the auditory nerve enters the meatus. The symptoms of this condition are, Ménière's complex, profound tinnitus, total deafness, choked disc, nystagmus, etc.

Muller reports four cases where choked disc (Stauungspapilla) was cured by trephining the optic nerve and where the signs of increased intracranial pressure for the greater part disappeared.

The outer wall of the orbit was first removed and then the sheath of the optic nerve was trephined by cutting out a square piece. Nineteen cases so far operated; these were uniformly successful and the choked disc of both sides subsided and the general symptoms of the increased brain pressure, as headache and dizziness, disappeared. Finally the vision improved and the eyes could be used again.

Paton reports the ophthalmoscopic findings in five cases of papilledema in cerebral tumors. In one the most striking feature in addition to the swollen disc was concentric folding of the retina, which was strikingly shown by the associated hemorrhages which settled into the valleys of the folds and brought them into prominence.

A second case illustrated the macular form. The edema extended first, from the edge of the disc in a wedge-shaped area with the apex at the macula. Gradually the radiating white lines of the macular form appeared.

In a third case the physiologic pit, and a clear outer edge of the disc remained. The swelling was + 4 D.

The fourth case showed papilledema with large areas of swollen nerve fibers.

In his fifth case the papilledema took on an opalescent tint, the arteries became rapidly reduced in caliber. He believes the visual prognosis is extremely bad in those cases where an opalescence appears early.

The author compares the cases of true optic neuritis in which the acute swelling of the disc resembled papilledema. One in a case of disseminated myelitis in which the nerve was swollen

+ 3 D. The other had the same degree of swelling and occurred in disseminated sclerosis.

Goldenburg speaking of tower skull mentions the eye complications found with it. The malformations of the head in this conditions are mostly the cause of the eye lesions. Tower skull as a cause of eye lesions, per se, is problematic. The theory that the cause of the condition is also the cause of eye lesion is accepted by many. The maldevelopment of the skull is due to premature ossification of its different sutures. In this particular condition the coronal suture is closed very early, which corresponds with Virchow's dictum that the development or maldevelopment takes place vertically to the closed suture.

In the case reported, the process was thought to have begun in the prenatal period. It is agreed by nearly all that an osteitis is the cause of the premature ossification. The etiology of an osteitis in adult life is infection; infection may occur in intrauterine life.

The following factors were noted: The author's case: there was difficulty in labor; no instruments used; difficulty in the child nursing; eyes prominent; vision poor; globes large, and sclera thin; cornea normal; pupillary reaction to light sluggish. Vision, right eye, 0. Left eye with correction, 8/200. Was mentally bright.

Roentgenographs showed marked evidence of increased intracranial pressure, due to hydrocephalus; due to the premature ossification of the sutures.

Jobson reports a case of bilateral optic neuritis due to internal hydrocephalus. The case was first seen at three years. His vision was failing slightly at that time. X-ray showed pressure atrophy. Convolutions of the brain were plainly marked. There was dropsy of the right ventricle and absorption of the inner plate of the skull.

The majority of cases of optic neuritis are due to brain disease. There are two classes according to Graefe, the congestive condition of the disc, and descending optic neuritis. This case when first seen was in the former stage. At the present time complete atrophy exists. Decompression was advised when the case was first seen but was refused.

McNabb reports a case of an intracranial periosteal sarcoma which was located in the region of the sella turcica on the left side, extending to the middle fossa and over the small wing of the sphenoid on the right side. The symptoms of retrobulbar neuritis were present, beginning with a slight blurring of vision with rapid progress. Later slight swelling of the disc was seen. On autopsy the presence of the tumor was discovered.

Mills saw a child with multiple sarcomas, and because of the swollen eyelids he called Dr. Peter into consultation regarding the eyes. Peter found a bilateral optic neuritis in addition to proptosis and deviation of the eyes. X-ray examination showed the sella turcica to be obliterated by a neoplasm.

De Britto enumerates the various diseases, aside from cerebral tumors which cause papillary stasis.

Price reports a case of trophic changes in muscles, joints, skin and nails, associated with optic neuritis.

The patient was unable to walk or stand: wasting of extremities contractures and joint changes, thickened and curved finger nails; trophic exfoliative dermatitis of the extremities and lower half of trunk. The left upper lid drooped; double optic neuritis. No wrist drop but rather overextension of the hands. Sphincters normal, reflexes absent. No Babinski or ankle clonus. No mental changes or gastro-intestinal changes. The attack developed 18 months before with dizziness, vomiting and weakness, with fever and pain in the extremities. Laboratory findings negative, except mild secondary anemia. Multiple neuritis, pellagra, malaria, leprosy and tuberculosis ruled out. An obscure toxemia affecting the trophic centers and optic nerves was thought to be the cause.

Santos Fernandez says in old cases of optic neuritis when blanching of the papilla is due to remote causes in the brain, it might have been arrested or cured if it had been systematically treated from the first, or even at a

later stage. The success obtained with syphilitic cases encourages heroic effort in other conditions.

He quotes five cases to sustain this view, i. e., that some of the fibres might have escaped degeneration and might have been trained to resume their function.

The outcome cannot be deduced from the ophthalmologic findings. The blanching of the papilla may last for years and the vision may be impaired but little or it may be lost entirely. He calls attention to the marvelous results obtained in children completely blind from meningitis who recover under the influence of antimeningococcic serum.

Mussio-Fournier reports a case of double optic neuritis secondary to hypothyroidism occurring in a patient 24 years of age.

Three months after child-birth noticed diminished vision in the right eye in such a manner that in 12 hours after the onset, could not perceive large objects. Three months and a half after another delivery vision began to fail in the left eye. On February 2-18 V. R. Hand movements, L. with correction = 1/10. Right atrophy of disc. Left borders of disc blurred. The vision of the left eye diminished one-third, the papilla is bleached, but the peripapillary condition has disappeared. Fields for white normal, restricted for blue, more with red, and absent for green. With thyroid therapy vision increased from 1/6 to 1/3.

Changes in the Optic Nerve Following Trauma.—**Klauber** speaks of cases in which papilledema resulted from injuries of the skull. He divides the cases into three groups. The first deals with injuries of the skull without involvement of the cranial bones. There were no cases of papilledema in this group.

The second group mentioned only those in which the cranial bones were injured, but without involvement of the dura. In this group there were two cases of papilledema. The first case was wounded in the occipital region; the wound was four centimeters in length; no injury of the dural sheath occurred. Autopsy showed a meningitis particularly of the right side, and extended softening of the brain in the occipital lobe with abcess formation. Ten days after the wound the ophthalmoscope showed the papillæ red and edges hazy, swelling slight. The retinal veins were very prominent. Seventeen days later the papillæ were very greatly swollen and so remained until his death.

The second case was wounded Sept. 5th, behind the right ear. There was headache and dizziness. Operated Oct. 12th; the dura was not opened; there was epidural hematoma, and some infection occurred. The patient recovered and was discharged from the hospital. Ophthalmoscopic examination showed no abnormality until Sept. 14th. The discs were red and edges dimmed due to the edema of the nerve and retina. On Sept. 20th, there was increased papilledema. This was reduced and by Oct. 1st, the discs were normal. The swelling of the discs occurred probably as a result of the meningitis serosa and the epidural hemorrhage.

The third group, injuries of the cranial bones with involvement of the cerebral substance, present seventy-two cases. In wounds of the anterior and middle of the skull with involvement of the cerebral substance and infection, we are apt to have papilledema, but in wounds of the back of the head, papilledema occurs twice as frequently as in the other injuries. The prognosis for recovery and for life is better in this last mentioned class of injuries.

Papilledema usually shows itself in about three weeks after the injury as the complications causing this condition, such as meningitis serosa, infection, etc., do not occur until this time. It is important to make frequent ophthalmologic examinations in these cases to determine when complications of this nature occur. The functional examinations should also be made when the conditions permit.

It is thought by some that edema of the optic nerve is a part of an edema of the brain, but this is difficult to prove. Wherever there is increased in-

tracranial pressure following injuries of the brain, papilledema occurs. In cases without fracture, there was no papilledema. In those with fracture but without injury of the dura, there were 3 per cent and where there was injury of the dura, there were 31 per cent of cases of papilledema. The histologic examination showed a picture of papilledema. In a few cases a small celled infiltration of the papilla was present. There was edema of the optic nerve which decreased from behind the globe backward.

One often observes subarachnoidean edema and perineuritis together with interstitial neuritis of the more posterior parts of the optic nerve but this has little connection with the causation of the papilledema.

Klauber also mentions a case of papilledema and hemorrhage into the right eye caused by trauma. The man fell and struck the eye on a hard substance.

The lower lid was torn, the cornea sustained a superficial injury, the adjoining episclera was abraded. The anterior chamber was shallow and contained some blood. The pupillary band of the iris showed several ruptures. The fundus could not be seen on account of diffused haziness of the vitreous. Tension three millimeters Hg. Later a neuritis could be observed. The eye recovered; the rupture of the sphincter iridis remained.

According to Leber, papilledema after the injury without perforation is seldom observed.

Viner reports a case of hyalin bodies on the optic disc: This was discovered while examining the eye following a contusion of the left eyebrow due to shell. There was no foreign body and no fractures; globe intact; the field was normal, except the lower nasal quadrant where it contracted to 45 degrees. No scotoma; blind spot enlarged. Media, clear, except in the upper temporal periphery where there are several vitreous hemorrhages and a rupture of the choroid.

The disc was obscured by a lobulated mass, gelatinous and bluish white. It consists of many discrete hyalin bodies lying in front of the disc and retinal vessels. The latter are buried in the mass and are mostly healthy. Two of them show signs of perivasculitis and dilatation; no other evidence of inflammatory disturbance; no newly formed vessels. The mass is three diopters high.

Brav reports a case of primary unilateral optic atrophy following injury, in a child four years old who had a fracture of the base and of the frontal bone into the sinuses with bleeding from the nose and ears. He saw the child five months later, and noted: Right pupil 3 mm., left, 2 mm., reaction in right sluggish, media clear, disc bluish, pale and excavated, and retina normal. Rough tests, as the child was too young for ought else, showed probably greatly reduced visual acuity.

The author thinks primary optic atrophy in children rare. Unilateral primary atrophy is suggestive of injury; it probably never occurs in children as a result of constitutional causes. It may occur as a result of laceration of the nerve or from pressure from hemorrhage, which latter is usually anterior to the chiasm. The hemorrhage may be in the orbital cavity and flow into the sheath of the nerve. The prognosis is very grave.

Morrison saw a girl, 12 years of age, who noticed that during the night she had lost the vision of the right eye. The only history that was suggestive of the cause was a slight fall upon the back a few days previous to the onset of the symptoms. He found a choked disc which disappeared in a few weeks with the return of the vision.

Moreau observes that every person who is suspected of having a cranial lesion should have the eyes examined as soon as possible after the injury.

We cannot explain simple atrophy following a traumatism in which there has been no edema of the papilla or no symptoms of meningitis, and which comes on a year or more following the injury. One eye is usually involved; both may be at the same time, or at long and short intervals. In cases of lesions of the chiasm there is a nasal or temporal hemianopsia, or if the

lesion be nearer the periphery there is usually a concentric reduction of the field tho there may be a notch or a central scotoma. Red and green are the first colors to disappear. The blood vessels may remain normal for a long time, and this may possibly be diagnostic, but they always end by narrowing.

The prognosis in these cases is bad. On account of the long interval the medico-legal aspect is very important.

Margoline reports posttraumatic atrophy of the optic nerve. It is now thought that fracture at the base of the skull is at the bottom of all cases of atrophy of the optic nerve following traumatism. Basal fractures are indirect in almost the absolute majority of cases. The nerve may be involved at any point of its tract intracerebral, chiasm, or peripheral portion. It is most frequently in its peripheral portion at the level of the optic canal that injury occurs. The frequency of these cases appears to be much greater than is generally believed, when it is recalled that the functional disturbances come on only after a long lapse of time.

The gravity of the trauma is revealed by the severity of the symptoms. There may be involvement of the third or the eighth nerve. According to the type of atrophy, the cases may be divided into, (1) those resulting in simple atrophy, (2) those in which the atrophy is preceded by inflammation and papillary stasis.

(1) The probable causes are: callous formation, inflammation of contiguous structures, as meningitis, periositis, orbital cellulitis, and contusion of the optic nerve.

(2) A neuroretinitis, which is not common, may result from meningitis, hematoma of the sheath resulting from rupture of the latter and the vessels in it, or as the result of a rupture of the central retinal vessels.

Optic Neuritis from Focal Infection.—**Heuser** and **Haren** report three cases of concealed sinus disease causing optic neuritis. The Wassermann reaction, the general examination, and the X-rays, were negative. Conservative treatment with aspirin, sweats and mercurial inunctions gave no result.

Operation on the posterior sinuses showed concealed sinus disease, the removal of which was followed by rapid improvement and recovery.

Lambert saw a case of acute retrobulbar neuritis in a woman age 44 years in whom a root fragment was found in the right antrum after an X-ray of the head was made. The antrum was operated April 6, 1917, and some green pus which contained the streptococcus viridans was obtained. On May 7th the vision of the left eye began to blur and on the following day a moderate papillitis was noted; the right eye was unaffected and its vision was normal. At that time a diagnosis of partial occlusion of the central retinal artery was made; probably thrombosis of septic origin. May 10th the left eye became affected, and on May 15th, the patient was perfectly blind, and atrophy of both nerves followed. X-ray examination of nasal sinuses and teeth were negative and a competent rhinologist could find nothing in the nose that would justify operation on the nasal sinuses.

Vail reports three cases in which monocular retrobulbar optic neuritis was secondary to hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone. The author discusses the symptoms of this affection and illustrates the article with several cuts of the visal fields.

In conclusion he divides the neuritis from this cause into two types: (1) those with frank neuroretinitis associated with functional central scotomas, which is due to a suppurative process in the posterior accessory sinuses of the nose, and the neuritis is secondary to bacterial influence; (2) the noninflammatory type due to swelling of the orbital wall of the posterior ethoidal and sphenoidal cell which exerts pressure on the optic nerve in its passage thru the optic foramen, causing strangulation of the nerve at that point. This form is due to hyperplasia of the ethmoid bone and is nonsuppurative. Vision in this type is reduced and later, if the cause of the disease is not recognized, an atrophy results.

The author advises early operation of the ethmoids, even tho nasal symptoms are absent; and states that the

prognosis is good if operated early during the acute stage, but if delayed until atrophy sets in the prognosis is bad.

Malling reviewed thirty-seven publications and added the report of a case in which a woman of forty developed a disease of the nose and the left ear. Several months later the vision became impaired. In six months signs of beginning atrophy were observed. There was nothing to suggest a cause, other than the ear trouble.

The ethmoid cells were found to be pathologic and were cleared out. Improvement was prompt and pronounced, the scotoma disappeared and the blind spot returned to normal. The retrobulbar optic neuritis and secondary atrophy were characteristic of the rhinogenous type of the disease especially in the fluctuating course. The scotoma was always more pronounced in the early morning. When the pus from the nose was most free the scotoma was less pronounced.

Bell reports a case of double choked disc due to empyema of the sphenoids and ethmoids. Blood pressure was 200 and 110. Age 34 years. The right disc measured plus nine and the left plus eight. Enormous distention of the retinal veins, arteries smaller than normal, many hemorrhages on the disc and in the surrounding retina. Albumin in the urine together with hyalin and granular casts. Teeth and tonsils, negative. X-ray showed cloudy ethmoids and sphenoids, cloudy left frontal and right maxiliary. Severe headaches.

The ethmoids, sphenoids, and antrum were drained. It was thought the choked disc was due to the circulating toxins from the infected sinuses, as were also the headaches, kidney lesion, and high arterial pressure. Brain tumor was suspected. The patient entirely recovered in four months following the operation.

The difference between choked disc in brain tumor and from other causes is given as follows: In tumor there is great swelling of the disc but it is well defined; it is apt to be bilateral and is not associated with retinitis; whereas in cases due to focal infection, we have more inflammation and edema of the retina, a greater number of hemorrhages into the retina, and there is actual inflammation of the nerve head.

Bane reports a case of optic neuritis in the left eye, in a woman, age 54. Vision 5/30. Dull pain behind eye: exophthalmos of one millimeter, disc moderately swollen and edges indistinct. Five days later, vision was reduced to almost nothing. Disc became swollen to three diopters. Some hemorrhages appeared and pain was severe enough to interfere with sleep. Urine and sinuses were normal. Six teeth were found to be diseased. They were removed following which several hemorrhages occurrred. In ten days the pain and swelling of the disc had subsided and vision was still nil.

Place saw three cases of optic neuritis in which spenoidal and posterior ethmoidal suppuration was the cause. The most striking case was in a woman 33 years of age whose vision when first seen was reduced to 2/100 in the right eye, and 2/200 in the left eye. The right fundus showed a slightly pale nerve head with blurred margins and engorged veins. The left nerve head was greatly swollen and edematous, veins engorged and two small hemorrhages were seen on the disc. The Wassermann and urine were negative. The posterior ethmoids on the right side and the sphenoidal sinuses were opened, pus was found and the sinuses were drained. Five days after the operation the vision had improved to R. 20/30, L. 20/50, and the swelling had entirely subsided from the left disc. A month later the vision was practically normal with correcting lenses.

The second case was a young man whose vision had dropped to 6/200 in the right eye. Normal vision was recovered in about a month after a proper treatment of the sinuses. The third case was a milder form and could not be followed.

Libby reports a case of binocular optic neuritis in a woman of forty, apparently due to alveolar focal infection, associated with nasal blocking. Sudden loss of vision May 25, 1918. Right

eye quickly recovered but not the left. Physical examination negative. Two months treatment for indicanuria with rest were followed by restoration of normal vision. Then occurred an acute rhinitis when vision again dropped. With subsidence of the rhinitis vision again became normal. Several devitalized teeth were removed and showed streptocccus viridans. A deflected nasal septum was corrected. Vision was 5/30, and there was tolerance of close work.

Edwards reported a case of retrobulbar neuritis of obscure origin associated with tooth infection. The vision was reduced to hand movements excentrically. The fundus only showed enlarged veins. The presence of large areas of infection about the roots of the upper first left molar was found with the X-rays. The tooth and 3 others, which had poor root fillings, were extracted. Two days after extraction the condition was aggravated, hemorrhages were seen on the disc, which was swollen 2 D. Strabismus also developed. The condition gradually subsided and when reported the vision had improved to 18/200. An absolute central scotoma for colors, and a relative central scotoma for form was present. There was beginning atrophy of the temporal side of the disc.

Out of 20 cases of retrobulbar neuritis **Dor** found 19 to be due to a slow periostitis at the roots of the bicuspid teeth of the superior maxilla. He noted that in several instances the periostitis was associated with radiculo-dentigenous cyst and fistulae.

Hansell reports a case of optic neuritis resulting from diseased tonsils, in which sudden blindness occurred in the right eye during one night. In two days she was also completely blind in the left. Pupils dilated ad maximum, and no light perception. X-ray of skull, Wassermann of blood and spinal fluid all negative. Pressure and reactions of spinal fluid normal. Optic discs swollen one diopter, a few small hemorrhages near it in left eye. The only symptom was blindness. Tonsils were removed, and she was treated with strychnin, iodides, high frequency current, and massage, and in two days, light perception had returned to both eyes. Nine months after, vision in right eye was 6/10, left eye, 6/7; the discs were pale and their vascularity was reduced, concentric field constriction for colors, white normal.

Paton reports neuro-retinitis associated with chicken pox.

There was no other event in the boy's medical history. Sudden blindness developed in the third day of the disease. He continues to have a central scotoma and contracted peripheral fields. Vision less than 6/60.

A case of retrobulbar neuritis which occurred in a man 30 years of age was reported by **Brown.** The disease followed an attack of grippe. The vision had diminished to 9/200 and a central scotoma of the left eye was present. The scotoma disappeared and the vision improved to 20/70 after the removal of a hypertrophied middle turbinate from the left side of the nose, and draining of the ethmoid sinuses.

Butler reports a case of what was probably retrobulber neuritis resulting possibly from influenza, in a boy seventeen months old. Six weeks before he was seen he had a convulsion with fever. There was an epidemic of influenza in the town at the time. Soon after the convulsion the mother noticed the child ran into objects and evidently could not see well.

The pupils did not react to light, and both discs were pale tho the vessels were normal. Three months later there was complete blindness.

Eppenstein reports a case of optic neuritis and iridocyclitis as a result of measles. The differential diagnosis is important. Uhthoff has seen only nine cases of optic neuritis resulting from infectious diseases in 253 cases. They are not caused by the toxins but by secondary nephritis or meningitis. Others think they are caused by the infection.

Calhoun discussing alterations of the visual fields in pellagra says ocular changes in this disease have long been noted.

Fundus examinations were made in fifty cases. The majority of the cases

were not active pellagrins. In the active cases only a pale disc was observed. In only one case was an enlarged pupil noted; this symptom was often noted by other observers.

A contraction for form and color takes place in a majority of cases; in a relatively large proportion there is a central scotoma.

Where scotoma was observed a thoro physical examination was made together with a blood Wassermann. All other conditions which would have been likely to produce this condition were eliminated. No pathologic changes were observed in the optic nerves and chiasms of three patients and in the retina of one who had died of pellagra.

It is supposed that the toxic state of the individual produces the changes in the nerve which produce the field changes.

From a study of the visual fields two definite groupings can be made out: first, those caused by organic changes in the visual path, and second, those changes purely functional in character.

In the first group we recognize changes that resemble those commonly seen in chronic retrobulbar neuritis caused by tobacco, alcohol, or other toxic substances.

In the second group, the most striking changes in many of the cases are the interlacing of colors and the equality of the form and color fields. This interlacing is suggestive of hysteria and would suggest that the alteration was a functional disturbance. If the optic discs were always normal one could accept this. But, as often a decided pallor of the papillo-macular bundle and an optic atrophy is present it is thought the condition is one of an ascending neuritis with definite degenerative nerve changes.

When the chemistry of the toxemia of the disease is understood we shall have interpreted the cause of the chronic retrobulbar neuritis.

The conditions are: (1) Reduced vision is a symptom of pellagra. (2) Definite atrophic changes can be detected in the nerve head in a small proportion of the cases. (3) Alterations in the visual fields with central and paracentral scotomata are common.

Syphilis.—**Arning** reports a case of acute optic neuritis in a woman of 32, with recent untreated lues. He concludes that in many thousands of cases treated with injections of old salvarsan, he has never seen a case of involvement of the normal optic nerve. With salvarsan treatment the result was striking. After the second injection there was marked improvement. He claims that the prejudice of neurologists and ophthalmologists toward salvarsan in luetic optic nerve disease should be overcome. **Black** had a case of typical choked disc which had gone suddenly blind, there was no history of injury or infection, but the Wassermann reaction was 4 positive.

Faith reports a case in a painter and paper-hanger, of retrobulbar neuritis due to syphilis. Wassermann was positive, scar on penis, adenopathy. Tobacco and alcohol were very slightly used. Both discs were pale, no excavation; much soreness when eyes made extreme excursions; central scotoma for red and green; some peripheral contraction of the field in both eyes.

Harkness reports a case of sudden, almost total loss of vision in right eye. Vision was fingers at six inches and this only at nasal side and below. Vitreous was too hazy to permit of seeing fundus; pupil reaction normal; anterior chamber normal, also tension. Urine normal; Wassermann of blood and spinal fluid negative: Salines were given for three days and the fundus cleared showing a choked disc. X-ray showed no abnormalities. Luetin test positive after two weeks. On strong antiluetic treatment, improvement in the eye was marked, vision going to 20/30. Shortly it went down to original, then again improved. At this time macular degeneration was noted. This improvement and aggravation of the condition continued for several months during which the macular degeneration became worse.

Consultation with the family physician revealed the fact that she had pain at the menstrual period and swelling on one side. Ovarian extract was pre-

scribed in five grain doses and the eye improved with vision 20/25. The macular degeneration also improved; there was no pain during menstruation, and the swelling improved.

Posey writes that for some time it was thought salvarsan acted deleteriously upon the optic nerve and especially in the presence of nonsyphilitic disease of the nerve and the retina. But there is no ground for the belief that salvarsan causes atrophy of the optic nerve through direct toxic effect.

The salvarsan should be administered early before the nerve tissues have been attacked and should be combined with potassium iodid and mercury in order to obtain the best spirocheticidal effect. Posey gives mercury inunctions once or twice daily, potassium iodid, and five half doses of neosalvarsan at three day intervals. After two weeks, salvarsan is given in one-half doses every three days, five times, mercury and potassium iodid then continued. Cases of secondary syphilis should have an ophthalmoscopic examination from time to time.

Gennerich gives increasing doses of salvarsan intradurally for the optic atrophy occurring in tabes and believes that he gets very remarkable results.

Campbell and **Ballance** discuss the possibilities of preventing tabetic optic nerve atrophy by injections of salvarsanised serum into the brain.

The intracerebral injections of salvarsanized serum reach the perineuronic spaces of the brain by passing into the sulci between the convolutions and soaking thru the gray matter of the cortex along sheaths of the pial vessels. Thus it appears that serum introduced into the ventricles does reach the anchorage of the spirochete.

This method might be employed to arrest tabetic optic atrophy. The sheaths of the optic nerves and the spaces between them correspond to those of the brain. Injection beneath the arachnoid passes into the substance of the optic nerve and into the subpial space and passes into the nerve as far as the papilla, and this is the path that the serum should follow so as to save the essential elements of the papilla and retina from destruction. Whether the injection should be made into the lateral ventricle or through the outer angle of the sphenoid fissure into the subarachnoid space at the base of the brain remains to be determined.

Sidler-Huguenin reports cases of tuberculosis of the optic nerve and remarks as to treatment with tuberculin. In cases of solitary tubercle of the optic disc one should not wait too long for enucleation, because the condition is apt to progress to involvement of the nerve and its sheaths. Three cases of solitary tubercle of the optic nerve are mentioned.

He concludes that not only neuritis but many infectious processes which occur in the optic nerve and its surrounding tissues (as neuro-retinitis, choroiditis juxtapapillaris) are of tubercular nature. The majority of such cases are observed in young people.

The possibility of primary tuberculosis of the eye has been much discussed. It is thought that it is not uncommon but probably the term "primary manifestation" may be preferable.

In very few cases, tuberculosis originates in the optic nerve, investigations prove that the so-called solitary tubercle of the papilla originates mostly in the retina or choroid and later extends to the disc.

Apparently the uveal tract, the vessels in the funnel of the optic nerve are the sites of predilection for primary tubercular infections. We know by experience that the tubercle bacillus like other microorganisms may enter the body without producing a lesion at the point of entrance, but seek other and more advantageous places to locate and produce lesions. The arrangement of the blood vessels in and about the optic nerve (the circle of Zinn) and the retrobulbar intervaginal space which communicates with the lymph channels of the optic nerve are favorable sites for the infections to take hold.

One cannot always expect to find the organisms in diseased areas in these locations. The tissues here, particularly the blind end of the vaginal sheath, offer a sort of filter, and a dis-

tant focus of tubercular disease in the body may cause a lesion resulting in neuritis or an iritis. The primary infection frequently escapes notice, and a solitary tubercle in the eye is wrongly considered a primary tuberculosis. The author discusses at length his method of treating tuberculosis of the eye.

Oloff reviews the subject of tuberculosis of the optic nerve and quotes the observations and theories of the various authors that have written on the subject.

Retrobulbar Neuritis. — **Adams** in speaking of retrobulbar neuritis says several different conditions are included. It should be limited to those cases in which there is inflammation of the nerve, its sheaths, or both, in some part of its course between the eye and the brain. It may be divided for the present into three classes: (1) Retrobulbar neuritis proper, acute or subacute. (2) Hereditary neuritis or atrophy. (3) Toxic amblyopia.

The optic nerve on account of its peculiar situation is very open to attack. It is a part of the central nervous system, but lying outside, it is as open to involvement as a peripheral nerve. Lying in a bony canal, it is subject to pressure and to inflammation by contiguity, and is also subject to rheumatic affections of the nerve sheaths from exposure to cold. The author mentions the various causes and symptoms of the disease, and believes that too much emphasis cannot be put on the importance of the nasal sinuses as a causative factor.

Ishida made a statistical study of retrobulbar neuritis in the Japanese literature. We are informed by several authors, especially Komoto, that this disease is more important in, and is caused more often by, beriberi than in other lands. The author has searched the medical library of the University Eye-Clinic at Kioto and has found a plentiful proof of his contention. Of 72,200 new patients in the period 1902-1917 were 217 cases of retrobulbar neuritis (also in 3 per cent of general diseases), in which the etiology was as follows: syphilis, 4.6 per cent; multiple sclerosis, 4.2 per cent; beriberi, 6.4 per cent; pregnancy, lactation, anomalies of menstruation, 18 per cent; orbital disease, 7.4 per cent; intoxication, 1.4 per cent; general diseases, 1.8 per cent; hereditary predisposition, 0.9 per cent; without recognized etiology, 55.3 per cent. In closing he remarked upon the difficulty of making a differential diagnosis between retrobulbar neuritis and retinitis centralis.

Rönne reported a second case of retrobulbar neuritis with wandering defect of the field of vision.

The patient was 34 years old; previously healthy. Upon awakening one morning, she found that the vision of the right eye had become weaker, and that the eye was sensitive to pressure. In trying to abduct the eye, she experienced pain in the orbit. She noticed that she could not see with the temporal half of the right field. On the following day the scotoma had changed places. Six days after the onset of the disease, there was more pain in the orbit with abduction of the eye, but no more subjective symptoms, the vision with correction was R. 6/24, L. 6/9. Ophthalmoscopic examination normal, perhaps a very limited veiling of the borders of the papilla. No abnormality of the vessels.

A month after the onset there was subjective improvement. No central scotoma for colors. Normal for white and for red, the lower limits were good, but above in the upper nasal quadrant the limits were quite narrowed. The temporal quadrant had a better color perception but the limits were uncertain. On the left side there was a hemianopic boundary at the upper meridian but so uncertain that it could not be recorded. The ophthalmoscopic examination was normal, and there was no blurring of the papilla.

Seven weeks after onset, borders of perception for white were normal. There was a full true scotoma for red in the upper nasal quadrant. The temporal border of the scotoma was undoubtedly hemianopic while the lower border was uncertain. Vision R. 6/9, L. 6/18. Fourteen weeks later felt entirely well. Ophthalmoscopic picture and field of vision normal.

Twenty-two weeks after the onset the patient was cured. The case has a special interest because of the wandering scotoma.

Ablesdorff reports on acute retrobulbar neuritis in a case of myelitis with the postmortem findings in a young girl. The left eye became blind with the symptoms of retrobulbar neuritis. This was unusual in that it did not occur before the general disease manifested itself, and that it affected only one eye. The eye recovered within two weeks. During this period, there was a large central scotoma. The sight was restored to normal and remained so until her death in two and a half months. The explanation of the temporary blindness is circulatory and exudative. (Hyperemia of the retinal veins).

The pathologic findings showed this was an inflammation which extended over the whole optic nerve, including also the papillomacular bundle but irregularly. The irregular occurrence of areas of regeneration in the chiasm and the left tract, while the right tract was not affected, proves the disseminated form of the disease. Certain groups of fibers of the optic radiations were not affected. The inflammation of the optic nerve did not commence from the vessels nor from the sheaths.

The question often asked, and by some confirmed, that the primary cause may be the inflammation of the interstitial tissue cannot be answered in this case, as the degeneration of the nerve fibres cannot exclusively in this case be traced to an interstitial inflammation.

The virus which causes myelitis must affect also the nerve fibres or it can also cause a so-called parenchymatous neuritis.

Ikehara saw a case of acute retrobulbar neuritis with bitemporal, crescent-shaped scotoma with multiple sclerosis in a man 26 years of age who had three attacks of amaurosis with spinal disease. After the last attack there was discovered in both eyes a crescent-shaped bitemporal scotoma, which disappeared with time. According to the author the scotoma must have arisen from a focus of inflammation in the chiasm.

Schoenberg presents a case of retrobulbar neuritis, the result probably of intestinal stasis. He was seen first on December 5th, 1917. He had high fever and had become blind while eating lunch on this date. There were no other symptoms except the fever and headache. He had taken Stokes' Expectorant for a cough, the only medicine he had had. No injuries. Family and personal history were negative. Measles in July, 1916. Pertussis in March, 1917.

Present examination: Well nourished and developed, moderate dyspnea and cough. Expression dull. Heart shows systolic murmur at apex and transmitted to axilla, abdomen distended and tympanitic. Masses in left iliac fossa. Temperature 102. General examination otherwise normal. Pupils dilated. No reaction to light. Papilledema of two diopters, both sides, retinal veins engorged. Spinal fluid normal, blood and urine normal. The result of colon irrigation was discharge of several quarts of very ill-smelling feces. One hour later the pupils reacted to light and patient could distinguish large objects. X-ray of skull shows sinuses normal. December 6; edema of discs less, veins less engorged, vision improved. December 7; again a large mass of feces discharged after a high enema. December 8; condition of fundus and the vision improving. December 16; child acts as if he had a central scotoma; cannot point out the eyes and mouth in pictures of boys and girls, cannot pick up small colored objects, etc. January 8; temperature suddenly rose to 103. High enema again brought a large mass of feces with immediate reduction of the fever and improvement of vision.

X-ray examination of the intestinal tract showed a redundency of the sigmoid flexure and of the descending colon.

February 16, 1918; right disc temporally atrophic. Left also atrophic and blurred above. March, 1918, vision 6/50 about in each eye.

Diagnosis of autointoxication of intestinal origin is probable but cannot be affirmed. The child may have had influenza. The tincture of opium in the cough medicine may have contained methyl alcohol. The author thought that possibly the spinal puncture may have had something to do with the sudden return of vision.

Atrophy of Optic Nerve.—**Fernandez** observed optic atrophy in the eyes of five persons who were employed in the manufacture of vegetable charcoal. The onset was slow, and the first symptoms noticed was failure of vision, particularly at night. All cases were improved, and some vision was regained by using general tonic treatment. The author believes that the inhalation of the carbon gases, which are evolved during the manufacture of the wood charcoal, is responsible for the changes which took place in the optic nerves of these cases.

Kirkpatrick saw seven cases of optic atrophy. One case occurred in a boy 13 years of age; and it was the only permanent nervous lesion which followed the disease. Two other cases, one in a woman of 42 years, and the other in a man 38, were secondary to neuritis which followed headache and vomiting; a woman 20 years old developed a neuritis twenty days after confinement. The sight failed about a month after. A woman of 18 years lost the sight of both eyes immediately after the delivery of a still born child. Six months later when examined most of the retinal arteries were completely obliterated, and the remaining nerves were white. Urine contained albumin and indican. The blood pressure was 270 mm. Wassermann negative. A simple atrophy was seen in a man who gave no recent history on which to base the cause of the disease. He also saw a case of atrophy in a man of 50 who had spastic paraplegia.

Hamilton and **Nixon** report a case in a man aged thirty-nine, of optic atrophy and multiple peripheral neuritis as a result of working in an explosive factory where binitrotoluen was handled.

History and examination and laboratory findings of the case were negative. After he had been in the plant a year he began to notice numbness and prickling of the feet, which extended to the knees. He was out of the plant for a time but returned and the symptoms increased. Soon he noted blurring of vision; this became reduced to 6/200 and later to fingers at ten and fourteen inches. Visual field normal to rough tests. The disc was pale with some swelling of the veins and contraction of the arteries. Right pupil larger and reacts poorly to light. Both were only fair for distance. Patient had had rumbling sounds in the ears, vibration sense was lost in the toes, and joint sense impaired in both fingers and toes. Coordination was impaired in lower extremities, patella and abdominal reflexes diminished.

Under treatment with laxatives and potassium iodid, the swelling improved after two months and has shown steady improvement since (1917). February, 1918, V. O. D. 20/40: V. O. S. 20/60.

Binitrotoluen is the second step in the manufacture of trinitrotoluen. It is absorbed via the skin and mucous membranes and seems to affect the central nervous system. Several cases are mentioned in articles on mental affections in this same factory. These consisted in mental aberration and dullness, somnolence and transient loss of memory.

Kershner reports optic atrophy in a soldier aged 23 years, which followed *gassing.* The man was gassed twice and the second time became unconscious. Upon regaining consciousness found that the left arm and leg were weak and that he could not see. The muscles improved and his vision gradually returned. Ten weeks after the gassing the vision in the left eye, which was defective when he entered the army, did not improve more than the discerning of hand movements at 50 cm. The right improved to 20/40. The left disc was very pale and the right was slightly so; and the fields for color and form for the right eye were contracted. The author believes that

the theory of the passage of gas from the ethmoids or sphenoids to the optic nerve is purely speculative.

It is noted in an editorial in the Maine Medical Journal that the lympho-meningeal reaction in the cerebro-spinal fluid is seen in soldiers attacked by *mumps*. It would seem that the meninges are always affected in mumps, so that optic atrophy from lymphocytic inflammation of the meninges may be regarded as not uncommon.

Sturm reported a case of bilateral optic atrophy in which a question arose as to whether *electric shock* could produce the condition. The patient was rendered unconscious for a short period of time when he came in contact with a wire carrying 2,200 volts. He claimed that prior to that time his vision had been good. He denied venereal disease. His patellar reflexes were absent and station was decidedly unstable, gait ataxic and coordination of the upper extremities good. In discussion it was advised that a Wassermann test be made.

McKendree reports on post-neuritic atrophy with *epilepsy*. The patient had nervous prostration nine years before, in which she was blind and deaf and had violent headache. In a few days she became unconscious and remained so for two months. Following this, she developed epilepsy. A Wassermann was negative. Trace of albumin in urine. Very hysteric. Post neuritic atrophy. Concentric contraction of right field; loss of nasal half of left.

The question is whether the case is one of psychogenic origin or organic. The discussion leads to the belief of the latter. It was probably a basilar meningitis of luetic origin, possibly; or an ependymitis with encephalitis due to infection of the organism of Flexner and Noguchi (the globoid bodies).

Hensen believes that the problem of establishing heredity as the etiology of neuritis presents many difficulties, because it is a disease not very frequently met with. In many cases, without doubt, the cause is found to a certain extent in infection and intoxication. For purposes of prognosis and therapeutics the establishment of a certain diagnosis is very important.

Pancoast reviews the symptoms of hereditary optic atrophy or Leber's disease, and the roentgenologic findings in five cases. The author found, in support of Fisher's argument, the following points: A similarity between certain symptoms of pituitary disorders of the neuropathic type of Leber's disease, viz., frontal headaches, vertigo, and epileptiform attacks.

Leber's disease is apt to become more manifest at puberty or the menopause. During these periods there may be tumefaction of the pituitary. The relations of the pituitary and the chiasm are very close, only the diaphragma sellae between. This varies greatly in density and may be so thin as to permit a very slight enlargement of the gland to impair the functions of the nerve.

His reports of the roentgenographic findings in five cases were inconclusive but lent weight to Fisher's theory that the condition might be due to transient disorder of the pituitary body. **Taylor** in a short paper supported Fisher's contention that the symptoms of Leber's atrophy are associated with definite changes in the sella turcica which can be demonstrated with skiagraphs.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

VISUAL TRACTS AND CENTERS

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This section reviews the literature of the subject from May, 1918, to June, 1919. For previous literature see American Journal of Ophthalmology, vol. 1, July, p. 133, and August, p. 145.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

ANATOMY, NEUROBIOTAXIS. The theory of neurobiotaxis, as presented before the London International Medical Congress by **Kappers,** was recognized as of most profound biologic significance. **Jackson** comments, it was provocative of reflection rather than discussion, and the value of such a conception will be shown by what grows out of it. The location and relation of nerve centers and nerve tracts often seem extremely complex. Kappers' investigations began with a surprise because of the peculiar place which the nuclei of the ocular muscles of some fishes occupy. His observations have been carried out in fishes and some of the lower animals. Kappers' paper cannot be intelligently abstracted here, but it clearly shows that the gap between such a theoretic hypothesis as neurobiotaxis, and the practical questions of ophthalmic practice, is not so great as might at first appear. He has effectively used the relations of the cell groups and nerve tracts concerned with vision, to illustrate and support his hypothesis, that the arrangement of the nuclei is determined by the common or habitual association of sensations and movements.

LOCALIZATION OF VISUAL CENTERS.

Henschen defends his theory of the centers of sight from the attack of Monakow and his followers, and claims that his opponents' views are contrary to anatomic facts. He argues that because of the difference in structure of the periphery and center of the lobe they are affected differently. He claims that the upper border of the calcarine cortex corresponds to the lower half of the retina, and that the lower half corresponds to the upper half of the retina. Small defects in the cortex produce scotomas. The macula is represented in a certain area in the cortex. Henschen, after destroying the cortex of animals' brains, corresponding to the centers of sight, found that the geniculate body degenerates. The geniculate body contains numerous types of cells, the function of which has never been determined. Small lesions in the geniculate body produce scotomas in the visual fields.

Zeemann examined the eyes of a congenitally blind cat, nine months old. The eyes were hardened in formol and opened after enucleation, and stained by the hematoxylin-eosin and Weigert-Gieson method. The anterior portions of the globe showed no important changes. Microscopic examination disclosed no vestige of optic nerve, no opening in the sclera, and entire abscence of pial sheath, nerve, glia, or primary optic stem. The choroid was also a closed capsule. The retina was detached and appeared to be rolled around the vitreous membranes. It showed only two layers, a nuclear layer and a reticular, which was poor in nuclei. Nerve fibres, ganglion cells, rods and cones, were entirely absent, and no blood vessels were in evidence.

The brain of the cat was examined by R. Tumbeleka. He found an entire absence of the optic nerves. The lateral corpus geniculatum had no capsule, and was much reduced in size. The laminae medullares were hardly visible. The corpora quadrigemina were normal but reduced in size, which was also true of the visual cortex. The

condition was apparently due to an arrested development together with some pathologic influences which destroyed the retina secondarily. The disturbance must have occurred at about the fifth or sixth week of fetal life.

Morax, Moreau and **Castelain** have studied the visual defects of eighty-six cases with wounds of the occipital region with both the perimeter and by the method of Haitz. Special attention was paid to the effect of these injuries on macular and central vision.

The observers were able to follow their cases thru a long period of time, and to study them two or three years after the injury was received. They classify their cases into seven groups, depending upon the type of defects found in the visual fields. (Charts represent whole field and macular field.)

1. Homonymous hemianopsia, typical. Fig 1., 20 of the 86 cases (30%) in this group. The border of the hemianopsia is in the vertical meridian, passing from 5° to 10° from the vertical in the macular region. (a) Macular region not affected, (b) Macular region more or less affected on the blind side. Visual acuity normal excepting 2 cases, V. = 5/10. In all cases fusion, stereoscopic and diploscopic tests normal.

2. Homonymous hemianopsia and scotomas. (Fig. 2.), 15 of 86 cases, 14 in inferior sector. In the homonymous types the sectors are triangular. The apex of the triangle approaches or is in the macular region. In 8 of the cases the macular region was affected.

3. Hemianopic Scotomas. (Fig. 3.) 20 of the 86 cases. The frequency of this type of defect in occipital lesions is striking. Vision apparently normal and subject is often unconscious of any defect. Fusion defective in 5 of the cases.

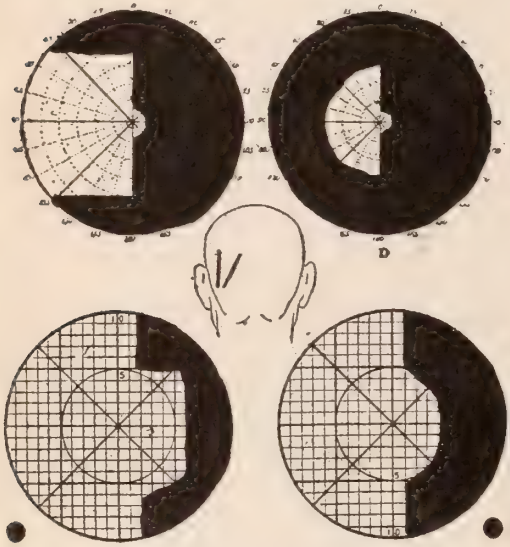


Fig. 1. Homonymous Hemianopsia, Typical. (Morax, Moreau and Castelain.)

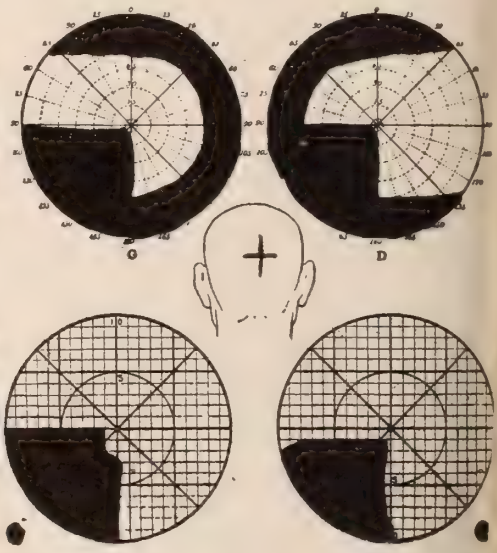


Fig. 2. Homonymous Hemianopsia and Scotomas.

4. Homonymous hemianopsia and scotoma, hemianopsia on opposite side. (Fig. 4), 14 of the 86 cases. In 10 cases macular region was involved, due to lesions of both sides of head. Vision good. Stereoscopic and diploscopic tests normal.

5. Double hemianopic scotomas (Fig. 5.) Sometimes called annular scotoma, 2 cases seen.

6. Homonymous hemianopsia with central scotoma involving the whole macular region. In this type the vertical boundary does not recede from the fixation point as in the former cases but includes it and involves the entire

half of the macular field. The vision in the case observed was 1/100.

7. Complete blindness on account of occipital lesions. This type is uncommon and only one case of this type was seen. Both occipital lobes were injured and complete obliteration of both fields resulted. From the study of their cases they conclude, that more often in macular visual disturbances following injuries to the brain, only one-half of the macular area is suppressed.

Morax concluded that the macular region is divided into 2 halves that are homonymous in the visual center. The

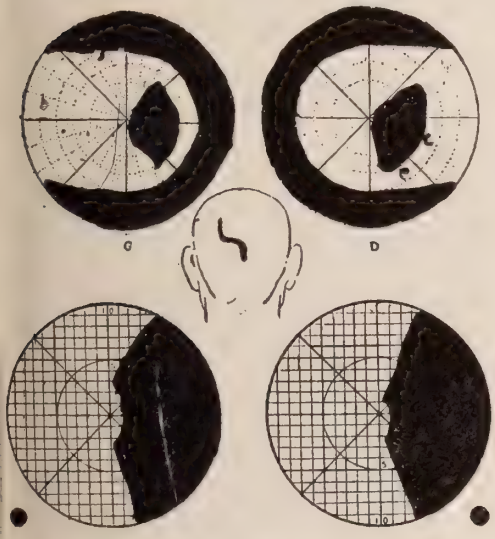


Fig. 5. Double Hemianopic Scotomas.

visual centers of the occipital regions are not the same for the macula as for the periphery. The central area for the macula is in the posterior extremity of the lobe. Conservation of normal visual acuity is compatible with destruction of one of the visual centers.

Rönne concludes: 1. That incongruence due to errors of observation in perimetry may be avoided by using a series of test-objects. 2. That true incongruence is present when the lesion is at a part of the optic path where the fibres from corresponding retinal points are not yet associated. This is more likely to be the case the further forward the lesion is. Rönne believes that a pronounced incongruence in hemianopsia indicates a lesion of the tract near its junction with the chiasma. 3. That, owing to the normally greater extent of the temporal field, its outer part is not associated with any

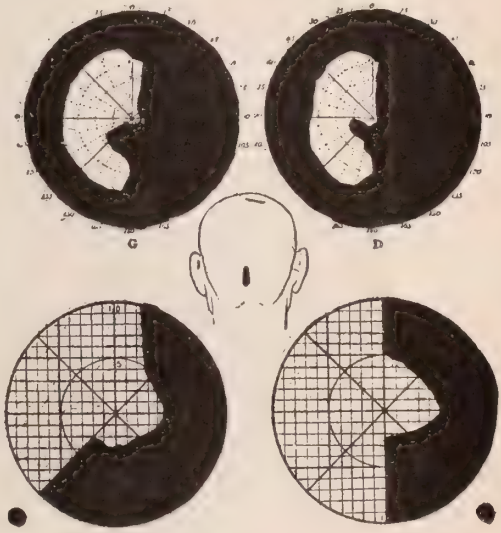


Fig. 4. Homonymous Hemianopsia and Scotoma. Hemianopsia on opposite side.

part of the nasal field of the other eye, but remains unpaired. Incongruence may thus exist in so far as the temporal defect in one field may be greater than the nasal defect in the other, to the ex-

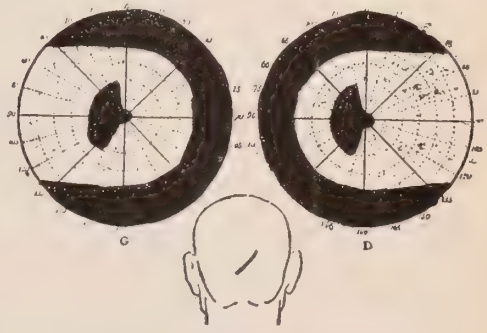


Fig. 3. Hemianopic Scotomas.

tent of the unpaired portion of the former. 4. That incongruence may occur in respect of an upward divergence of the vertical margins of hemiopic fields. This symptom is not concerned with the arrangement of the nerve fibres,

but with the fact that the hemianopic symmetric plane does not fall exactly in line with the sagittal plane of the eyes. 5. According to Wilbrand, the cortical representation of corresponding points may be irregularly arranged, and thus incongruence in the fields may be produced. 6. The sparing of the macula or overflowing field of Wilbrand is another form of incongruence. Rönne concludes that this is due to a purely peripheral interweaving of the nerve-fibres in the retina. At the same time a difference in the two sides in this respect must in all probability be referred to an irregularity in the arrangement of the cortical representation.

Cases illustrating the various forms of incongruence are described, and numerous charts are given. Rönne concludes that individual irregularities in the arrangement of the nerve-fibre bundles may exist. Altho this explanation may not be considered very satisfactory, he sees no other way out of the difficulty. The mixing of the fibres is in the great majority of cases extremely regular.

Meyerhof believes that in cases which have incongruent hemianopsia the condition is due to an arrangement of the nerve fasciculi in the occipital lobe in an unusual manner, and not according to rule. He reports two cases with fields of that type, in both of which the wounds were in the occipital region of the head.

Igersheimer records his observations in defects of the visual fields due to various causes. The article is illustrated with eighty-seven interesting cuts which simplify the text. From the study of his cases the author concludes that the ordinary method of taking the visual fields, with the perimeter, is the most reliable means of studying defects that may be encountered, and advises the use of more delicate instruments for measuring macular and perimacular vision.

He urges the more careful study of the blind spot, especially to determine early the presence of bitemporal and homonymous hemianopsia. Special study should also be made to ascertain the relation of the defect to the macula and fovea centralis.

From the author's wide experience, both clinical and experimental, he concludes that the probable reason that the macular vision is saved in some cases of injury in which hemianopsias are present, is due to the presence of a double blood supply of the portion of the occipital lobe which represents the macular area. In addition to the calcarine artery, the second artery found in some cases, is the posterior temporal which is a branch of the posterior cerebral. This temporal branch of the posterior cerebral in some cases is the chief artery to the posterior pole of the occipital lobe in which the macular cortical centers are located.

PHYSIOLOGY.—Visual Fields. **Landwehr** adds a worthy contribution to our knowledge of anisometropia. His conclusions are based upon the results found in the examination of seventy-two anisometropes. The three features of special interest in this condition which he investigated are: binocular clearness, the preponderance of the visual fields, and the localization of direction and depth. In regard to binocular clearness, the less ametropic eye, in the large majority of cases, plays the more prominent part. The same is true in regard to the visual fields, altho after correction, both eyes act more equally. Each of both halves of the visual field is dominated by the homonymous eye, even if this eye is the more ametropic. Depth-vision, in most anisometropes, is decreased, altho in low grades there is a certain amount.

High degrees of fusion capacity are found among corrected anisometropes, altho, as in the case of normal eyes, strong individual differences occur. A not unimportant increase of the fusion-power may follow permanent correction. In certain cases where total correction of the ametropia has been attempted, it has resulted in earache, epiphora, nausea and other reflex symptoms. The cause seems to be the prismatic action brought about by the patient looking thru both upper and lower parts of the lenses, which pro-

duces an unequal displacement of the visible objects. In general, however, total correction of anisometropia is recommended.

Zeemann, with the assistance of **Roelofs,** experimented regarding binocularly observed brightness, and the impressions which each eye received separately, especially when these impressions had an unequal brightness. Cartoons which could be quickly changed, were placed in a stereoscope. On all these cartoons there was a gray of more brightness on the right side than on the left. The gray which was perceived was darker than the light and lighter than the dark field. The experiments seemed to prove the significance of the outlines, giving the impression that the figure attracts the attention, thus giving a preponderant significance to the retinal image in the concerned eye. Experiments were then made, so that the influence of the outline in different parts of the visual field were different. The results of these observations are: (a) If a gray of unequal brightness is seen by each eye, the impressions will fuse. (b) The binocular impression is not of constant quality. (c) In particular, the outlines give a preponderant significance to one of the retinal images. (d) This influence does not depend on light, contrast, etc., but on force wherewith it directs the attention on one of the retinal images or parts thereof.

For the purpose of making clinical tests for the threshold of light and color, **Young** uses standard inks and produces fixed dilutions of over a thousand degrees. He places a circle of color on each leaf of a small album. The leaves are turned, fairly rapidly, in view of the patient. By this method it has been possible to quickly discover the existence of scotomata and to establish a certain relationship between color perception and certain eye diseases. For instance, in the retinitis of pregnancy, perception for yellow is markedly reduced, while in the albuminuric retinitis of trench fever, it is not reduced.

Lloyd calls attention to the unsatisfactory and even erroneous results obtained by the use of the perimeter in attempting to outline central defects in the retina. We are familiar with the classic picture produced by a blocking of the central retinal artery, but when a branch of the artery is affected the signs and symptoms change so quickly, it is difficult, after a month or two, to know what has happened unless one has followed the case from the beginning. For this class of cases, Lloyd finds the stereoscopic campimeter slate a much more reliable means of obtaining an accurate outline of both form and color scotomata. He believes it seems reasonable to say that the usually accepted conditions which produce central or paracentral scotomata, toxic neuritis, sphenoidal disease, multiple sclerosis, hereditary neuritis and glaucoma, we should add the condition of blocked macular arterioles.

Fridenberg discusses the importance of careful ocular tests in the examination of aviators. He shows that visual factors enter largely into the conditions of equilibration and vertigo. It has been taken for granted that if the labyrinth, being the principal organ of balance, is normal, the subject might fly safely. He warns against this hypothesis, and believes that it is of equally high importance to determine a normal condition of vision, ocular muscle balance, and binocular fixation, to be assured of a state of normal equilibration when under the unusual conditions of flying in high altitudes.

Stevens believes that the custom of *righthandedness* has a decided influence upon vision. Resulting from the more general use of the right hand, the anterior portion of the left cerebral hemisphere, which controls these movements, is correspondingly more developed than the right side, and the left orbit is thus pushed outward and the axis of the cavity changed from a vertical to an oblique direction. The globe of the eye is thereby tilted, its vertical meridian leaning outward toward the temple. This leaning is so common that its absence suggests, altho it does not prove, lefthandedness. It can be readily seen that a certain confusion of vision must result when

the meridians are not in their normal relations. Unless they are parallel in the primary position, there cannot be such harmony of action of the two eyes as to give simultaneous impressions on exact corresponding points of the two retinas in any position. Stevens urges the importance of bringing up the child to be ambidextrous.

PSYCHOLOGY OF VISION. — Colored hearing, the most common of the synesthesias, now has a large literature, but few truths can be uttered in respect to it, on account of its individualistic and impressionistic character. About a dozen years ago, Blanchard assisted at a concert in London, in which, while a piano was played in the dark, each note was represented by flashing an incandescent light in a specially colored bulb. The same note was always indicated by the same color. Many of the audience spectators professed to experience the same pleasure from the harmony of colors that others felt from the harmony of sounds. More recently a similar concert was held, when there was a demonstration of an organ in which pressure on the keys caused colored lights to flash on a screen. The organist executed color symphonies which gave to some of the spectators pleasure analogous to that of musical symphonies. **Ribas Vallero** made an extensive study of visual exteriorization and discusses the various classifications.

MIRROR WRITING.—**Bramwell** refers to a case, which he recorded several years ago, in which a sudden vascular cerebral lesion, apparently embolism of the left middle cerebral artery, in a man, who from birth had been strongly left-handed, but who had been taught to write only with the right hand, produced right-sided hemiplegia and marked and persistent *aphasia*. This condition he termed "crossed" aphasia. In a recent publication he considers in detail the explanation of "crossed" aphasia, and points out the two forms of impressions involved and stimulated to effect the phenomenon of "mirror-writing."

In his extensive thesis on the theory of binocular color mixture, **Dawson** goes over in detail the theories which have been propounded by Haldat, Helmholtz, Wheatstone, Meyer, Hering, Dove and many others. He states that while no wholly satisfactory explanation of binocular rivalry has been put forward, that which seems to fit the facts best is the attention theory.

Mirallie and **Denes** report that a woman stricken suddenly with right hemiplegia and motor aphasia, began at once to write with the left hand, beginning at the right side. Her writing was thus of the mirror type, and she never noticed that it was not her usual way of writing. Figures as well as words and phrases were of this mirror type, but when she added or subtracted figures, she began at the correct point at the right. They regard the case as confirming the view that mirror writing is the normal form of writing with the left hand.

Because the examination of the visual acuity is often considered to be the same as an examination for the "minimum separabile," **Roelofs** has made the examination with a number of objects of different widths and lengths. The results show that the minimum separabile, the angle under which the smallest recognizable interspace between two objects is seen, is not constant. It may be, however, that the observation width is still constant, altho the interspace itself is not. If two squares, the diameters of which are equal to the interspace, are used, the entire length will appear to be three perception circles. The true length does not necessarily agree with this. When a row of squares was used for this test, the diameter of a perception circle, in an emmetropic eye, was found to be 50 seconds. When a series of lines was used instead of squares, the perception width was about 40 seconds.

VISUAL ORIENTATION.—**Holmes**, discussing cases of disturbances of visual orientation, says: Cases could not be reported satisfactorily owing to the injuries being so severe and the mental processes so disturbed that a satisfactory examination could not be made.

There was no paralysis, limb movements normal, no ataxia, right plantar

reflex was extensor. Tactile and painful stimuli were appreciated correctly, no loss of sense of position, no optic neuritis.

Entrance wound twenty-three centimeters behind nasion, and seven centimeters to right of middle line. The ball could be felt under the scalp four centimeters behind and four centimeters above the margin of attachment of the left pinna. Reflexes became normal. He had been an intellectual and educated man, and he rapidly regained his intellectual faculties. Memory for the past was fair, the period immediately preceeding the wound blank; this gradually diminished.

His behavior was that of an intelligent child, was too facile, laughed unnecessarily and inappropriately, could carry out complicated orders, never used wrong words, could read and comprehend short sentences, could not write or even draw a short line. This was due to apraxia of his arms rather than to a specific agraphia. He showed bilateral ideomotor apraxia, that is, he could not perform simple purposive actions or use objects or instruments with which he was familiar. This was not due to weakness, ataxia or sensory disturbances in his limbs.

His visual disturbances were as follows:

He could not seize or touch anything presented to him, or extend his hand in the proper direction toward it, tho he could perceive and recognize it. He could not look at an object, but would roll his eyes in an irregular manner. Vision was 6/6; disc normal. Fields near normal, but some amblyopia in both lower right quadrants. Red and green fields were normal. He could move eyes correctly to command, or locate a noise, but could not do so otherwise except after several attempts. He could not keep the eyes fixed on a spot when the head was turned passively. There was no withdrawal of the head or closing of the eyes when a feint at striking him was made, no convergence, no contraction of the pupils to accommodation, no agnosia, that is, inability to recognize objects. Visual memory was good, visual retentiveness poor. On attempting to pick up an object he would grope for it like a man in the dark. There was great difficulty in localizing objects in space when they were outside the line of fixation, often failing to recognize moving objects by extracentral vision, tho they were outside that portion of the visual fields which were amblyopic. He could not recognize the relative position of objects within his field of vision.

When he could touch the objects he could correctly orient them, but could not tell which was the shorter of the two lines or the relative size of the objects. Stereoscopic vision was unaffected. The attention to visual impressions seemed to be arrested or occupied by any object that, at the moment, was in his central vision. He could not count coins on a table but could do so if he could take them in his hand.

His walking was not ataxic, but he walked with shuffling steps, and would run into objects tho aware that they were present. He would run into a wall. This was due to the visual impressions not exciting attention to the objects. He could not find his way about the ward in which he had been for weeks; with eyes closed he could walk correctly towards a sound.

Summarizing the visual disturbances of this case, they are as follows:

Central vision intact; except for slight amblyopia in right lower quadrants the fields of vision were uncontracted. Owing to disturbance of visual attention he frequently failed to perceive objects moving within his range of vision.

Remaining symptoms may be grouped in two classes: (1) Disturbance of ocular movements, difficulty of fixing objects or of maintaining fixation on moving objects, absence of accurate convergence and accommodation, and the visual blinking reflex. (2) Disturbance in visual localization and orientation in space, inability to touch or indicate directly the position of objects seen. There were errors in all directions, but most prominent in the estimation of the distance of objects

from him. He could not distinguish the relative position of objects in space or the relative size of objects.

Results of these disturbances are as follows: Difficulty in exploring surface with his eyes, difficulty in counting similar objects placed in series or scattered about in his field of vision, and difficulty in reading, the latter being due partly to difficulty in fixation, and partly to difficulty in appreciating relative positions. He ran into objects when walking because the retinal images did not excite his attention, and he could not assign the objects to their relative positions in space as regards himself.

Several other cases are reported with approximately the same symptoms.

In summarizing, the following observations are made: The symptoms cannot be due to defects of visual perception as the central vision was normal, or approximately so. In the examination of many cases with central and paracentral scotoma due to gunshot injuries of the brain, it was found that spacial perception was not affected, or in this sense affected by hemianospia, or other large losses in the field of vision, whether they be due to cortical, subcortical, or tract lesions.

The affection of visual orientation was obvious in several tests. The patient was unable to touch objects within his range and vision, tho the movements of the arms were intact. He collided with visible objects in walking and had difficulty in finding his way around them. He could not recognize the relative position of two similar objects in space. In attempting to touch an object, he made errors in all three dimensions of space, particularly in the estimation of distance.

Our power of recognizing the relative position of objects in space depends upon the mosaic images of them to the central image, since it is from the macula that we measure the distances of the objects from each other. Analogous cutaneous signs enable us to locate any point on the surface of the body that is touched. In certain lesions of the central nervous system, these cutaneous signs are abolished and the same condition obtains with the retina, but retinal stimuli suggest only magnitude and relative positions of objects in a bi-dimensional plane.

To obtain correct knowledge of the relation of the objects to ourselves, the different impulses from the ocular and neck muscles and tendons inform us of the direction of the visual axis. The knowledge of the position of our head is also necessary.

The estimation of distance depends largely on the perceptive impulses from the ocular muscles, especially those of accommodation and convergence. Familiarity with the size of the object, light intensity, etc., also are concerned. Thus the estimation of distance being the most complicated process, it is natural that this should be the most affected. This accounts for these patients colliding with objects, walls, screens, etc.

In attempting to touch seen objects, they were at fault for the same reason. We acquire our knowledge of space from visual experiences, tho muscular, tactile, or other impressions also contribute to it. The memory of spacial relations was disturbed, also. It is probable that the cerebral mechanisms, by which the spacial percepts received thru the different senses are associated and assimilated with past experiences, were involved.

The inability to read and to count a number of similar objects was due to this cause. The relative position of the words or objects were disturbed and he could not tell whether he had already seen the words or objects, (such as a number of coins in front of him and in his field of vision) or had not as yet noted them.

These patients could recognize *words* as *words* without difficulty, but when the many words were together, as on a page, then the spacial relation being disturbed, confusion resulted.

Disturbance of visual attention was marked, tho the sensibility of the retinae was intact. Thus they did not perceive objects directly in front of them until they had their attention directed to them. Several complained

that they could only see one thing at a time.

This disturbance of visual attention is so commonly associated with loss of visual orientation that it might be included in the syndrome; only they are not interdependent. The former may occur unilaterally when the latter is no way affected.

The ocular symptoms include the difficulty which all the patients had in fixing objects visible to them, their failure to accommodate and to converge, and the absence of the blinking reflex.

The impairment of fixation resulted from impairment of spacial orientation. The reason for this is, that when the position of the object which throws the image on the retina is not appreciated, the globes cannot be rotated so as to throw the image on the fovea.

In all these cases the wounds involved the angular gyrus or its neighborhood, a region of the cortex where it is generally understood that centers for ocular movements exist. It may consequently be assumed that one function of this part of the brain is the reflex adjustment of the eyes to peripheral stimuli, or the coördination or integration of the different impressions, which, thru these different centers, evoke appropriate ocular movements in response to retinal excitations. It is assumed that bilateral lesions are necessary to produce these symptoms. The lesions in most of the cases involved the angular and supramarginal gyri, and extended into the adjoining, occipital, temporal, and parietal convolutions in the region of the splenium.

Congenital Word Blindness.—**Engler** describes a case of congenital imbecility with especial weakness in regard to reading and writing. It did not appear to be a local symptom but a "partial idiocy." The diagnosis could not be said to be congenital word blindness, and a congenital aplasia of a certain part of the brain could not be proved.

Factors in Stereoscopic Vision.—**Eaton** calls attention to the importance of a correct estimation of distance as essential in every department of life, and which has assumed a peculiar importance in the life of the aviator. The belief that a single eye gives a certain amount of appreciation of three dimensions, often referred to as the "sense of depth," is surely general. This term ought rightly to be included in the term "Stereoscopic vision." The difference between the "sense of depth" and the "sense of solidity," is merely that the former is more realistic in reference to the intervals between objects, and the latter in reference to the objects themselves. Apart from the fusion sense, the chief factor whereby we perceive solidity thru vision, is the shape of the retinal images of symmetric objects. There are also the alterations of definition according to distance, lighting effects, in the case of very near objects, there is the sense of ocular convergence; and if the observer is moving, there is parallax, etc. A one-eyed man sees stereoscopically in the only valid sense of that word. He will always say that he sees things solid, not flat.

If a pair of stereoscopic photographs be reversed so that the left hand card is seen before the right eye and vice versa, the view should be reversed in the third dimension, making objects in the foreground appear in the distance. This, however, will not be found to occur. The other factors in stereoscopic vision dominate the fusion sense. If the card is reversed, top to bottom and right to left, the fusion sense acts normally, but owing to the unusual view the sense of perspective and the appreciation of shadows are almost wholly in abeyance. Our fusion sense, therefore, appears to be extremely elastic and readily capable of compromise or even suppression. A painted picture does not appear flat to us, yet our fusion sense ought to make it so, for the two retinal images are similar.

Barrie does not agree with Eaton in his factors in stereoscopic vision, and the visual estimation of distances. If an ordinary stereoscopic photograph view be divided into two halves, he says, and the left half be placed in the

stereoscope opposite the left eye, he sees it double. The view seen by the left eye is projected well towards the right, while the portion of the picture seen by the right eye is projected towards the position which the picture actually occupies. With the right half of the picture before the right eye, duplication occurs again, the projection being as already described. The two views in each case show distance and solidity very clearly, the erroneously projected picture being lighter than the other. If now the left half of the picture be placed in the stereoscope before the left eye, and the right half of the picture brought forward so that the projected view of the left is overlapped by the correctly placed view of the right eye, the resultant view shows depth and solidity well marked.

If the right half of the picture is inverted and placed before the left eye in the stereoscope, it is seen double again, but in this case the sense of perspective is faulty. The foreground is not thrown into the distance, nor distant objects brought forward when the inverted and reversed halves of a stereoscopic picture are seen in a stereoscope, but a new view is seen in which the fusion sense has full play in the ordinary acceptation of the term. As a consequence, the experiment does not support the contention that "our fusion sense appears to be extremely elastic and readily capable of compromise or even suppression."

Functional and Transient Blindness.—A case of transient left homonymous hemianopsia, occurring in a heavy cigarette smoker, following a forty-eight-hour spree, is reported by **Tyson.** Visual acuity, muscles, tension and pupillary reactions were all practically normal, but the fields of vision showed incomplete left homonymous hemianopsia, with form field contracted to within eight degrees of fixation. The color fields were contracted to fixation in the horizontal meridian. Elimination and light diet, with abstinence of alcohol and tobacco were ordered, and nine days later, color and form fields were quite normal. About eight months later the patient had another attack, following another spree. The visual fields showed left homonymous superior quadrant anopsia, incomplete; the apex of the angle extending to within five degrees of fixation for form, while that for colors was contracted to fixation. In two weeks his form fields had widened to within ten degrees of normal, while his color fields remained contracted in left superior quadrants to about fixation, constituting a left homonymous superior quadrant achromatopsia. As to the localization of the site of the lesion in these cases, the researches of Beevor and Collier indicate that it is an occlusive lesion of the right posterior calcarine artery, causing destruction of the inferior third of the cuneus, including all the cortex above and below the calcarine fissure, with the exception of a small point anteriorly. Alcohol and tobacco were probably the exciting cause of the cerebral angioneurosis.

Claiborne, in discussing this paper, reported the case of a young man of sixteen who had been taken suddenly blind, and at the same time the right arm and the entire right side were numb. Ten days later the hemianopsia had disappeared. This transient fugacious hemianopsia had never been observed before, in so young a person.

HYSTERIA.

Yealland divides hysteric disorders clinically, into two groups: (1) Conditions in which contraction of antagonists could be demonstrated; (2) those in which this could not be demonstrated. By contraction of an antagonistic group of muscles he means the contraction of a group which should be relaxed during the performance of a given movement, as illustrated in blepharospasm, ptosis and spasm of accommodation. The phenomenon of contraction of antagonists cannot be demonstrated in such conditions as limitation of the visual fields and amblyopia, but in these conditions, contraction of antagonists in some other part of the body could be observed. The treatment is one of suggestion and should be completed at one sitting. In his experience it produced complete

relief of the physical disability, tho much could not be hoped for in improvement of the mental state.

Pacheca Luna reports a case of total hysteric blindness in a woman, who had had hysteric convulsions and chorea which lasted for several days. She had been treated for bilateral blindness before. On focusing a powerful light into the eyes, no pupillary reaction was perceived. The pupils were permanently contracted. There was a clonic blepharospasm with 130 contractions a minute, which continued while the patient was sleeping, as well as with the eye bandaged. Anesthesia of the bulbar conjunctiva. There was no sensation to pain and heat. Ophthalmoscopic examination negative. No error of refraction. Nose and teeth negative. The tendon reflexes were negative. There was anesthesia of palate and uvula. Under treatment by suggestion and elimination of toxins, the patient regained normal vision in six months. The blepharospasm remained and the fields of vision were slightly constricted.

Guijarro's patient was a young woman who had never presented appreciable signs of hysteria and the family was normal. The bilateral amaurosis developed suddenly after emotional stress—passing under the tree where her brother had hanged himself not long before. Deafness accompanied the amaurosis at first, but soon subsided. Vision improved under suggestion, but several months elapsed before recovery was complete.

Transient Concussion Amblyopia. —**Lemière** describes the case of a soldier who after a severe bombardment found that he could not see. Examination showed dilated pupils, severe blepharospasm, normal pupillary reflexes, slightly blurred disc on the right side, V. = counting fingers with difficulty. Very pronounced concentric contraction of the visual field. With no treatment except rest, the vision rose to normal and the visual fields returned to normal in one month. The author considers it a case of concussion vasomotor disturbance of the occipital lobes.

Bussy records two cases of transitory blindness occurring in soldiers following the explosion of shells. The first case had in addition to the blindness blepharospasm, mydriasis and absence of pupillary reaction to light. The optic nerve was pale and the retinal vessels were extremely narrow. The patient recovered full vision after remaining in a dark room for three days. The second case had the same eye symptoms, vision returned to normal in three or four days but the accommodation was not recovered for three months. The author attributes these symptoms to vasomotor disturbance dependent upon a retinal anemia and shock to the sympathetic.

Ophthalmic Migrain. — **Posey** reported a series of cases under his observation, in which permanent quadrant and hemianopic lesions followed so-called migrainous attacks. He says there is ample evidence in the literature to the effect that migrain may be the forerunner of organic brain disease, and that an area of softening of the brain may follow, which may manifest itself by a permanent paralysis, aphasia, or hemianopsia. While such lesions usually occur in individuals predisposed in consequence of disease of the walls of the blood vessels, it would seem that in certain cases the vascular lesions may occur in young persons and even in some adults with healthy vessels.

Posey also gave notes of a case of recurrent oculomotor palsy, or ophthalmoplegic migrain, occurring in a girl of 13; the first attack, with implication of the eye muscles occurring when she was but 6 years of age.

The case of a physician which was observed fourteen years ago was also recalled. He presented almost complete ptosis of his right upper eyelid, and a paretic condition of the inferior oblique and internal rectus muscle of the same eye. His ocular symptoms coincided with spells of dimness of vision, associated with flashes of light upon the side affected and followed by headache and nausea. These seizures apparently were typical attacks of migrain.

Pagenstecher reports two cases of scintillating scotoma. He comes to the conclusion that they are not as harmless as they are supposed to be. Both cases commenced with typical scintillating scotoma; later they developed homogeneous defects of vision which remained. In the more severe cases an exact neurologic examination should be made which may show that this condition may originate in disease of the brain. He recommended to such patients that they take great care of themselves, and avoid anything which might prove deleterious to the vascular system.

Hensen saw four cases of complete internal ophthalmoplegia in migrain. The attacks came on during the menses; and the author believes that the lesions are nuclear, and due to the presence of cysts or small aneurisms in the region of the nerve centers, which are enlarged by the congestion that occurs at that period. Hensen thinks it possible that the paralysis of the internal eye muscles might be toxic but believes that it is improbable. In the cases of blindness associated with migrain the optic nerve is probably the seat of the trouble or a hysteric element might play some part, especially when the blindness lasts over a rather long period of time.

ILLUSIONS, HALLUCINATIONS. — **Shaw** calls attention to an optical illusion he has encountered among inexperienced swimmers. A person swimming with the wind, and consequently with the waves which travel in the same direction faster than it is possible to swim, receives the impression of being carried backward by the water. In the absence of knowledge covering the case, most persons under these conditions immediately think of "undertow," become panic stricken, and needlessly exhaust themselves in an effort to reach the shore.

Prompt discusses the accommodation for perspective, the perception of objects in relief, of the acute angle, etc. His conclusions as to certain features of physiologic vision suggest an explanation for a number of optical illusions, including the "canals" on Mars.

Cave refers to the optical phenomena in the experiments of Aitken with rotating discs. The discs were divided into about twenty-four sectors, white and black alternately, and with endless bands of paper with black bars painted across them. A convenient way of viewing the appearances was to look at a sheet of mottled paper after looking at the rotating disc, when the markings on the paper appeared to move in a contrary direction to the exciting impression. If, after viewing the rotating disc, another similar disc be looked at, the second disc appears to rotate in a contrary direction to the first; but if the second disc is larger than the first, this extension will entirely destroy all appearance of rotation, and the disc will appear at rest. He asks if these experiments do not suggest that the seat of the illusion is deeper than the retina.

Allen believes that the seat of this illusion begins at the retina, but involves all the intricate labyrinth of nerve tissue from the retina to the highest sensory and motor centres. Because, when the objects in a given visual field are moving in different directions, or some of them not moving, the eye usually fixes on one of the objects, regarding it as stationary, and treating the others as moving. This requires both a muscular and a nervous effort involving the coordinating mechanism of the higher nerve centers; and when the stimulus ceases or changes, the reciprocal after effects in these centres are apparently interpreted as opposite motion. A change to nerve-muscle coordination is necessary to accommodate the eye to a changed stimulus.

Gordon reports four cases in which visual hallucinations were present. All occurred in middle aged women during the involutional period. In each case the visual hallucinations were in the form of children. The author believes that the underlying cause was toxic in three of his cases; and the fourth was precipitated by hysteric paroxysms.

Inhibition of Visions.—Apart from hysteric amblyopia, **Hurst** and **Symms** report that they have never seen patients with hysteric symptoms, who spontaneously complained of disabilities resulting from a narrow field of vision. They have examined numerous soldiers suffering from various war neuroses, but have never found any retraction of their field of vision until they were tested with the perimeter. They claim that the perimeter invariably resulted in the suggestion of a narrowed field. If the examination was continued after the first field had been marked out, a spiral field was always obtained, identical with that which has hitherto been regarded as a stigma of hysteria. This has not been found oftener in hysteric cases, simply because it has not been looked for. An outward spiral is always obtained instead of an inward one, if the white disc of the perimeter is moved outwards instead of inwards, as is commonly done.

In the course of some investigations on "Experimental Malingering," twenty-seven individuals, who were pretending that they were paralyzed on the right side as a result of a railway accident, were asked whether they could see as well with the right eye as with the left. Seven replied that they had noticed some impairment of vision in the right eye. On testing the field of vision with the finger, no narrowing was observed, but when tested with the perimeter, all of the seven showed a narrowing on the right side, and one had a slight narrowing on the left.

Lesions of Optic Chiasm.—Physiologic experimentation and clinical observation, according to **Lewis**, strongly indicate that the hypophysis cerebri when normally functioning exercises a controlling influence not only over the skeletal and muscular structures, but over the nutrition and development as well as over all of the tissues having an epiblastic and mesoblastic origin. It follows that its aberrations of function will find their expression in the less commonly recognized forms of dyspituitarism, and in a wide range of atrophies and dystrophies which have been vaguely relegated to congenital deficiencies or other equally indefinite causes. It is already known that between the advanced forms of hyperpituitary activity, and in dyspituitarism in retarded development, both physical and mental, is the entire gamut of possibilities in which vital physical disturbances occur; without there being of necessity any discoverable alteration either in the organ itself or in the bony cavity in which it rests. The therapeutic employment of thyroid and thymus gland substance is of value, but must be used with judgment and caution, as at times they produce profound effects.

Hypophyseal tumors, when representing a local manifestation of a constitutional condition, syphilis for example, may be treated by the recognized specific therapy. If, however, an X-ray picture shows an enlargement of the sella turcica, we must have recourse to some other form of treatment, **Loeb** calls attention to *X-ray treatment,* in those cases where, from various conditions, it is impracticable to resort to surgery. A number of cases thus treated show as good results as cases where decompression or removal of the tumor has been done. X-ray treatment is especially favorable in that class of tumors where the symptoms are due to compression, especially of the optic nerves. Here the X-ray is useful in all stages, particularly the early ones, before atrophy of the nerves has developed.

In cases where the symptoms are especially manifest in the bony skeleton, organic lesions already established, cannot, of course, be made to disappear. In the later stages of this condition, where the hyperfunction has given place to insufficiency of secretion, this treatment is contraindicated. He describes a case of his own in a woman 38 years of age, who had been suffering from headaches for five years, gradual lowering of vision, dizziness, nausea, etc. An X-ray picture of the head showed an increase in the area of the sella turcica. The method of giving the X-ray treatment is fully described. Almost from the beginning of the

treatment there was an alleviation of the headaches. The improvement from an ocular standpoint has not kept pace with the improvement in her general condition.

Considering the vast amount of literature published in recent years on ocular complications in nasal accessory *sinus disease,* bitemporal hemianopsia is of extremely rare occurrence. In a collection of 315 cases of bitemporal hemianopsia made by Bogatsch in 1912, only one of them was considered due to postnasal sinus disease. A case of this kind is reported by **Conlon,** where the perimetric chart showed typical bitemporal hemianopsia. A submucous resection of the septum which was markedly deviated to the left side, impinging upon the middle turbinate, and both posterior ethmoids and sphenoids were exenterated. A polyp was also removed from the region of the right ethmoid. Within a month there was a rapid return of the fields for white, but the color perception was absolutely lost for about seven months, when there began a gradual improvement. The author calls attention to the fact that the topographic relationship of the chiasm to the sphenoid sinus is not as usually described; that only rarely are they in such close relationship, which would explain the comparative immunity of the chiasm to retrobulbar neuritis as commonly associated with postnasal suppuration.

In that class of hypophyseal tumors which are accompanied by visual disturbances, **Adson** has met with marked success, by surgical treatment thru the intradural approach. Six patients have been thus operated upon, the technic of the operation being described. In two of this group there was very definite bitemporal hemianopsia, with more or less loss of vision in the left eye; one had a complete loss of vision in the right eye for a period of ten years, and a left temporal hemianopsia; one presented a typical acromegalic syndrome and a temporal color hemianopsia and constricted object field; one had bitemporal hemianopsia with more or less distorted fields in the left eye, and one had blindness in the right eye. Postoperative convalescence was uneventful and rapid in all but one case in which the patient died on the second day. In two cases there was complete restoration of vision, in two, marked improvement of vision, and in one a relief from headache. The author points out the advantage of this method of operation over others.

The operation for decompression of the pituitary body may be carried out by the transtemporal, the transfrontal, or the transphenoidal route, the last named being used thru the mouth, thru the antrum of Highmore, and thru the nose. **Stein** strongly advocates the method by the nasal route, as with the technic now employed, it gives ample room for working with minimum tissue loss, and to the rhinologist in particular this operation offers an exceptionally favorable avenue by which to approach the floor of the sella turcica, after opening up the way by a submucous septal resection. He can easily and rapidly open widely into the sphenoid cavities, which then gives easy access to the sella floor and the gland that lies within. The ideal anesthesia is morphin-hyoscin or scopolamin-morphin with flake cocain locally on the septum and sphenoid.

An absolute knowledge of the topographic anatomy of the region is of supreme importance, as the anterior or or middle cerebral fossae might be entered, jeopardizing the chiasm or the cavernous sinus. But whatever anatomic conditions may be present it is always necessary for the operator to keep working in the median line to escape injury to nerve, artery and cavernous sinus. This in itself is a strong argument in favor of the septal route, as one is always working in the median line from the beginning. An advantage of working submucously is that the entire operation is confined between two mucoperiosteal flaps and with proper aseptic technic these flaps can be brought together at the end of the operation, thereby avoiding any danger of afterinfection.

Stauffer reported the case of a ten year old boy, phenomenally bright in mathematics, but unreliable, untruthful

and early developing criminal habits. He had been blind for the past three years. A diagnosis of tumor of the pituitary gland had been made, and he was operated upon but died on the operating table. Necropsy showed an absence of the pituitary gland and its place taken up by a tumor of the optic commissure, probably a sarcoma. The doubtful question of importance and interest was whether the condition of the boy was due entirely to the absence of the pituitary gland, or whether heredity played an important part in his case.

Stieren reports the case of a man 33 years old who complained of impaired vision and some disturbance of mental functions. Exàmination showed bitemporal hemianopsia, nearly complete on the right side and within 10° of fixation on the left. X-ray examination revealed enormous enlargment of the sella. Acromegalic enlargment of the head, hands and feet had been progressing for seven years. Under local anesthesia the sphenoidal sinus was opened and found to be almost obliterated by the depression of the sella floor. Pathologic report of the tissues removed from the sella showed the growth to be carcinoma. Considerable enlargment of the visual fields, improvement in vision and his mental condition followed the operation.

Früchte had a case which developed a central scotoma which varied in extent on different days. The condition subsided after draining the ethmoidal sinuses. He also saw a case with central scotoma which followed a fall from a horse, which the author attributes to a hemorrhage into the optic nerve producing pressure on the papillo macular fibres. The author encourages the use of the Bjerrum method for mapping out defects of the visual fields.

Lesions of Optic Tracts.—**Keen** and **Ellis** report the successful removal of a fibroma of the brain, which is of special interest because of the fact that it was the first operation of this kind that they had performed, and also because the patient lived for thirty years after the operation. The diagnosis was made of pressure on the anterior lobe of the left hemisphere involving the third convolution and extending backward, due to exostosis, tumor, or possibly only thickening of the dura. Later, and before the operation, the diagnosis was more definitely limited to a tumor. He had become totally blind, and aphasia was marked. He had numerous epileptic attacks. The tumor after removal weighed almost a quarter of a pound. His vision became improved so that he was able to go about until about three years ago. Midway between the time of the operation and the time of his death, an examination by de Schweinitz, showed postpapillitic optic atrophy. R. V. hand movements, L. V. 1/30. Vertical nystagmus.

Libby reports a case of cystic tumor with papilledema, occurring in a youth of 18. Many signs of meningitis were present and others absent. On the other hand, while a beginning optic neuritis suggested both meningitis and brain tumor, yet there were no localizing signs of cerebral pressure. Distinct optic neuritis soon developed, the papilla being edematous and hyperemic, but no further retinal edema or hemorrhages were observed. Autopsy disclosed an area of softening about the size of a hen's egg near the left lateral ventricle, and a cyst filled with straw-colored fluid.

Freund saw a case in which homonymous hemianopsia was associated with tabes. The postmortem findings in the case revealed an intradural aneurism of the left internal carotid artery which pressed on the left optic tract, and degeneration of the nerve fibres on the outer portion of the left nerve and the inner portion of the right. The hemianopsia was plainly independent of the tabes.

Hegner and **Zange** agree that in abscesses or tumors of the pontocerebellar angle, the clinical symptoms are such that the patient nearly always seeks an oculist first, because the first symptom is a disturbance of vision. A choked disc is a characteristic symptom of these tumors. Motor disturbances of the eye, including disturbance of the abducens muscle, will aid in locating the position of the tumor. Later

there are disturbances of hearing. They discuss the technic and dangers of Kraus' operation.

Lesions of Cortical Centers.—As a symptom of ocular migrain, momentary hemianopia is well known. As a phenomenon lasting for days or weeks and then ceasing, it is very rare. In regard to the pathology of migrain the theory most generally held is that it is due to a nerve storm of the cerebral cortex akin to epilepsy, but there is another that it is the result of spasm in a cerebral artery. **Stieren** reports a case in support of the latter theory, but altho the patient gave a history of occasional attacks of migrain from the age of 8 to the age of 23, these had ceased five years before the hemianopic attacks began, and the connection may have been fortuitous. That the cause of the hemianopsia in this case was the temporary occlusion of the posterior calcarine artery, is supported by a case recorded by Beevor and Collier in 1904, in which a permanent left superior quadrantic hemianopsia was proved by autopsy to be due to a softening of the whole lower half of the right visual cortex, caused by an occlusion of that vessel.

Cases of transient hemianopsia resulting from severe concussion of the cerebral cortex following upon wounds of the occipital region have recently been noted, in which more or less complete recovery took place, the recovery for color vision always lagging behind that for form vision. In cases of quadrantic hemianopsia from war wounds, it is usually the lower quadrant that is affected.

Fernandez Sanz reported three cases of hemianopsia, two in old men, followed hemorrhages in the cerebrum, the third case occurred in a young man, age 37, following la grippe. The author believes that the last case was due entirely to la grippe.

Wechsler reports two cases of homonymous hemianopsia and central scotoma in patients where the complexity of the findings made the seat of the lesion obscure. In the first case the lesion was apparently in the left cuneus near the calcarine fissure which extended sufficiently inward to include a few of the association fibres going to the hand center for writing, as the patient had mild paragraphia, and very dubious alexia. The other symptoms could be explained by the little understood phenomenon known as von Monakow diaschisis.

In the second case there was a suddenly oncoming right hemiplegia and right supranuclear facial paralysis, some aphasia and a sudden impoverishment of vision in the left eye. The sudden scotoma is not easy to explain. If this followed an intracranial lesion, then little could be done; if, however, it was due to a retrobulbar neuritis consequent upon a local inflammatory condition, vision might have been saved.

Dercum presented a man 67 years old, who became aware, rather suddenly, of loss of vision in the right visual field of each eye, without other accompanying symptoms. The blood-pressure was high, and the superficial vessels were tortuous and resistant. Wassermann reaction was negative and there were no visible changes in the fundi. Under treatment with potassium iodid, improvement was taking place in vision. The conclusion was reached that there had been a temporary occlusion of the blood supply to the cuneus on the left side of the brain.

Lloyd reports a case of sensory aphasia associated with right lateral homonymous hemianopsia, in a man sixty years of age, who had been struck by a motor truck and sustained a V-shaped fracture of the orbital plate of the left frontal bone, as shown by the X-ray. The patient had no object blindness, as he could name many things held before his eyes, but he had a very decided astereognosis, as well as anesthesia of his right fore-finger and thumb, and a coarse tremor of his right hand. He could not recognize nor name simple objects held in his right hand. He was unable to write, either by copying or by dictation, when asked to write with his left hand, he made a capital "E" reversed, as in mirror-writing, but got no further. As to the localization of a lesion that could

produce all these symptoms, the coincidence of word-deafness and word-blindness seemed to point to a subcortical lesion within the temporo-occipital lobes in the left cerebral hemisphere. This could extend deep enough to involve the optic radiatons, also the ascendng sensory fibres to the superior parietal lobule, which would account for the hemianopsia, hemianalgesia, and astereognosis with tremor. The patient failed rapidly and died in a few weeks. Autopsy revealed two lesions in the white substance of the left hemisphere. One was located above the posterior part of the corpus callosum, bordering upon the posterior median fissure. The other one was just beneath the cortex at the junction of the parietal, temporal and occipital lobes. The larger lesion proved to be an endothelioma.

Weeks reported two cases of homonymous quadrant defects of the fields of vision. In one case an absolute scotoma was found in the right inferior quadrant of both fields with a relative defect extending thru a sector about 30° above the horizontal plane in the upper right quadrant of both fields. The diagnosis in this case is a subcortic lesion either hemorrhage or thrombus affecting the optic radiations on the left side in the dorsal aspect, almost entirely, the lesion being located quite close to the cortical visual area.

In the second case the fields of vision showed defects in the upper right quadrant of both fields, but reaching the center and shading off gradually toward the periphery below the horizon. The diagnosis is a subcortic lesion on the left side affecting the optic radiations, particularly in the lower aspect, not involving the macular bundle of fibers. The lesion is farther removed from the cortic visual area than the first case. History points to hemorrhage.

Pusey reported a case of quadrantic blindness in the lower right fields. A week before the patient had severe pain in the head and in the afternoon of the same day noticed that he could not see distinctly. The patient had agraphia and his memory was somewhat affected. His previous history and Wassermann were negative. **Clegg** reported a case of homonymous lateral hemianopsia.

The percent of function lost in synchronous hemianopsia is greater than 33⅓%. **Von Schleich,** the author. places it as high as 50%.

Uhthoff holds that 33⅓% of function is lost in synchronous hemianopsia. The percent is about the same as that for unilateral blindness. The synchronous hemianopics cannot engage in the trades of commissaries, technicians, buyers, or manufacturers efficiently. They are not able to take up work that the one-eyed can and do take up.

War Injuries—Hemianopsia after Trauma.—The observations of Morax Moreau and Castelain have been referred to under Anatomy, p. 187. As chief of the eye department of the Belgian Hospital at Havre, **Rasquin** had the opportunity of observing a large number of cases of hemianopsia encountered among the wounded. He classifies them according as the individual requires the aid of another person, or not. He found that a gap in the visual fields is more disabling the closer it is to the point of fixation. He gives a colored plate showing the eight different parts of the visual field that may be lost, and the relative disability from each.

Sarnowski has studied the cases of six soldiers who received wounds of the head, in the occipital region. He describes the effects upon the nervous system, and the modification in the visual fields which resulted. All but one of the men showed hemianopsia, and there were marked retractions of the fields.

Behr had two cases with injury to the pituitary body in which the patient survived. The first case was due to a small-bore revolver bullet, which entered the right temporal region. When first seen both pupils were widely dilated and there was complete amaurosis. One month after the injury there was complete right and partial left ophthalmoplegia. She was completely blind. Six weeks after the injury the left pupil

showed pseudoparadoxic light reaction, contracting considerably after closing of the lids. Pupils contracted with extreme abduction, with the retinoscope, definite accommodation was noted when there was a fixing on near point in the left. None of these effects were seen on the right side.

In the second case a blow had been received on the head from a club. For a month after the injury there was loss of memory, alexia, and sensory aphasia, paresis of the left oculomotor nerve. and atrophy of the left optic nerve. There was a right sided hemianopsia. This improved later to a defect in the right temporal field, but left a typical bitemporal color hemianopsia with the dividing line passing thru the point of fixation. The oculomotor paresis recovered and vision in both eyes was 6/6 six months after the injury. In both cases dystrophia adiposa developed.

Mairet and **Durante** note that upon repeated examinations of the visual field at a single sitting, the successive fields obtained differ slightly in size—usually by not more than three or four degrees. In certain nervous patients they obtained progressively diminishing fields, imparting to the curve the form of a convergent spiral. This peculiarity is manifestly not due to focal brain disease, nor was it associated with hysteria. All the patients presented a markedly increased fatigability, but this is held not to be the main factor of the convergent field, for the sign was only unilateral. It is believed best accounted for as being a condition of insufficient blood supply or defective innervation of the part, whereby all sustained effort is rendered difficult. The sign seems to be allied to the vascular disturbances described in shell shock, which may involve but one side of the body and sometimes become manifest in vasomotor crises of the Jacksonian type.

Velter published an article, with case histories and illustrations of the various eye symptoms following cranial injuries. The symptoms depend on the location of the cranial wounds, but in general, the penetrating wounds of the cranium produce symptoms which he classifies as follows:

1. Motor troubles.—(a) Motility of the lids; paralysis of the orbicularis, usually unilateral, and most often secondary to complete facial paralysis. (b) Paralysis of one or all of the extrinsic eye muscles, due to injury of their motor nerve, diplopia present. (c) Nystagmus. (d) Conjugate deviation of head and eyes, (coexisted with a complete hemiplegia in reported case), deviation to opposite side from hemiplegia.

2. Pupillary findings. (a) Mydriasis most common. When total, usually associated with massive lesions of the head and brain, which frequently result in death. (b) Miosis associated with deep lesions and often associated with bleeding and general intense contractures and convulsions. (c) Unequal pupils not common.

3. Disturbances of sensibility.

4. Lesions of other cranial nerves.

5. Papillitis. (a) Simple papillitis. (b) Papillary pseudostasis. (c) True papillary stasis.

Souques and **Odier** observed the symptoms which developed in a soldier who had been injured in the occiput by fragments from a shell. After regaining consciousness, the man was totally blind. The blindness gradually diminished and two months later only a hemianopsia remained. Two scotomas were found, one situated in the paramacular field extending into the left macular field as far as the point of fixation. Another scotoma in the right was paramacular, reaching to the edge of the right macular field. The remainder of the field had normal visual acuity. The X-ray showed that the skull had been fractured and fragments entered the right occipital lobe with involvment of the macular portion of the lobe. The authors conclude that the macular area is in the posterior portion of the occipital lobe.

Buckley reports the case of a soldier who received a shrapnel wound which fractured the parietal bone on the left side. The dura was torn and the surface of the brain bruised. A small pul-

sating swelling developed under the operative flap on the twelfth day, which subsided two weeks later. There was a blurring of both optic discs a few days after the operation, and the patient suffered from double vision for seven weeks. The right temporal field of vision was absent.

Abelsdorff reports a case with paracentral bilateral scotoma, occurring after a wound in the region of the occipital protuberance. The patient had normal vision. There also was a hemianopic scotoma of the left field. The small paracentral scotomas were 4° in diameter.

Terrien calls attention to the diagnostic importance of three symptoms occurring in wounds of the skull, which reveal hypertension, diplopia, restriction of the visual field, and choked disc. These conditions subside after lumbar puncture, and if this is not done irreparable damage may result. This explains the transient visual disturbances sometimes observed long after trephining, which occur more frequently when the trephining opening is small. It also emphasizes the necessity for caution in closing gaps in the skull with metal plates or cartilage.

COLOR VISION

Burton Chance, M. D.

PHILADELPHIA

This section covers the literature on the subject from June, 1918, to July, 1919. For previous literature, see volume 1 of the Journal, September, p. 146.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Comparative Color Perception.—**Hess** gives the details of experiments carried out upon various animals in which he used spectral colors, the luminosity of which is sufficiently accurately known to the human eye under different conditions.

In testing vertebrates, by the use of grains of rice on a black surface which he illuminated by the spectrum, he

noticed that monkeys picked up the grains exactly as the human would under various intensities of light and conditions of dark illumination. A hen, and a tortoise gave evidence of shortening of the violet end of the spectrum, which shortening is explained by Hess as due to the absorption of the short waves by the oil globules found in the cones of sauropsids.

Among the fishes those which are guided by their sight in obtaining food seem to have a shortening of the red end. Certain other fish gathered together in the brightest portions of their aquariums and these he found to be affected by the green parts, while man is affected most by the yellow portions of the spectrum; the absorption of light at even moderate depths renders this color of little value to fishes. He concludes that the colors of the spectrum have the same relation luminously to the fish as to the totally color-blind human eye. Those fishes which are guided by their sense of smell do not serve well for these experiments.

The amphioxus, the lowest vertebrate, was excited to motion by light, the motion becoming more lively as the light was increased in brightness. In them the red had no effect, it was the green which caused the greatest excitement, the blue being next. Similar results were obtained in the cephalopods, in which the pupil reaction also corresponded. Hess found the same pupillary reactions in the total color-blind human. Caterpillars, goats and bees all like the brightest of illumination. Bees when tested with blue and red, required the red to be, to our eyes, much brighter before going to it.

He concludes that the nervous substance of the visual organs of the aquatic animal takes into account only the impression of the colorless luminosities. In the vertebrates the specific energies undergo transformation, during the transition into aerial life and the consequent subjection to the influence of a much greater variety of radiations, in virtue of which they bring into consciousness not only the colorless luminosities but also the variegated colors. This does not imply that different energies displace the original ones, because these are known to exist even in total color blindness.

Apparent Distance of Colors.—It is well known that artists speak of "advancing" and "retreating" colors, and that advantage is taken by them of this phenomenon. **Luckiesh** observed that when viewing the projected image of a lantern slide on which were words of various colors, the colors manifestly in the same plane did not appear to be in the same plane. He has endeavored to ascertain the magnitude of the effect and to investigate whether or not the impression was the same for all observers. To the phenomenon the author applies the term "stereoscopic" colors.

The apparatus employed consisted of two wooden boxes, arranged so that one was stationary and the other movable, and each containing a tungsten lamp and equipped with an aperture covered with a diffusing glass. Before the diffusing glass in one box was placed a red filter and an opaque card in which was cut a letter X. The other box was similarly fitted with a blue filter and a card on which was cut the letter E. In a dark room these two colored letters stood out in space and it was possible by moving one or the other to make them appear in the same plane.

In most cases to make both appear in the same vertical plane perpendicular to the line of sight, it was necessary to move the red X farther away than the blue E. The observer was seated at various stations from 2.10 to 7.25 meters from the fixed E. Fairly consistent results were obtained, altho the distance generally increased with the distance of the observer's eyes. The report shows the results of observations on nine individuals, the author being the only one familiar with the apparatus.

The author ascribes the phenomenon to chromatic aberration. In order to obtain the apparent plane, seven of the observers required the X to be behind the E, and two in front of it. When the two letters were placed in the same

plane they did not appear to be so, unless the eyelids were nearly closed. So also when they appeared to be in the same plane, on closing the eyelids they appeared to move into their true positions. Various reactions followed on the placing of artificial pupils before the eyes. Thru these artificial pupils both images seemed to focus at all times, which was not true with the natural pupils. Differences in relative brightness and shape of the colored characters seemed to influence the magnitude of the results. The effect could not be observed with certainty with one eye.

The author could not offer a complete explanation of the phenomenon from the data at hand, but he ventured the hypothesis that it might be due to the different refractive indices of the eye media for radiant energy of different wave lengths. They may cause the displacement of the colored images which give rise to the stereoscopic effect quite in the same manner as in ordinary vision, the differences between individuals depending upon the differences in the shapes and relations of the various parts of the eyes. By the data obtained, it is shown that colors do actually "retire" and "advance" and that in general blue is "retiring" and red is "advancing"—hence the arrangement of the hues in the spectrum is a true index.

Color Perception and Ametropia.—Of much interest in **Collins'** report is his chapter on Color Blindness in Relation to Refraction Errors. Of 1,000 examined, 682 were men, of whom 80 were colored, and 318 were women, of whom 16 were colored. Of the women 2.2% showed color defects, only 0.73% being trichromics, and therefore, considered as being dangerously blind. No female dichromic was found. Of the 682 men, color vision defects were found in 8.6%, 3.1% being dangerously blind, but certain of these presented definite diseased conditions provocative of acquired color blindness. In his final summary, he found the dangerously congenital color blind in 3.1%, none of whom had absolutely normal eyes.

He found color blindness to occur least frequently without demonstrable refraction error, while it was found most frequently in those with mixed astigmia. His subjects were representative of the class of healthy individuals who might present themselves for employment in occupations requiring good color vision.

In the 12.3% presumed to be healthy emmetropes, 4.8% were defective, 1.6% being dangerously so. In hyperopes, 6.8%; Myopes, 4.8%, and in mixed astigmia, 10%. He concludes, therefore, that in general, persons with normal eyes are less often color blind than those with errors of refraction.

In detail his estimates were as follows: Simple hyperopia, 11.9%; 5.1% color blind, 1.7% dangerously so. Compound H. astigmia, 52.3%; 6.95% color-blind; 1.95% dangerously. Simple hyperopic astigmia, 10.1%; 8% color blind, divided equally among the insignificant and the dangerous.

Simple myopia was rare, only 2.2%; 4.5% color-blind and dangerous. Simple myopic astigmia, color-blindness existed in a dangerous degree in 7.1%. Compound myopic astigmia, 4.8%; 4% color blind, but none dangerously so.

Color blindness in a dangerous degree he found common among those with simple myopia or simple astigmia. Mixed astigmia, 5%; 10% color-blind, but all harmlessly so. Presbyopia, 47.9%; color-blind, dangerously, 2.9%, harmlessly 7.1%. A high degree, he holds, exists in the elderly, even when we exclude the likelihood of the yellow tingeing of the media.

Persons with 20/20 or better, in one of their eyes equalled 59.2%; those who could not make 20/20 with either eye, 40.8%. Of each class 6.6% were color-blind, 50% of those with the better visual acuteness were dangerously defective.

He believes the changes associated with myopia bear no relation to color-blindness. It is of interest to note that of eight persons with disseminated choroiditis, seven passed the color tests satisfactorily. He does not regard cataract as affecting color vision except

when far advanced, neither does he find any relationship between optic nerve congestion and color blindness.

Comparison of Color Tests.—Collins used the Holmgren and the Jennings wool-tests, and the Williams and the Edridge-Green lanterns. He offers the following objections to the Holmgren test:

1. The impossibility of obtaining uniformity in color, and the fading and soiling of the yarns.

2. It is possible for a defective person to be taught how to avoid his mistakes.

3. Because it is based upon the Young-Helmholtz theory of the existence of three sets of color perceiving elements in the retina which, when stimulated, give rise to red, green and violet, and from combinations of these, the formation of other colors, the test is therefore erroneous.

The Jennings apparatus is a modification of the Holmgren test; it admits of selfrecording, moreover, it is easily handled, the skeins are not readily soiled, and the test is speedy. In addition, because of the small size of the worsted, the test can more accurately estimate the macular region.

Comparing the results obtained with the Jennings and those obtained with the Holmgren test, both detected the markedly color-blind dichromic, and both failed to detect individuals with shortening of the red end of the spectrum. In examining 50 individuals, believed by the Holmgren test to be not blind, 32 made an average of 2.5 errors to the individual with the Jennings test, and, out of 48 normal persons, only 15 made no mistakes at all with the Jennings test. This test, too, repeats the Young-Helmholtz theory and it does not permit of a classification of different degrees of color-blindness.

In Collins' hands, the test results were too confusing to permit definite diagnostic interpretation nor were they final in determining accurately and definitely the presence of dangerous color-blindness; indeed, the results were so contradictory as to make it impossible for him to decide whether a person could be considered fit for passing.

In conclusion, he regards the Jennings test as quite inferior to the lantern tests; and the results more confusing, more irregular, and more difficult of interpretation than those of the Holmgren test. He does not regard the Jennings test as adapted for the testing of sailors and trainmen, as it is difficult if not impossible to lay down rules to decide by its use when to accept or reject the examinee. To rely upon it is dangerous. He advises that it should not be used for the examination of military aviators and others liable to detail in signal work.

Collins regards the testing lanterns as of greater value than the wool skeins. He objects, however, to certain of them that display two or more lights, which, by comparison of the lights shown, help the examinee. In practical service the seaman or railwayman observes a single light at a time. He prefers the Edridge-Green lamp which he used in his series of 1,000. By careful attention to recording the series of the various tests, uniformity can be obtained under exactly the same conditions; because the lights are always the same and do not fade, or have the defects of the wool tests.

Nagel's tests for color vision were introduced for use in the German marine in 1905, thus setting aside the Holmgren and the Stilling tests, which were considered to be complicated. Since that time these tests have been used exclusively, yet upon examination they have been found to be more and more insufficient. Nagel himself finally realized this insufficiency and, because of criticism arising in doubtful cases, consented to supplement his work with the Stilling test, constructing, for more careful testing, his anomaloscope, the description of which with the method of using it constitutes the paper of **Verry-Westphal.**

Nevertheless, Stargardt's and **Oloff's** statistics of their examinations in the Kaiser Marine, proved that the number of doubtful cases, especialy those exhibiting trichromatic anomalies were

even higher than Nagel's percentages. A great deal of harm had resulted from the admission into the service of many who were color-blind but who had been passed by Nagel's test. Based upon the results of these tests, Stilling's newer tables were introduced in 1912; and in the Marine hospitals new statistics were compiled. Stilling's test, being more reliable, again replaced that of Nagel and was also used successfully by Köllner in the testing of railway employees. As a result, a new test combining the older tests, (Nagel, Stilling and Cohn) has been instituted for use in the army by the Marine Surgeon General, Podesta, and called the Podesta test, which thus far has proved to be a satisfactory advance over former individual methods.

Observations by **Liebermann** and **Mark** upon the reaction of the green-blind eye to the intensity of color rays, similar to those instituted by Brodhun, showed that the vision of the green-blind is more powerful than the normal eye in the refrangible part of the spectrum (about 520$\mu\mu$), but most powerful in the vicinity of the neutral point or center. The authors compared a red-green blind eye and a color-functioning eye by the Helmholtz color-mixing apparatus; and, by the method of computing the mean failures and the very marked differences, arrived at the conclusion that in no case does the protanope arrive at a sureness of the color seen. The performance of the protanope is always inferior to that of one who sees three colors. A like comparison with purple colors gave the same result.

Best described his Color Disc Test or Adaptometer, in 1917, as used with the short wave (blue) light. Two tests are necessary. Experiments with the dark adaptation of the eye are needed because the blue colors are free from long waves. A similar test is made at a subsequent time with the red rays. By these tests separation of the curves of adaptation in the red, or the "red-free" light is brought about by variation of the reaction of the eye in each part of the spectrum. In experimenting with pigment colors on color-blind eyes, he recommends the colored wool test put out by Elberfeld Color Works, as being the most reliable with regard to their chemical composition. If the wrong colors are chosen by one who is color blind, he is given an embroidered pattern, after the methods of the Stilling plates, and the ophthalmologist can draw his own conclusions.

The simple congenital blue-yellow anomaly is not very uncommon, but a person who shows both red-green and blue-yellow is so rare that **Ishihara** ventures to report two cases, which he believes can be explained by the theory of Schenk.

Oguchi examined the color sense of three persons with various test cards, but mostly with the Japanese test, and found that there was a transition type between Protonopia and Deuteronopia.

Collins' studies in the examination of the color vision of one thousand persons was undertaken to determine the utility of the tests largely employed in this country to detect color blindness. Grouping all into classes depending upon the ability of the subjects to recognize the various colors of the spectrum from the hexachromic, the six unit, to the dichromatic, those who are able to detect only two colors. He was able to classify all as those but slightly blind, and those who are dangerously color-blind. The individuals in each case were not exactly alike, altho their mistakes varied only in degree. He regards the pentachromic and the tetrachromic, the four and five unit, as the normal sighted, the color-blind being about 3.5% of the population.

Collins would not accept for positions as signalmen on ships or as trainmen those who are able to see but three or less colors in the spectrum; those who see more than three colors in the spectrum but who have the red so shortened as to prevent the recognition of a red light at a distance of two miles; and those with a central scotoma for red and green.

In commenting upon Collins' report, the Journal of the American Medical Association remarks that as our nation is learning a lesson of appreciation of the finer distinctions and gradations of

efficiency and usefulness in men and means, as well as conservation in matters physiologic, psychic and economic; and, as today is popularly regarded as the dawn of a new age, the Age of Reconstruction, a recasting of standards must be made and the blind pride of superiority be dispelled, by a greater wisdom in the estimation of the imperfections and inadequacies of men, whose native talents and aptitudes have fitted them for the performance of their duties and employment, despite their special or particular weaknesses. In the emergencies of warfare in the past five years the codes of the various services with their unrelenting exclusions and rejections became greatly modified whereby weaknesses were made acceptable and training adapted to abilities. The lessons learned there must not be allowed to go unapplied to the needs of an era of peace.

Color-blindness, therefore, should be submitted to more accurate and discriminative tests than heretofore pursued. Let it not be understood by what is here advocated that it is intended that dangerously defective individuals should be placed in positions requiring accurate color perception, whose service could not be other than a menace to safety to travel by land or sea, or in the air. On the contrary the contention here presented is that there are many grades of color-blindness, some of which are dangerous and some harmless. The victims of the lesser defects can be fitted into some other branch of the service, or, in the case of civilians, they are perfectly fitted for many positions where the same exactness of distinction is not required.

Von Kries writes on Ostwald's color primer, from the standpoint of physiology. **Ostwald** has undertaken to arrange all unlike appearing body colors in a systematic and orderly manner. There seems now to be three primary considerations. The superficial nature of the body, which throws back only a part of the light directed onto it, must be considered. The nature of the light used must be considered. And finally the perception of the colors is not entirely independent of the condition of the perceiving eye.

It is sufficient for the ordinary procedure, to have good daylight. The eye adapts itself to twilight, and a slight difference in the quality of the light used does not seem to affect the perception of the colors tested. A procedure for certain and simple denominations of those colors which are most liked, a number of the most certain standard colors (red-green-blue mixtures) is considered, but it would be confusing to add all body colors. It would be more exact to test certain groups of colors together. The Newton chart has this advantage, that because of certain color mixtures which it contains, any degree of intensity of brightness or dullness can be obtained.

Mendal, from his personal experience in the use of Stilling's plates, regarded them as the most exact of the color-test objects, and recommended that they be used by all who are engaged in the examination of the color vision of military applicants. A new edition of this well-known test has been prepared by **Weill,** at the expressed desire of Stilling, now deceased, because of their long association and labors in this interesting subject. The publishers have most excellently printed it, despite the great difficulties connected with the production of colored plates.

Analysis of Color Vision. — **Baumann** has continued his attempts to meet Fechner's inquiry, made in 1838, concerning the phenomena of the production of the subjective appearance of spectral colors when black and white are appropriately used. Fechner desired to know why no one had ever tried to decompose a play of spectral colors so that only black and white should appear. Baumann has prepared a series of disks exhibiting the spectral colors, arranged with one half solid and the other marked by incomplete and more or less concentric curved lines of unequal lengths, widths, angularity and degrees relative to each other. While in theory the phenomena ought to appear, he found that the objective stimulation of the retina was too great for the subjective appreciation of the

rays; and further, that the results were greatly affected by the ocular condition of the observer, whether he was emmetropic or otherwise; whether the disks were rotated to the right or left, as well as by the velocity of the rotation, the sizes of the disks and the distance at which the observer placed himself from the apparatus.

Unilateral Color-Blindness.—**Shiosi** reports a case of unilateral congenital absence of color sense. The man had color vision in the left eye, but the right eye had a weak sense of color perception, for which the different examinations were made, especially with Nagel's anomaloscope and the pseudochromatic plate.

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

THE EYEBALL

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This section carries the literature from June, 1918, to July, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., September, 1918, p. 151. Related topics are treated in the sections on the Uveal Tract and on the Orbit.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Anophtalmos.—**Rosenbaum** relates a case of this deformity in which a most careful examination of the orbit failed to detect any vestige of eyeball. The child was a full term well developed male, and his appearance suggested sleep. Both lids were depressed back and sunken, as after enucleation. There was a good conjunctival sac, and the lids, lashes, canaliculi and tear passages were normal. The child died on the third day following convulsions.

A history of consanguinity was found among the parents, whose first child had a bilateral rotary nystagmus, convergent strabismus and hypermetropia of 5 diopters. Unfortunately in this, as in other cases of the same deformity, no autopsy was made, and the objection of Zehender (See O. Y. B. page 151, 1918) holds good.

Cryptophthalmos.—**Sinclair** reports the case of a boy, 21 months old, in whom the skin on the right side passed unbroken from forehead to cheek, showing no traces of eyebrows, eyelashes or palpebral fissure. Over the eyeball, which can be felt moving with every motion of its fellow, the skin was vascular and red. The left eye was normal. No other malformation. Parents were healthy, and close relatives.

In the discussion of the case Mayou showed, in slides, why the conjunctiva develops into skin without eyelashes in cryptophthalmos. If the lids do not develop, this is due to the fact that the horizontal folds which normally are produced in the embryonal lids at the margin are not formed, and for this reason also, there are no eyelashes.

The eyelids are united with each other till about the sixth month of fetal life, and the epithelium which lines the inner surface remains as a single layer, until separation of the lids takes place, when thickening of the conjunctival epithelium occurs. This law holds good also in animals. In support of this theory is the fact that in cases of notches of the eyelid in which apposition is defective during fetal life, dermoid patches are often found upon the conjunctiva.

Snowball and Elliot in discussion each mentioned a case of unilateral cryptophthalmos and Collins described another case in a chick. Microscopic sections showed that the uveal tract was well developed, the cornea much thickened, the anterior part composed of loose connective tissue and the posterior part made of fibrous layers, like the normal cornea. It projected backward and there was no anterior chamber. The lens was rather small.

Stargardt reports a case in which the right eye apparently was not present, but in its place there were two bullet-like bodies which protruded from the orbit and were covered with skin. The forward one was about as large as a pigeon's egg, and was soft; the posterior was hard and about the size of a hazel nut. They were held together by a thin pedicle. The posterior one was connected with the conjunctiva in the middle of the sac, at its posterior wall. No semblance of an eye could be found. The structures filled the orbital cavity so completely that at the most there was room only for an eye the size of a berry. The conjunctiva was slightly inflamed and red, and the skin covering the tumor-like masses, at the place where it came into contact with the lids, was rather macerated. The lids, lacrimal duct, and surrounding structures were normal, and, with

the exception of the eye, the child was perfectly normal.

The masses were removed and at that time no eyeball could be found. Microscopic examination showed that the structures were lipodermoids.

Nine months after the removal of the tumors a nodule about the size of a berry could be felt in the orbit. It was removed. No muscles were found attached to the nodule. Upon microscopic examination, the mass was found to be a very simple microphthalmos, with retina, choroid, and sclera intact. In place of the iris there was a band of connective tissue with a hole corresponding to the pupil. The ciliary muscle was recognizable.

Meisner saw a case of microphthalmus of moderate degree, in a girl two years old, who had no other apparent congenital defects. In the cornea could be seen an arcus embryonalis and a central defect of Descemet's membrane which was adherent to the central part of the cornea. The lens was cataractous and in several separate pieces, the principal parts were about in normal position; these parts were inclosed in connective tissue containing vessels of the character of the iris stroma. The retina was of a typical structure, did not adhere to the pigment epithelium, contained only a few ganglion cells and no nerve fibres. The optic nerve was composed of glia cells and fibres. There were no signs of inflammation. The eye was enucleated because of glaucoma. The author concludes that the eye disturbance must have begun in the fifth week of fetal life.

Rahnenführer saw three cases of microphthalmos in which enucleation was performed in later life on account of glaucoma.

After reviewing the literature he gives his idea of the general conclusions by different authors to be as follows: 1. The form of the eyeball is generally that of a well formed emmetropic or hypermetropic eye. 2. The connective tissue in the sclera is thickened. 3. The curvature of the cornea is somewhat lessened as compared with that of the normal cornea, 7.5 mm.

In the author's first case the choroid was pigmented. In the macula a fovea could hardly be recognized. In its place the retina was thickened in all its layers. The anterior chamber must have been obliterated long before the enucleation of the eyeball, because the iris was firmly adherent to the cornea. The blood supply of the choroid was poor, due to the tension of the eyeball.

In the second eye the pathologic appearances were: A deep excavation, stretching of the sclerotomy scar with suction of the iris into the hole, obliteration of the anterior chamber, and a singular form of keratitis. The lens was swollen and a beginning Morgagnian cataract was present.

In the third case the unaffected eye had a high grade of hyperopia which, even with correction, gave imperfect vision, and seemed to be clinically normal. The most remarkable feature of the affected eye was the entire absence of the fovea. There was a slight depression present, but the normal thinning of the layers was entirely absent. Defective vision in the normal eye was probably due to a similar defect. In the affected eye there was hernia of the lens or phacocele. The hernia was about 1 mm. broad and extended thru the sclera.

Uhthoff demonstrated a case of a two year child with a lid cyst and a microphthalmic eye. The cyst was intact and nearly the size of a walnut. The wall of the cyst extended from the margin of the lids directly to the sclera. A round cataractous lens nearly filled the entire inside of the bulb; the lens capsule appeared to be like epithelium. The cyst did not communicate directly with the vitreous chamber, but with a subretinal space between the inner and outer layer of the retina. A small mesodermal cone protruded thru the slit into the eyeball. The walls of the cyst were simple connective tissue, only in one place was there a typical gliomatous proliferation on the inner surface of the cyst.

The second case was that of a two-months' old child with bilateral lid cyst and microphthalmus. One cyst was about the size of a hazel nut, and

had a gliomatous proliferation for a filling, and was attached to the under lid. The other cyst was filled with serum and was much larger.

The third case was an eight-year-old boy, in whom the cyst had been removed, but had not remained connected with the rudimentary eye. The closed cyst had two chambers, the outer one of connective tissue and the inner one of rudimentary retina and a typical gliomatous proliferation of retinal elements.

He also showed the eye of a pig with microphthalmos and a lid cyst, in which the fetal eye fissure was wide open and a multichambered cyst on the lower lid. The cysts were partly covered on their inner surface with retina, and partly with gliomatous tissue.

Melanosis.—**Bourquin,** in a long and very complete article discusses congenital melanosis of the eye. He concludes:

1. The congenital, rarely hereditary melanosis of the eyes of the white race, usually affects only one eye, the normal function of which is not compromised.

2. The following forms occur: (a) Partial pigmentation of the sclera. (b) Melanotic pigmented iris with insignificant structure of the outer surface, which often shows wartlike prominences. (c) Diffuse dark-black fundus.

3. There are also the following related conditions: (a) Misplaced pigment in the papilla. (b) Blotches in the conjunctiva. (c) Coloring of the skin of the lid.

4. The intervening media, and also the nerve layer of the retina are spared.

5. It usually affects individuals with brunette skin and dark hair.

6. They rarely undergo sarcomatous degeneration.

Traumatic Panophthalmitis.—**Greenspon** reports two cases of panophthalmitis following cataract operations, in both of which the pathogenic agent was the *Bacillus subtilis.* Before the operation the flora of the conjunctiva consisted of staphylococcus albus, nonhemolytic and nonproteotyptic, and a diphtheroid bacillus with the fermentative reactions of Bacillus Xerosis. In each case, 24 hours after the extraction, there was set up a tremendous suppurative condition of the whole eye and lids, which subsided in five or six days ending in cicatrization with phthisis bulbi.

The pus from the eyes was examined in direct smears and transfers made to Loeffler blood serum. The organisms recovered were a pure culture of Bacillus subtilis. The source of the infection was traced to the saline solution used for irrigation before the operations. Samples of this liquid put in broth extract, gave after 24 hours incubation, an organism identical with that found in the eyes. Cultures made with the washing of the funnel and rubber tubing gave the same results. To determine the pathogenicity of this bacillus the author made experiments in rabbits, using a 24 hours culture, some drops being introduced into the anterior chamber with a sterile syringe after evacuation of the aqueous. In 24 hours there was produced a tremendous suppuration of the eye. Subcutaneous injections of the culture were negative, and intravenous injections produced only a brief malaise without eye lesions.

Other experiments were performed with the purpose of comparing different races of Bacillus subtilis. One introduced in the anterior chamber produced no untoward effects beyond a slight opacity; another strain freshly isolated from hay-infusion was incapable of producing pathogenic effects introduced in the anterior chamber, while the original pathogenic organism even after eight generations, was capable of inducing a panophthalmitis as severe as the first.

It would seem therefore that this pathogenicity for the eye is elective and an attribute only of certain races of B. subtilis. Stregulina thinks that those which come from the soil can be pathogenic. Of 25 samples inoculated into guinea pigs, 16 were pathogenic and 3 of them produced suppuration of the eye.

Jickeli reports a case of traumatic endophthalmitis due to injury of the left eyebrow which was followed by a

marked ecchymosis. Several days after the injury he could open his eye, and it was noticed that it was smaller, and that he saw double. The left eye was retracted 4 mm. The movements were free. No diplopia when looking straight forward, but present upon looking to right and left, or up and down. There was a retrobulbar hemorrhage and motor nerve paralysis.

Metastatic Panophthalmitis. — **Coriat** and **Boulai** contribute the report of a case of metastatic panophthalmitis following a war injury. The patient was wounded in the sacro-iliac region by a piece of shell which remained in site for two and a half months seemingly well tolerated. Extraction was made under general anesthesia thru a large incision with removal of some bone. Two weeks afterwards temperature rose suddenly and the majority of the joints were involved. Symtoms of acute myocarditis appeared and the left eye became infected. Later a great amount of pus was evacuated from the wound, which became edematous, foul and mortified at places. The right eye was involved and typical panophthalmitis ensued, ending in perforation in both eyes. The patient died 14 days afterwards. No bacteriologic examinations were made.

The authors point to the rapidity of the general infection after the eyes became involved; panophthalmitis seems to be a trustful sign of the defeat of the organism in its struggle against pyogenic bacteria derived from the infected wound.

V. Szily in his "Atlas on War Injuries" devotes a chapter to metastatic ophthalmitis following wounds of other regions, and describes four cases of this rare condition. In the first a rifle bullet entered behind the right ear, penetrated the mouth and destroyed the superior maxilla, not injuring the eye directly or indirectly. One month afterwards the right eye became infected and later the left; severe panophthalmitis was produced and the patient died. Pneumococci were recovered from the eye.

In the second case injuries of the neck by shell-casing were followed by unilateral panophthalmitis, from which streptococci were obtained. The third case was a wound of the thigh, by a piece of shell in which gas gangrene ensued. Amputation was followed by pyemia. Panophthalmitis developed in one eye. The patient died. Staphylococci were found in the eye structures.

In the last case panophthalmitis followed a wound by artillery shot in the leg. Only one eye was infected. The patient died.

V. Szily thinks that in the first three cases the eyes were infected thru the retinal vessels, and the last by way of the ciliary and the iris vessels.

Löwenstein had a case of metastatic iridochoroiditis after "Spanish influenza." A pure culture of streptococcus was found. The patient was 36 years old, had lues at 18 years of age, and was treated four weeks with inunctions. Wassermann positive. The eyeball was enucleated and in section were seen Gram positive streptococci in very long chains.

Mansilla reports a case of metastatic ophthalmitis in a man who had diabetes. The patient developed a boil on the arm and a carbuncle on the neck. They were opened and two weeks later the eye became painful and the cornea cloudy, and in a week a panophthalmitis was present. Operation was not permitted, and the eye condition progressed until on the eleventh day it ruptured, discharging a large quantity of pus. The patient died six days later from diabetic coma. The author mentions finding streptococci in the pus, and associates the lesion on the back of the neck, which he called anthrax, with that of the eye; but does not clearly state that the anthrax bacillus was found in the pus from the eye.

In panophthalmitis following medical infections those found after epidemic cerebro-spinal meningitis are of frequent occurrence. **Haden** thinks that the common belief of its being generally a mild process, is inaccurate. The percentage of endophthalmitis is from four to five, and usually unilateral.

In the Boston epidemic of 1908, according to Dr. Greenwood, the cases were extremely severe and most patients died. The author describes a case in a boy 17 years old, in whom the attack was unusually severe, the body being covered with hemorrhagic spots. At the fourth day the cornea was hazy, iris sluggish and a white mass could be seen behind the lens. The other eye was normal.

Intraspinal injections of serum failed to relieve the eye condition, which, on the contrary, improved a great deal by intravenous injections. On this ground Haden believes that the latter must be made as soon as the first signs of eye involvment appear, and thus the process might be stopped. He advocates also the use of the same injections as a preventive measure in severe cases, accompanied by numerous hemorrhages in the skin.

Wegeforth has been able to produce experimental panophthalmitis in cats, by inoculation of the blood stream with *Bacillus lactis aerogenes* and puncture of the anterior chamber to withdraw the aqueous humor, a few minutes afterward. This result is similar to that obtained by the withdrawal of cerebrospinal fluid during experimental septicemia with the same Bacillus, which resulted inevitably in the production of a typical meningitis.

The close anatomic and physiologic analogies which exist between the circulation of the fluids in the brain and the eye, and many common pathologic lesions of the two systems, as indicated by the frequency of panophthalmitis in cerebro-spinal meningitis, suggested to the author that similar methods of producing infections may be used with advantage. The cause of the localization of the infection, therefore, may be attributed to changes in tissue permeability resulting from lowering of the tension of the eye.

Another case of panophthalmitis (bilateral) occurred during experimental attempts to produce meningitis by congestion of the cerebral veins (compression of jugulars) during a septicemia.

Fernando Aparicio reported a case of ophthalmitis in a woman. Four years ago she had a corneal ulcer in the right eye with a lowering of vision. In December, 1917, the reported condition began, following a cold, at which time there was noticed a swelling of the right eye and face. When first seen, the face and head were painful, the right anterior chamber was full of pus, and the cornea turbid. There was considerable limitation of movement of the eye. The author believes that the condition might have been due to endocarditis or to pneumococci.

Focal Infection.—**Ganz** saw two cases of inflammation of the eye which cleared up after removal of infected tonsils; one was in a young woman, age 32 years, who had retinitis with hemorrhages and reduced vision in the left eye. The vision improved after the tonsils were removed. The second case occurred in a girl of 13 years, who had complained of visual disturbances for 3 years. The vision in the right eye was normal, in the left 1/12. A month after the tonsils were removed the vision of the left eye increased to 6/15, and in a year was 6/8.

Evisceration. — **Lister** advocates evisceration in the treatment of panophthalmitis, because this operation not only avoids the well rooted objection of many patients to total removal of the eyeball, but also on account of the danger of meningitis following enucleation, of which he relates a case which ended in death of the patient. To avoid the pain which generally comes after evisceration, and which, in Lister's opinion, is due to the compression of the ciliary nerves, he advocates the removal of the whole ciliary region, transfixing the sclera far enough back to insure this result. This larger excision has also the advantage of better exposing the inside part of the eyeball and facilitates the complete removal of the retina and uveal tissue, which, when left behind, are a frequent source of sympathetic ophthalmia.

Poulard advocates also a larger aperture, which will allow the operator to see what he is doing, instead of working blindly with the curette in a black cavity, full of blood. If in the majority

of cases of ordinary evisceration after a rigid scooping has been made, two lateral apertures are practised, one each side of the scleral opening, the surgeon will be certainly surprised to see the great amount of uveal tissue left behind.

He advises: 1st, a larger aperture of the globe; 2nd, to scoop the contents slowly, controlling the hemorrhage at the same time; 3rd, to inspect the cavity under a good illumination, not inserting the sutures until a uniform, white inner surface has been obtained.

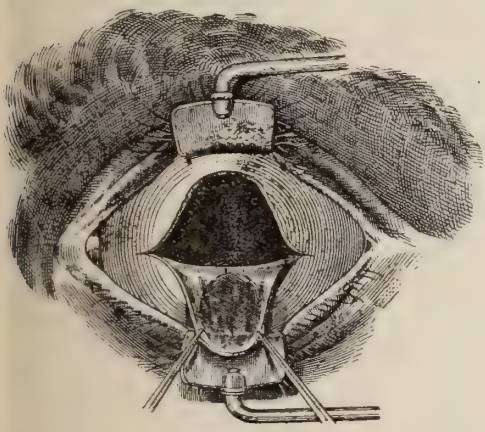


Fig. 1. Method of opening the eyeball for evisceration. (Poulard.) The flap shown is to be turned back and sutured in position.

The incision is made (See Fig. 1) around the limbus in the upper part, but in the lower, an horizontal flap is formed, including the cornea, which is lowered and kept in position by a sharp hook while other forceps or a special speculum, similar to Mueller's for excision of the lacrimal gland, keeps the aperture opened. When the cavity is emptied the flap is sutured back in place, preserving the whole sclero-corneal coat, which can be used also for insertion of glass of gold spheres.

McCassy describes with the name of "evisceration" what is really an amputation of the anterior segment of the eye. He advocates complete removal of the ciliary body by making the scleral incision far back in the eyeball, but leaves behind all vitreous retina and choroid, and three-fourths of the sclera. This membrane is not sutured, the conjunctiva only being slid and stitched to cover the vitreous. Altho the support for the vitreous is very slendor and there is a possibility of infection by tearing of the conjunctiva, and exposing the eye contents, the author has not met any drawbacks and he describes good results in eight cases. A similar operation was advocated by the French ophthalmologist, Panas, many years ago.

Pardo having found in his practice with war injuries, some cases of sympathetic ophthalmia after ordinary evisceration, advocates as a new method the resection of the optic nerve with a circular piece of sclera around, but instead of eviscerating the eye, (as Hall and Huizinga did since 1908, and afterward Huizinga with the name of eviscero-neurotomy) he cuts the internal, superior and inferior rectii between two sutures; with curved scissors severs the optic nerve from the inner side, and grasping the cut end of the nerve near the sclera, turns the globe upside down. With a Beers' knife he transfixes the sclera about 5 mm. distance from the nerve, and makes a flap which is completed all around with scissors. Thru the aperture left by removal of this scleral-nerve flap, he scrapes out the whole contents of the eyeball until only the sclera and cornea remain. After irrigation with sublimat solution the eyeball is put back in position, the muscles sutured together, and the conjunctiva closed by a purse string suture or by separate points. The eyeball fills with blood and makes a good stump.

Torres Estrada advocates also a similar method, the only difference being that he cuts the external rectus alone between two sutures, penetrates with curved scissors behind the globe, severing the optic nerve, and then grasping the scleral tip of the nerve, turns the globe inside out. For thoroly removing the inner membranes he recommends to invert upon the tip of the surgeon's index, like a glove finger, the whole corneo-scleral coat, using even scissors to snap old organized exudates. If purulent exudates are found, it is better to excise the cornea and

drain the eyeball for a few days. In contrast with Pardo, he uses a fat implant to fill the eyeball, before replacing it in the orbit.

He has done ten operations by this method and is not satisfied with the result. The mobility of the stump is not perfect, motions being limited probably by the destruction of the serous cavity, which is Tenon's capsule, and also by adhesions between the implant and the orbital tissues.

In the discussion Dr. F. Lopez pointed out that Torres Estrada's method was similar to Huizinga's, altho the latter used a fenestrated metal sphere to fill the globe. Nicati, in 1903, described a method which he called "subenucleation" in which the posterior pole of the eye was excised thru a wound made in the sclera in the level of the cut internal rectus; but he made no implant. The result of these methods has been discouraging, because of the danger of sympathetic ophthalmia and of necrosis of the cornea, which sometimes ensue: moreover, this membrance not being well adapted to the contact and rubbing which the artificial eye always produces, readily infects and ulcerates.

Resection of the Anterior Segment of the Eye.—**Duverger** recommends this resection as an immediate method of treatment in war injuries, especially in cases of bullet or shell wounds in which the anterior segment is the only part damaged. In 150 penetrating injuries he has made the resection 25 times, compared with 10 enucleations and 7 eviscerations. All his cases were operated within 48 hours of the injury. Local anesthesia is sufficient. The scleral section should be not less than half a centimeter behind the limbus. The sclera is sutured with fine catgut and the conjunctiva with silk.

Contraindications of this method are: General infection of the eyeball, very extensive laceration of the coats and the presence of a foreign body which cannot be removed.

Hanssen gives reports on 24 cases of stump formation after enucleation, by his method of bone transplantation. He discusses other methods and compares them with his own. He has also practiced fat transplantation, but finds that in the course of six months the prothesis shrinks. The bone is taken from the head of the fibula as a rule, but in cases of necessity it was taken from other bones. In one case it was taken from the ulna at the elbow.

He gives the advantages or indications for this operation as being: 1. The wide experience of general surgery in the transplantation of bone. 2. The fact that the prothesis does not shrink and can be made to compare favorably with a control.

Liebermann uses the Löwenstein method of local anesthesia for enucleation with one modification. He injects the anesthetic thru the skin, instead of the conjunctiva. He believes that in cases where there is a large tumor mass, or where the conjunctiva is infected, the danger of carrying some of the infection back of the eyeball with the needle is eliminated.

The puncture is made a little below the outer canthus with a needle 4 cm. long, which is inserted to its head. It should enter as near the orbital margin as possible. By having the puncture below the canthus the external canthal ligament is avoided; care should be taken not to let the needle enter the conjunctival sac. He uses 2 ccm. of the novocain-adrenalin solution (2%). In children the needle should be inserted only 2½ or 3 cm.

Enucleation. — **Weigelin** is convinced that any of the "fanciful" formation of stumps by such methods as grafting of cartilage, etc., as well as evisceration, are not advisable in war injuries. In his experience in the Tübingen war hospital he has seen these stumps give considerable trouble, and has been obliged to remove them. Moreover, even when successful, a longer stay in the hospital is necessary and its ultimate cosmetic results are not superior to that of ordinary enucleation. He describes one case in which sympathetic ophthalmia followed evisceration; the enucleated stump containing a considerable amount of uveal

tissue, and strongly advocates the simpler and safer enucleation.

Implantation.—Fat implantation has been the subject of many papers this year. **Alling,** in a symposium upon Substitute Operations for Excision of the Eyeball, in the New York Academy of Medicine, strongly recommends Barraquer's method. He no longer sutures the muscles upon the implant, and his results have been just as good in the mobility of the stump. To avoid the sutures of the conjunctiva giving way and leaving a small area of fat exposed, and to relieve the tension, he places a few supporting sutures across the wound.

The results show that the fat is almost invariably retained without degeneration; that it certainly does shrink, but never more than one-half its original size, a sufficiently large stump remaining to avoid the sunken artificial eye. The motility is perfect.

Roche is also convinced of the advantages of fat implantation, which he calls "Sourdille's operation," and describes in detail the technic to be used in order to make the whole operation without any assistant. He uses only local anesthesia for the eye and the gluteal region, commencing in the latter with two injections of cocain, ½ per cent, made in two points, 7 or 8 centimeters apart, on a vertical line in the apex of the buttock, of the same side as the eye to be enucleated. These two points have been previously painted with iodin tincture. Anesthesia is produced with two or three subconjunctival injections of ½ per cent cocain solution, and the second injection deep, introducing the needle its whole length thru the conjunctiva parallel to the external wall of the orbit and injecting 1.5 or 2 c. c. of the same cocain solution. A similar injection is made near the internal wall of the orbit.

Excision of the graft is done from the gluteal region (which in the meantime has become anesthetic) keeping it wrapped in sterile gauze. Suture of the skin.

Enucleation is performed without any suture of the muscles either to the conjunctiva or before the implant, which is simply placed and kept in position by a purse string suture and vertical separated stitches. He thinks (as does Alling) that there is no advantage in suturing the muscles, which do not retract much, being adherent to the conjunctiva by the muscular sheaths and ailerons.

Franke prefers Hanssen's method of enclosing the head of the metatarsus, or metacarpal bone in the orbit after enucleation in order to improve the stump. He believes this method has an immense advantage over the method of Smith in that it uses a fresh graft. He has found Smith's operation to give equally good cosmetic results.

Franke has used material for the stump which had been laid in a Ringer's solution, and which seemed to fulfill the purposes just as well as the fresh. The difficulty of obtaining fresh material when needed is obvious, and the author overcomes this by having the material saved by surgeons when they operate on bones. The material is placed in Ringer's solution. This way of preparing the material allows the surgeon to have on hand material for operation, but when fresh material can be obtained it is preferable. The healing after the transplantation follows quickly and the cosmetic result is good.

Franke takes three rather deep vertical stitches in the conjunctiva and the tissue lying below it, when doing the operation, to prevent the formation of a hole in the orbit, which is very objectionable. He has allowed the material to lie in the solution as long as six weeks.

Torres Estrada, after performing an eviscero-neurotomy, implants the fat into the sclero-corneal cavity and restores the globe in position. Velez prefers the old Barraquer operation, which he has practiced in more than twenty cases, with only two cases of infection and suppuration of the fat.

Lapersonne approves of the grafting of cartilage into the scleral cavity after excision of the anterior segment, and scraping of the contents as practised by **Duverger.** Reaction is moderate, and

there is no pain. The artificial eye is freely movable, and in one patient, eleven months after the operation, the stump has kept its size and mobility.

Sweet, at the same symposium already referred to, presented an interesting paper on implantation of *metal balls* in Tenon's capsule. His statistics are remarkably good, and certainly will contribute to the revival of interest in this operation, which has been losing ground of late years.

Since 1904 he has employed the Frost-Lang method in 146 cases and has had only four cases in which the metal ball extruded. In 1910 he reported 48 cases of implantation with the loss of two balls from infection or cutting out the central sutures. Of the 98 cases operated since 1910, one ball was lost from infection in a patient with sloughing ulcer of the cornea, and the other in a case of shrunken, tender eyeball in a child.

In no instance during the past six years has the ball been extruded, and he claims that "this result is no longer expected."

Its advantages over other forms of implants are: (1) the larger mobility which the stump gives to the artificial eye. (2) The less marked depression beneath the brow and the avoidance of sinking of the shell. (3) After healing the floor of the orbit is flat, with occasionally a slightly raised portion in the center, due to the projection of the ball.

The method, however, does not give satisfaction with atrophic stumps because the tissues are shrunken.

Sweet's technic calls for the suture of the four recti muscles to the conjunctiva, in the normal position or brought forward to the edges of the cut conjunctiva. The method of tying the four recti over the ball appears to favor its displacement, probably from contraction of the tissue. He uses the 14 mm. gold ball for adults, since the ball is not intended to be a substitute for the eyeball, but act as a bed upon which the prothesis may rest, and gives a support for the action of the four recti. He has tried the platinum balls, but they are not necessary, as an X-ray picture in a case in which a gold ball had been in the orbit for 12 years, failed to show any erosion of the metal.

The sutures are made first in Tenon's capsule about 1 or 2 mm. from the edge, in the center and both sides, leaving one end uncut. An assistant grasps the central and one of the peripheral sutures, raises the edges of the cut capsule, and the operator brings the edges together by interrupted sutures. The other portion of the capsule is sewed in the same way. About eight or ten sutures are necessary. The conjunctival edges are brought together in a horizontal direction. This method, however, does not give satisfaction with atrophic stumps because the tissues are shrunken.

Use of a glass sphere after enucleation, according to Verhoeff's method, is strongly advocated by **Howard.** About a year ago, Verhoeff abandoned the technic of tying the four recti muscles in front of a glass ball, because of the general experience that in many cases the ball either came out or became displaced into a quadrant space between two of the muscles.

His operation consists in separating with scissors the conjunctiva from Tenon's capsule for several millimeters around the limbus. The muscles are cut at their insertions and allowed to retract. After enucleation a large glass ball, 18 mm. in diameter, is inserted. Placing the sutures, which are first made in the capsule with a double armed heavy silk thread, is a delicate part of the operation. The two needles are put in from the inside of the capsule and several millimeters back from the margin, 3 or 4 mm. apart from each other. Then, they are inserted in the same way on the opposite side of the wound, and a good overlapping of the capsule produced in front of the glass ball. With the same needles a new pair of sutures is made 90° apart from the former, and stretched to produce a new overlapping so that finally four thicknesses of capsule stand in front of the ball. The two ends of the threads are then brought thru the conjunctiva below the median line, in-

serted thru a pearl button and tied. The conjunctiva is then sutured in a horizontal line. This operation has been practised about 13 times by different men, and in no case did the ball come out, or a displacement of the ball been observed. In 10 other cases in which the muscles were tied before the ball, displacement occurred in three patients; in one followed by removal of the implant. The motility of the stump is just as good when the muscles are allowed to slip back, as when they are tied.

Weeks asserts that Mules' operation is applicable after evisceration, when the eye is not the seat of inflammation or neoplasm or in a condition of atrophy. He excises the cornea by means of a fusiform flap whose long axis is in the vertical meridian, and lengthens the opening by two incisions extending from the angles, scoops the contents of the globe as usual and sutures the sclera by six or seven catgut sutures, passing from the external surface, 2.5 mm. distance from the margin, so that when tied the margins overlap and a broad surface results. The glass or gold ball 9 to 12 mm. in diameter is inserted in the sclera before the sutures are tied.

Key, in discussion, has modified Barraquer's method by suturing the four recti muscles to the transitional folds of the conjunctiva with catgut. In this way, he believes, the fat implant can project between the muscles, which make traction from the sides of the stump instead of from the summit.

Reese believes the cosmetic failures are more often due to the sinking in of the tarso-orbital fold, than to lack of motility of the prothesis. To avoid this he takes care of preserving the lateral invaginations, and cuts conjunctiva and capsule in one mass, making his original incisions between the lateral muscles and the inferior rectus.

Knapp is in favor of fat implantation for cosmetic effects. He uses a large amount of fat in order to fully distend Tenon's capsule and produce an over effect. This allows for the shrinkage which takes place to an unequal degree. It is not necessary either to suture the muscles to the conjunctiva, because they remain caught in the openings of Tenon's capsule, which become their subsequent insertion. The capsule is sutured vertically and the conjunctiva horizontally.

PROTHESIS.—Speaking from the standpoint of the artificial eye maker, **Gougelmann** considers that a marked progress has been made in the cosmetic results following removal of the eye in the last 25 years. The stumps made of gold or glass are very satisfactory for the prothesis, but in some cases the ball protrudes so that a very thin shell is necessary. He approves of fat implantation and thinks that objection raised on account of absorption is the exception. The stump was satisfactory in one patient, after ten years. He instructs the patients generally to wear a temporary artificial eye for a fortnight and then change, bearing in mind that an eye too large is more repulsive than a small one. The former is painful, requires an effort to close the lids, and in time will either develop adhesions from pressure or produce irritation of the lids.

The period during which an eye can be comfortably worn is very variable. There are cases in which a shell has been worn for 20 years without removing it, the socket suffering little. However, acid conditions of the system shorten the life of the eye as they may cause either a crystalline deposit that makes the shell rough on the outer surface, causing great discomfort, or produce a discoloration of the sclera, giving a lifeless effect. This latter condition, however, can be remedied to some extent by bathing the prothesis with peroxide.

Pronounced adhesions are causes of great trouble; when not too marked, the eye can be so shaped to fit around the cord, preventing pressure. If an eye is too large it must not be ground down, leaving a cutting edge, but smoothly reduced in size in a flame.

Lewis complains of the insanitary methods used by the dealers in artificial eyes, who, after trying a shell in many sockets put it back into the case without washing. He has seen a

patient with acute purulent conjunctivitis develop, 24 hours after a trial of many artificial eyes. An examination of the discharge showed streptococci, staphylococci and pus cells. The author advocates protective measures instituted by the Boards of Health.

When there is an extensive destruction of the lids and culs-de-sac and a plastic operation is impracticable or bound to produce a bad cosmetic result, **Lauber,** assisted by **Henning,** has applied prothesis made specially for each case. The patient is first prepared by an operation excising either the lacrimal gland or the remaining conjunctiva, or even the edges of the lids; or closing entirely the orbit by a cutaneous flap in order to obtain a surface as regular as possible, avoiding any lacrimal or conjunctival secretion which may interfere or detach the prothesis. A mould is taken with plaster of Paris, from the two orbital regions and a cast in wax is made, on which a glass prothesis consisting only of the cornea is set in. A new mould is taken with elastin and from it a cast with plaster of Paris on which the lids and sclera are moulded after the other side.

The last step is to make a definite mould with plaster of Paris and a cast of gelatin, glycerin and sugar. This is attached to the orbit and must be removed every night. It is necessary to replace this prothesis almost every month.

Lauber claims that in spite of satisfactory results of the plastic restoration of the lids, after the operation, the cosmetic effect is not often satisfactory. Here the prothesis claims its superiority. The author showed pictures of wounds with and without protheses. The author removes the conjunctiva, the tear duct, and the tear sac, in order to secure a better fitting of the prothesis and a smooth surface under the same. In this way the secretion of the wound and the tear gland, that would otherwise result in eczema, is stopped.

Enophthalmos.—**Jickeli** describes a case of traumatic enophthalmos in a man who was struck with a brick over the forehead above the right brow. He did not fall nor become unconscious, but the lids were much swollen for some days, and when they could be opened, the eye was sunken in the orbit and diplopia was present. The author thinks that the enophthalmos was due to the tearing of the orbital fascia and a small hemorrhage in the muscular cone, with paresis of the trigeminus and internal rectus.

Spontaneous Bursting of Eyeball.—**Meller** believes that the concensus of opinion as to the etiology of spontaneous bursting of the eyeball is a rise of tension in the eye, caused either by glaucoma with a possible hemorrhage subsequent to the bursting, or else a rise of tension from intraocular hemorrhage; and a weakened or thin sclera. He reviews seven cases and adds one which came under his observation.

THE LACRIMAL APPARATUS

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This section reviews the literature from July, 1918, to July, 1919. For previous literature see September, 1918, p. 159, and October, 1918, p. 161.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

AGGLUTININS IN THE LACRIMAL FLUID.—**Hegner,** after reviewing the literature on the subject, notes the results of his examination of the tears from 40 cases. Twenty were immunized soldiers, and the others were taken from cases occurring in an epidemic of typhoid. The Widal reaction and the diagnosticum of Ficker were used.

The observations on the blood and the tears of the same individual were carried on at the same time, in order that conditions might be equal. Of the forty cases, those who had been immunized by inoculation did not show any agglutinations in the lacrimal fluid, but the serum, even when greatly thinned, gave a positive reaction. Of the twenty who had been sick with typhoid, three cases gave a positive agglutination reaction, but they were more limited than in the serum. The agglutination could be demonstrated in dilutions of 1:100. Under the microscope the process could be clearly followed.

The author concludes that the lacrimal fluid sometimes does participate in the agglutination. The three cases which presented the positive reactions had unusually severe cases of typhoid.

TRANSPORTATION OF TEARS.—**Frieberg** carried out experiments to determine the factors which aid in the transportation of tears. He modified the instrument used by Rochat and Benjamins by making the nasal end of the tube into a funnel about 6x4 mm., and pulling over the funnel a rubber with a wide mouth. This arrangement gave a tip which perfectly fitted over the nasal opening of the duct and gave more accurate results than the original instrument. He concludes that the principal factors in the carrying off of tears are: 1. A regular compression caused by the closing of the lids and the subsequent dilatation of the lumen of the tear canal. 2. The existing pumplike action that is set up by this mechanism is founded on the condition of the equilibrium of the movable part of the tear canal with the open palpebral fissure with which the canals and tear sac, at least in good functioning eyes, form an open tube. When the lids close in the act of winking the canaliculi are also closed or compressed and the tears are forced thru the patulous tear sac toward the nose, and hindered from returning into the eye by reason of the closed canaliculi. At the moment of opening the eyes the mechanism starts over and the slight dilatation with suction causes the tears to flow through the canaliculus into the tear sac. The aspiration phase of the canaliculus is ended shortly after the act of winking. In different persons the action of the mechanism is greatly varied, especially in young persons in whom the winking is sometimes excessive. 3. The act of winking produces sufficient power to drive the tears thru the canals and is sufficient to overcome the pressure in the sac. 4. A coinciding siphon function can be observed in certain normal cases when the head is erect. However, we do not yet know the importance of this siphon arrangement.

West does not accept the Schirmer

theory as being correct. To support his conclusions, he calls attention to the fact that after the intranasal tear sac operation, the whole inner nasal half of the sac has been removed; and because of this the tear sac cannot function as a suction pump, but the tears still flow as in the normal eye. He claims that the flowing off of the tears is independent of the movements of the sac, and the canaliculus must play a leading part in the process. The tears are sucked up in the lacrimal canaliculus by capillary action and are then expressed by the action of the lids. He came to the conclusion that cases which had been operated thru the nose by his method for epiphora and were not relieved, were due to a nonfunctioning tear duct in which the canaliculus did not function before the operation, and that the overflow of tears was not caused by the stenosis in the nasal tear passages, but by a pathologic condition of the canaliculus.

He measures the functional efficiency of the lacrimal canaliculus with colored liquids such as collargol, protargol and argyrol. If the canaliculus is functioning, the fluid dropped into the conjunctival sac is soon found in the tear sac. His method is as follows:

The sac is first thoroly cleansed by injecting a 3% solution of boric acid in the lower point of the fissured lacrimal canaliculus. Then at periods of from two to four minutes a drop of 5% collargol is put in the conjunctival sac, and the patient is told to blink. The instillation is repeated four or five times.

The collargol is then washed entirely out of the conjunctival sac until no more black color is visible. By pressing the tear sac rather hard at the inner canthus with the finger, generally from one or the other of the canaliculi a part of the collargol can be expressed. If no collargol appears, a clear fluid is injected into one of the puncta and the black fluid will appear from the other. But if it does not appear, pressure on the inner canthus at times will force it out.

If one canaliculus is closed, it is harder to determine if the open one functions, but with experience one can determine by pressure on the eyelid and by injections of boric acid whether the collargol has reached the tear sac.

If the collargol appears in the conjunctiva by means of the above described technic, then the test is positive and the fluid has reached the sac and the canaliculi function. In this case the prognosis for a dry eye after the intranasal operation is favorable. The probability for a dry eye is directly proportional to the positive result of the test. If the test is positive one can tell with reasonable accuracy that the epiphora will stop after the operation, provided the technic of the operation is properly carried out. If the test gives only weakly positive results then the prognosis is not so favorable.

He uses the following signs to denote the activity of the tear drainage: 1. very strong+. 2. strong+. 3. medium+. 4. weak+. 5. very weak+. 6. negative +.

If the collargol passes into the nose, it is proof that the canaliculus functions. If the results of the first test are negative, it is wise to make another trial.

Palpebral Fistula of the Accessory Lacrimal Gland.—**Gallemaerts** reports a case in a child of 3½ years, who had suffered with several attacks of dacryoadenitis palpebaris. Examination showed a fistula leading to the gland, and pressure over the gland expressed a fluid similar to tears, after the inflammation subsided.

Luxation of Lacrimal Glands.—**Duhamel** reports a case occurring in a soldier who had been gassed the previous year. Following the exposure to lacrimatory gas the patient had a severe persistent conjunctivitis and profuse lacrimation. There was no other history of disease of the glands. The patient later noticed a thickening and swelling of the upper lids which was diagnosed edema.

When first seen by the author there was a noticeable prominence of the upper lids, but the margins of the lids were not thickened. A movable tumor was felt which could be pushed into the lacrimal fossa of the frontal bone,

and the diagnosis of luxation of the orbital lacrimal gland was made.

The author believed that the inflammation of the gland following the exposure to the gas resulted in a stretching of the suspensory ligament and dropping of the gland. Attempts to replace the left gland were unsuccessful and it was removed. The right was replaced and held into its normal position by an operation devised by the author. He made an incision 2½ cm. long thru the skin, about 1 cm. above the superior external border of the orbit. The incision extended down to the periosteum and was placed in such a way that two-thirds of the incision was back of the fronto-maxillary suture. After dividing the fascia tarso-orbicularis, the gland was lifted up into its normal position by an assistant. A silk suture (fine silver can be used) was then passed thru the substance of the gland for 3 or 4 mm., just below its upper border. The eye was then protected, while two holes, each 1 mm. in diameter and about 4 mm. apart, were made thru the thin external bony wall of the orbit, and so placed that one was about 2 mm. above, and the other 2 mm. below, the fronto-maxillary suture.

With blunt curved needles the ends of the silk, which had been passed thru the gland were carried thru the small holes in the bone, and tied over the periosteum. This brought the gland into its normal position and held it firmly in place. The skin was then sutured and no deformity resulted.

Dacryops.—**Goerlitz** described two cases. One occurred in a young woman age 25, and the other in a man of 36. Both were in the upper left eyelid. The cysts were easily removed and examined microscopically. The sections showed a complete cyst lined with a single layer of epithelial cells. The lacrimal gland presented slight signs of atrophy.

Dacryoadenitis. — **Connole** saw a case of acute bilateral dacryoadenitis in a sailor. The patient entered the naval hospital complaining of severe pounding headache, anorexia, and pains in the trunk and limbs. The eyelids of both eyes were swollen and red, and mechanical ptosis to the extent of covering the upper half of the pupils was present. The enlarged lacrimal glands could easily be felt, but were not tender. The vision in the right eye was 18/20, left 16/20.

No history of exposure to mumps or other acute infectious diseases could be obtained. Venereal infection was denied. The temperature on admission was 100.6 F., which gradually subsided, and normal was reached four days later. The urine and blood examinations, including the Wassermann reaction, were negative. Smears from the eyes showed a few Gram-positive diplococci. Cultures revealed a scanty growth of pneumococci.

Nocardiasis of Lacrimal Gland.—**Archibald's** case of nocardiasis occurred in a young man 22, who had a swelling of the right eye and was unable to open the lids. The condition started three and one-half years before. No scars or wounds were seen externally. The eyelids could not be everted but when they were raised a thick yellow discharge poured out. The whole conjunctival surface of the upper lid was rough and granular, with some areas of deep ulceration. The swelling was of doughy consistency, not edematous or painful. The fornix of the conjunctiva bulged forward. The lymphatic glands were not involved. The sight and movements of the eyeball were normal.

Under a general anesthetic the growth was dissected away; it appeared to have commenced in the lacrimal gland, and to have spread into the lid, invading the tarsal cartilage. It also extended between the eyeball and the bony orbit, following the ducts of the lacrimal gland.

The histologic examination revealed a fungoid growth with typical nocardial bacilliform hyphae, with rounded bodies or spores.

Removal of Gland after Extirpation of Lacrimal Sac.—**Wessely** cites several cases in which the orbital tear gland was extirpated for the relief of an incurable epiphora following

stenosis of the nasal tear duct or after extirpation of the tear sac.

Zais, after a short summary of the Heidelberg cases, states that this operation is very seldom carried out in Heidelberg. To about every 500 tear duct operations, there were only 6 or 7 cases in which extirpation or removal of the tear gland was necessary. In these cases the operation was carried out with local anesthesia.

Transmission of Infection from Eye.—**Maxcy** determined the time that it takes for organisms to travel from the eye to other portions of the body thru the lacrimal passages, and showed by experiments that the Bacillus prodigiosus could be recovered from the nose five minutes after it was instilled into the conjunctival sac. They were recovered from the naso-pharynx in fifteen minutes and from the stool in twenty-four hours.

He concludes that the eye affords a relatively large exposed area which could easily be the lodging place of germs exhaled by infected persons, and a source of danger even to those who have properly fitted masks. He recommends the wearing of large protecting lenses as well as a mask, by those who come in contact with persons suffering with influenza and other respiratory diseases.

Anatomy of the Tear Duct.—**Rochat** and **Benjamins,** after making a thoro study of the anatomy of the tear duct of a dog, found: 1. The canaliculus present only in the lower lid, is by far the most important and conspicuous part of the whole tear duct. Its substance exceeds that of all the rest of the duct. 2. Three muscles are connected with the canaliculus (the orbicularis, the zygomatico-lacrimalis, and the retractor of the third eyelid, which have a compressing effect on the canaliculus. 3. The nasal opening of the tear duct does not lie under the lower turbinated bone, but far to the front near the nasal opening. 4. There are no valves thru the entire length of the tear duct, but the back-flow of the tears is prevented by the fine fissured opening at the nasal portion of the duct. 5. The nasal tear duct joins the tear sac at a sharp angle. 6. The upper blind end of the sac corresponds to the fundus of the human lacrimal sac. 7. There is no upper canaliculus. 8. For the purpose of physiologic experiments the larger part of the tear duct can be laid bare from the mouth cavity.

Lichal found that the tear canal of the pig and the dog become patulous during the first month of life; that goblet cells are numerous in the epithelium of the nasal tear duct of the horse, cow, goat, and pig. The network in the first section of the membranous tear duct of the horse is fat tissue and not lymph tracts. In the region of the upper tear canal of the pig there is a portion of fibro-cartilage, which apparently holds the lumen open.

Thickening of the Epithelium of the Caruncle.—**Peters** believes that epiphora from *cornification of the epithelium of the caruncle* is quite common. The clinical picture of this condition is as follows:

The patient complains of excessive tearing of the eye, especially out of doors, without burning or gluing of the lids being present. The lower tear point can be recognized but there is no true punctum, only a shallow depression, without particular lumen. Often the opening seems to be covered by a thin layer of cells.

The adjacent lid margin seems to be dry, the palpebral margin strongly rounded off, and the color is somewhat lighter than the remaining part of the margins of the eyelid. Between the inner margin of the lid and the eyeball the tears collect, due to the inhibited flow of tears thru the canaliculus. The whole caruncle and especially the summit seems to be very dry, and the whole area is of a light color, only in a few cases the lower punctum seems to be everted forward. The upper punctum is less significant of disease. The condition is without exception bilateral. If the lower punctum is slit, the condition is often seen to extend into the canaliculus, or a narrowing of the canaliculus is found; in two cases the probe made a grinding sound when introduced. Oftener a membrane prevents the passage of the

probe. In several cases there was danger of boring a false passage and probing was not attempted. However, the membrane is easily broken, and the next day the probe passes without difficulty.

Generally, after several probings, the canaliculus can be established. Careful examination of the outer membrane, with the binocular loupe, for a latent desquamation process of the membrane, which might be made to account for the peculiar condition of the caruncle region, revealed nothing. Since 1914 the author has seen 26 cases of this nature. Twenty were men and 6 were women. The latter existed between the ages of 4 and 33 years. In the men the age limit is much narrower, occurring between 12 and 29 years. The disease is one of adolescence and generally comes on at puberty. There is a possibility that an early sickness or perhaps a congenital predisposition, were factors in the onset. Microscopic examination of small pieces of the caruncle revealed a very pronounced cornification of the epithelium and a lack of mucous cells.

The author notes that in pathologic cornification of the head of the caruncle, the lid margins are of a clear color, there is shallowness of the tear-papilla, and slight plastering over of the mouths of the lacrimal canaliculi.

Long Canaliculus with Anklyoblepharon. In three cases **van der Hoeve** found the eye lids grown together at the inner canthi, by which the length of the lids is decreased by more than one-fifth. The width of the nose was unusually broad, the lacrimal puncta were much closer to the outer canthi than in the normal. The measurements in millimeters from two patients of 14 years of age, were:

Distance of the outer canthi from one another, 85A, 85B, Normal 85.

Distance of the inner canthi from one another 41A, 41B, Normal 29.

Length of the palpebral fissure, 22A, 22B, Normal 28.

Distance of the lower lacrimal punctum from outer canthi, 17.5A, 17B, Normal 23.

Distance of the lower lacrimal punctum from inner canthi, 4.5A, 5B, Normal 5.

The upper lacrimal punctum was about 3 mm. nasalwards from the lower punctum. There was no overlapping skin, or epicanthus, but a plain growing together of the nasal parts of the edges of the lids, and an anklyoblepharon interna. One could see the semilunar plica plainly under the skin which had grown together, and also a very much enlarged caruncle which was adherent to the inner surface of the lid.

The lacrimal punctum is about the right distance from the inner canthus. The canaliculus does not dip in toward the lacus lacrimalis, but a vertical line thru the lacrimal punctum would cut somewhat nasally from the limit of the inner and middle third of the cornea if the eye looks straight forward.

The first patient was a boy of seven years, who complained of tearing of the eyes during each cold that he had. Outside of the anomaly and a slight astigmatism he had only a chronic blepharitis. The other patients were twin sisters, and were seen for weak eyes and a slight tearing. The girls were 14 years old, both were congenitally deaf and dumb, and had hyperopia and astigmatism.

After reviewing the embryology of the lids and caruncle, the author concludes that the fully developed anomaly in all six eyes points to a faulty condition or construction of the primary cells, and that anklyoblepharon as the result of intrauterine inflammation would hardly present so typical an appearance, that in these patients a faulty embryonic condition existed, which resulted in either an anklyoblepharon with a secondary lengthening of the lacrimal canaliculus, or a lacrimal canaliculus that was too long in which secondary growing together of the lid margins and the caruncle occurred.

Canaliculus Suture.—**Raupp** reports a case in which the underlid was torn rather deeply thru the whole thickness in the region of the opening of the canaliculus. He repaired it by a method that he believed to be more simple than the one formerly described by Elschnig. The operation was done

as follows: First a conjunctival lid suture was taken and tied. Then with two fine needles, one placed on either end of double thin black silk, a suture was placed thru the proximal wound opening of the lacrimal canaliculus and carried 3 mm. nasally in the intermarginal seam above. The other needle entered the distal wound opening thru the lumen of the lacrimal canaliculus back of the tear opening and was brought thru it. The openings of the wound were then brought into contact over the span of the threads which were tied so that the edges of the wound, without pressure were in a normal position.

The temporary canaliculus sutures were removed after two days, the superior stitch several days later. The author's result with this method was a lasting and a cosmetic success with function.

Mycosis of the Lacrimal Canaliculus.—**Bistis'** case occurred in a female, age 48 years, who suffered from chronic conjunctivitis. There was a yellowish secretion in the inner canthus and the lower punctum was enlarged. A tumefaction and infiltration of the canaliculus gave it an elastic consistency, and there was swelling in the region of the sac.

With pressure along the canaliculus pus could be expressed thru the punctum. When the canaliculus was slit, yellow purulent concretions 1/2 mm. in diameter were found; which, when examined with the microscope, were found to be Gram positive radiating filaments with nodular enlargements at the periphery.

Pathology of Tear Duct.—**Szily** believes that the *X-ray* is of great value in demonstrating strictures, diverticuli, and the so-called "current closure" In the last condition the pictures show the contents of the sac, after emptying either spontaneously or by pressure, and the presence of a stricture, which acts as flap or valve There is always a conspicuous residue left in the sac after it has been emptied The method is further useful in establishing the presence of a traumatic connection between the principal cavity and the suppurating tear sac, and especially a connection between the tear sac and the antrum of Highmore, which cannot be established in any other manner.

Handman had a patient who tried to probe his left lacrimal sac while looking into a mirror. The attempt was unsuccessful and he stripped the tissue lining of the duct from the bony wall.

Santonoceto bared the tear canal of a dog for a great part of its length after the method of Rochat and Benjamins, and created an artficial stenosis by tying the canal, and watched the results which followed.

No sequences were noted during the first two weeks. Then for the first time the hair of the inner canthus to the point of operation began to fall out, which was due to the cutting of nerves and not to the dacryocystitis. A spot, about 2 cm. in diameter was continuously wet. This was not observed before the falling out of the hair, because the limited quantity of overflowing tears dried very quickly on the hair.

At the same time the development of a chronic dacryocystitis could be observed quite readily. Upon pressure in the region of the inner canthus, where the large, sac-like canal of the dog lies, yellow pus could be expressed from the tear point. This condition existed for months without change or any noticeable inconvenience to the dog. An acute phlegmon was never observed. In Santonoceto's cases there was no involvement of the cornea, or a serious conjunctivitis.

Sections from the decalcified head of a hog whose sac had been tied six months before its death, showed that the whole portion of the sac terminal to the ligature was entirely free from disease or changes. The disease was only present in the upper portions of the canal. Microscopically an enormous widening of the whole portion from the ligature to the canaliculus was manifest. The bony canal in which the tear duct lies was inflamed. The large veins which normally surround the canal were gone, and were replaced by connective tissue. The canaliculus was filled with pus, but its lumen was about normal. The punctum, which

normally is a very small opening, presented a wide gap.

The condition of the mucous membrane was variable. In general there was a diffuse infiltration with leukocytes under the epithelium, but these were more numerous in some places than in others. However, in parts of the canal there were true ulcers of the mucosa, where the upper surface nearest the lumen was robbed of its covering of epithelium. The inner part of the widened veins were somewhat more plainly seen than is usual, while the lumen of the arteries was considerably enlarged.

A young man, age 20, was seen by **Fernandez.** The patient complained of pain in the region of the lacrimal sac. There was a red zone of tumefaction in the region of the sac and pus escaped when pressure was made over the sac. The cornea, conjunctiva, were normal. Microscopic examination of the pus showed gonococci. The patient recovered with treatment.

Of the innumerable cases in which a caloric reaction has been demonstrated, **Ruttin** found only two in which the reaction culminated in a reflex epiphora. In the case of Wilbrand and Saenger, which the author also saw, there was a bilateral epiphora, which, upon exposure to cold, became worse on both sides, but upon exposure to heat, became worse only on the side which was more exposed.

Infantile Dacryocystitis. — **Clark** saw a baby eight days old who had a purulent conjunctivitis. The nurse noted a puffiness in the region of the left tear sac at birth, but no pus was noted in the eyes until the fourth day. The pus increased in amount and when the baby was first seen by the author the lids of both eyes were much swollen and yellow pus escaped when they were separated. The left tear sac was tense, swollen, and distinct fluctuation was noted. There was some swelling in the region of the right sac, but no fluctuation.

Microscopic examination of the pus revealed the presence of Gram-negative intra- and extracellular diplococci and Gram-positive cocci. The swelling and tenderness increased and the left sac was freely incised the next day and a quantity of pus escaped. After frequent flushings with boric solution, the swelling rapidly diminished and forty-eight hours after incising the pus was scanty in amount.

The right sac followed the same course and when the child was eleven days old it was opened and irrigated. In two days all swelling and pus disappeared from the eyes. The sacs were permitted to close, but they had to be opened again in forty-eight hours and the irrigations resumed. This treatment was continued until the nineteenth day, when each canaliculus was incised sufficiently to permit passage of a No. 2 Bowman's probe. After the probing the sac was irrigated. In two days the right sac had cleared up and the opening was permitted to close, and two days later the left was treated the same way. The author saw the child last when it was thirty-two days old and at that time both ducts were functioning normally. The author does not believe that the infection was due to the gonococcus because of the rapidity of the healing process.

Silver Staining about Sac.— **Würdemann** calls attention to the dangers of disfigurement when silver preparations are forcibly injected into the lacrimal sac. If the walls of the sac have been weakened by disease or have been lacerated at the time of the irrigation, the fluid diffuses into the tissue under the skin and leaves a permanent stain.

Restoration of Tear Duct.—**Von Hacker** describes a case of displacement of the left tear duct after a fracture, which he treated by introducing a silk thread into the lower end of the lacrimal duct and drawing it thru the cicatrized mass of the left nostril. The thread was first soaked in an epithelial paste, which was obtained by scraping the epidermis. The thread was left in situ for several weeks and frequently drawn up and down. The treatment was perfectly successful and is warmly recommended by the author.

Treatment of Lacrimal Obstruction.—**Francis** and **Kelsey** summarize

the course of epiphora and discuss the various methods of treating it, and **Jacobsohn** gives the various symptoms, frequency and therapy of abscess of the tear sac. **Tillot** discusses the conservative treatment of dacrycocystitis and believes that irrigation and probing should first be thoroly tried before more radical measures are resorted to.

Landolt advocates making a small incision in the lacrimal canaliculus for dacryocystitis, followed by probing and irrigations of the sac and canal. He prefers silver-nitrat 1/100 and neutralizes the excess with normal salt solution.

Kearney determines the position of the obstruction to the flow in epiphora. If it is in the punctum, he slits it; if in the canaliculus it is also slit; if in the sac or nasolacrimal canal, probes are passed, and if that fails, a style 20 mm. in length and 1½ mm. in diameter is placed in the canal, which is tried for six months. If all fail he destroys the sac by a method which he reported in 1916.

Thompson has devised a means of removing foreign bodies and strictures of the lacrimal passages with a fine curette. He believes that strictures and obstructions are frequently due to the irritation set up by the lodging of foreign bodies which pass from the conjunctiva into the lacrimal sac or the duct.

After using 5% cocain in the conjunctival sac and injecting 0.5% above, below, and to the nasal side of the sac, he injects a 1% solution into the sac with an Anel syringe. He then slits the canaliculus and passes a Buck's flexible wire ear curette into the sac, and gently searches for concretions and strictures. If none are found, he does not molest the sac, but passes the small curette into the canal, in the same manner as passing the probe, until the obstruction is reached. Then with moderate pressure the curette is turned in an auger-like motion until it is pushed thru into the nasal cavity. This procedure is continued, using larger probes until the one that corresponds to the size of the canal is used and all sensation of roughness is gone. If the inflammation has been of long standing, granulations may form and the operation can be repeated, or a skeleton burr, devised for the purpose, can be used.

The author claims good results with his operation, and recommends it in all cases excepting lacrimal abscess. He reports cures in 4 cases in which the patients were seen five weeks, six, seven and twenty-four months after operation.

Black treated two cases of dacryocystitis after the method described by Thompson. His results were good and the author believed that this new technic is of great value.

Dacryocystorhinostomy.—In **Halle's** experience the percentage of successful terminations in cases of inflammation and stenosis of the lower duct is very much greater when treated by the intranasal operation than when other operations are done. **Fischer** prefers the Toti method for the relief of dacryocystitis. **Hötte** gives his heartiest indorsement to Toti's operation as modified by Blaskovics. The indications for this operation are many, the operation is not hard, and the results are uniformly good. He believes that its wider use would only prove the efficiency of the operation. He reports the results obtained in three cases which he was able to follow for some time after the operation.

Polyak reported two cases of shot wounds in the nose, with wound of tear duct and accessory sinuses. In one case both eyes teared and secreted pus. At the root of the nose there was a saddle shaped scarred defect. A window resection of the septum, excision of the wide massive synechiae and a dacryocystotomy were done. Seven months later a large opening in the bone thru to the sac was made in the left side. This eye has been well since that time. Ten months after the injury, the same procedure was carried out on the right side and several bone splinters were removed and the eye has since been quiet.

The second case followed a shell wound. Shell fragments had penetrated near the inner angle of the eyebrow into the root of the nose and lodged in the neck. Three months later the right eye and the neighborhood of the right sac and orbit were swollen. Above the sac there was a suppurating fistula. The right nasal sinuses and wall of the tear sac were opened and drained.

Paterson and **Fraser** followed a series of fifty cases of dacryocystitis, which they operated on by slightly modifying the method of dacryocystorhinostomy described by Paterson in 1914.

Forty-eight of the fifty cases were seen or heard from in from three months to three years after the operation. Thirty-eight were regarded as complete cures (about 80%); five were considerably improved (10%); and five were considered comparative or complete failures (10%).

The authors claim that this method is preferable to extirpation of the sac because the results are much better and a real cure with restoration of function is obtained.

After comparing Toti's percentage of cures, which is 50%, **West** concludes that his operation is preferable in cases of dacryostenosis. He claims cures in all selected cases. By the author's operation, the tear sac only is opened and the natural nasal tear duct is not disturbed. If the opening has a tendency to narrow or to close, this fact usually shows up inside of six weeks, the color test being used to demonstrate the progress of the narrowing. If the latter occurs the operation must be repeated.

Bookwalter reported twenty cases of dacryocystitis which he operated by West's method prior to January, 1, 1917. All cases were relieved of suppuration at once. Ten of the cases have been free from suppuration for a year, four cases operated on in 1916 are well, three still had epiphora, and three could not be followed. The author advocates a large opening into the sac, and insists on the patient's returning for postoperative treatment to insure permanent results.

Affolter obtains access thru the nose to the lacrimal sac by resecting the lower portion of the septum. The lacrimal sac is then easily reached with instruments introduced into the opposite nostril and passed thru the opening in the septum. A large number of patients have been operated on in this way, with complete success and without visible scar.

Extirpation of the Sac.—**Sabater** did forty-one extirpations of the lacrimal sac after the technic of Blanco, and in 3 cases had secondary infection; in all others the results were perfect. The author describes Blanco's operation minutely and advocates its use in all cases of dacryocystitis which are not relieved by irrigation and probing. He claims that the scar is less by this method than by other operations for extirpation of the sac.

Kirkpatrick cuts the internal palpebral ligament when removing the lacrimal sac, and has not found that it produces disfigurement. This makes the removal of the sac very much easier. Two hundred and fifty-three sacs were removed at the British Government Ophthalmic Hospital, Madras, India, during 1917. Of the forty submitted for microscopic examination, seven showed well-marked trachoma follicles in the sac.

In order to avoid the skin incision, with the subsequent cicatrix, and also the hemorrhage which so frequently makes the operation very difficult, **Duhamel** makes an incision on the inner surface of the lid, 1½ to 2 mm. deep; between the caruncle and the margin of the lid, extending to the punctum. He claims this gives an easy approach to the sac, can be done under local anesthesia, does not require section of the direct tendon of the orbicularis, leaves no cutaneous scar, and is free from hemorrhage.

Basterra describes in detail the method of extirpating the lacrimal sac.

Stoewer reports a case of thrombophlebitis with loss of an eye after tear sac extirpation in a woman, 31 years of age. Both tear sacs were involved, but

the left threatened to develop into a phlegmon and both tear sacs were extirpated under local anesthesia. On the day of the operation the patient complained of a feeling of tension in the eyes and headache. During the night the pain increased and she vomited. The second morning following the operation, the lids of the right eye were markedly swollen. There was slight chemosis, limited exophthalmos, and inhibited eye movements. The sutured wound when opened showed no signs of suppuration, but later cultures from the wound showed the presence of staphylococci and streptococci. The edema increased and on the fourth day extended to the face and neck, and there was slight venous engorgement of the left retinal veins.

On the sixth day the retinal veins were strongly dilated, but the arteries could hardly be seen. A white exudate was seen in the region of the fovea. Two days later the papilla was red and blurred, and the retinal veins were engorged and dark brown. There was a band of white exudate a disc diameter wide extending from the edge of the papilla to the fovea. A great deal of pus was obtained after incising thru the skin and fascia to the orbit. It yielded staphylococci and streptococci upon culture.

The edema of the face decreased and the eye movements became less limited. The orbital conditions healed, but the changes in the eye slowly progressed. Hemorrhages into the retina followed by vitreous opacities and later by retinitis proliferans were noted. The eye became inflamed and painful and was enucleated about two years after the extirpation of the sac. The ophthalmoscopic findings were explained by the anatomic changes behind the eye, which doubtless progressed along the course of the veins into the eyeball itself, and a periphlebitis with thrombosis resulted.

Out of 24,700 patients, **Urraca** found 3,000 with affections of the lacrimal sac. The author does not confine himself to one method of treatment but uses the technic which seems the most logical for the given case. Out of 1,114 destructions of the sac, 274 were extirpations; the remainder were treated by other methods.

DISEASES OF THE LIDS

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This section reviews the literature from July, 1918, to July, 1919. Related topics are considered in the sections on Conjunctiva, Orbit, Tumors, and Injuries. For previous literature see A. J. O., October, 1918, p. 163.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

ANOMALIES AND PHYSIOLOGY.—**Posey** observed two cases of a curious elongation of the inner halves of the upper and lower lids of both eyes associated with other signs of retarded physical development, such as small upper extremities, deafness, malformation of the skulls, etc. He operated upon the older child, removing the right lacrimal sac, which was the seat of an abscess, and prolonging the palpebral fissure inward by notching the web-like fold of skin which united the lids in that position.

Peters reports congenital lagophthalmos, or at least widening of the palpebral fissure, in a boy of two years, and his mother. The grandmother and great grandmother were said to have exhibited the same deformity. The closure of the lids was barely possible, and still permitted the escape of tears.

Komoto describes a case in which the left upper lid opened widely upon movements of the mouth; he also details a second case in which winking was possible only with the left eye, during which the aperture of the lids of the right eye remained widely open, altho closing of the lids in both eyes was entirely normal. **Fuchs** writes on the pathologic associated movements of the lids.

In a lengthy study of *jaw winking*

phenomenon, i. e., retraction of the upper eye lid during movements of the jaw, face, pharnyx and tongue, including an analysis of about 90 observations in literature since the first description by Marcus Gunn in 1883, with a criticism of the attempted explanation, **Lutz** concludes that the phenomenon is produced by alterations of the supranuclear connections of the bulbar nuclei in the posterior longitudinal fasciculus; and probably by a lesion of the inhibitive mechanism just before the dendrites of the damaged nuclear cells of the oculomotor nerves. The palsy of the other eye muscles, which so often accompanies the jaw winking phenomenon, is then caused by lesions of the nuclei themselves or of the last unilateral part of the afferent or efferent fibres.

A similar concomitant movement of the lower eye lid has been observed by Herbert Robson: Associated movements of the lower lid with the tongue and lower jaw in certain diseases. The phenomenon consists in a slight eversion of the lower eyelids, which are displaced about 2 mm. from the eyeballs upon protrusion of the tongue or depression of the lower jaw. It takes place as a rule in both eyes. It is never present in healthy persons, but comes and goes with the onset and cure of cardiac and abdominal diseases or severe headaches.

Posey observed synchronous movements of the jaw and upper lid of the right eye associated with divergence of the eye. The lid had been raised by a Hunt-Tansley operation and the internal rectus advanced. The ptosis having been only partially corrected, a Hess procedure had been done later with a good cosmetic result. **Damel** and **Natale** also report movement of eyelids with mastication.

In **Hiwatari's** case nothing abnormal about the lid was noted until the attempt was made to evert the upper lids when an unusual softness was felt, owing undoubtedly to the absence of supporting tissue in them, so that the upper lids had to be kept everted during examination of the conjunctiva by pressing the finger beneath the skin of the lid. The lower lids were also very soft from the same cause. The Meibomian glands were greatly reduced in number and irregular in form. Beside them were several small, yellowish corpuscles under the conjunctiva, which might be considered as rudimentary formations of Meibomian glands. The eyelashes were irregularly arranged, particularly upon the lower lids. A further abnormality of the eyelashes was the presence of hair follicles, one upon each right and lef lower lid, from which two and three cilia jutted respectively instead of one such as was described by Contino (Y B., v 8., p. 256).

Villaverde reports what he considers a unique case of isolated spasm of the orbicularis, compelling the man of 50 to throw his head back in order to see, with resulting spasm of the muscles of the back of the neck.

McMillan observed a man who, by forcible action of his facial muscles alone, was able to evert completely the upper lid of either eye, separately or together. Closing his eyes and his mouth so as to get his facial muscles stiffened, and then shutting his mouth and contracting forcibly the facial muscles below his eye or eyes, as the case may be, including the orbicularis palpebrarum, he seemed to force the lower lid under the upper and so levered the latter upwards into the position of eversion. The patient had acquired the trick in his childhood.

A study of the space sense of the skin of the lids together with a discussion of its relation to ocular diseases has been published by **Wada.**

Ptosis.—In **Coover's** case complete ptosis followed traumatism 12 years preceding a Tansley-Hunt operation. The eye also turned in about 5 mm., owing to the loss of power in the external rectus. Since the operation, the lid has remained up; the palpebral opening was almost equal to that of the other eye; and the eye can be closed equally well. The squint was corrected by tenotomy of the internal rectus, and advancement of the capsule of the external rectus with the conjunctiva.

In a boy, aged 13, the mother noticed, shortly after birth, marked drooping of the left upper lid, which had remained unchanged until he was examined by **Murdock**. The labor at his birth was long and difficult. There is now slight facial asymmetry, complete ptosis of the left upper lid and a small depressed scar over the left parietal region; the eye seems slightly proptosed. There is paralytic convergent strabismus, abduction being nil in each eye, and rotation upward and outward greatly impaired; pupillary reactions normal. **Gonzalez Rincones** reports unilateral ptosis after extirpation of tonsils with local anesthesia, lasting in one case 3 hours and 2 in another. **Hare** reports ptosis with hysteria following injury.

In two cases of traumatic ptosis, **Morax** obtained satisfactory results by attaching the superior rectus to the upper border of the tarsal cartilage. In each case the eye had been enucleated and the paralysis was so complete that the lid entirely masked the artificial eye. In the first case, four years had elapsed after enucleation—an interesting point in illustrating the reestablishment of muscular action under apparently unfavorable conditions.

Carreras reports on congenital bilateral ptosis, successfully operated by Motais' method; **Esser** discusses the operative treatment of ptosis, and **Gonne** writes on balance ptosis. **Begle** demonstrated a case operated on by the method of Hess with some benefit.

Blepharospasm.—**Wolfsohn's** paper upon the treatment of hysteria is based upon 573 cases treated by the writer in British and American hospitals; in the former are included those hysterias largely due to "shell shock"; in the latter those found in ordinary civilian life. Of this number, in 95% the cure was accomplished within the first 24 hours. Occasionally more than one hysteric symptom would be found in the same patient. Only 12 had external wounds and but 2 presented organic nerve changes. Of these cases, affections of the organ of vision and adnexa included 2 cases of blepharospasm, 6 of blindness and 2 of photophobia. Both of the patients with blepharospasm were cured within a minute, each by the application of a faradic current over the supraorbital notch on both sides immediately after strong suggestion. The blepharospasm was the result of gassing and photophobia. In one case the blepharospasm had been present seven months and was cured in 10 seconds. Of hysteric blindness, 7 cases were treated and cured in one seance by the electric current.

Thompson observed blepharospasm so tightly closing the lids that there developed constant pain, and some edema, apparently caused by the fixed and intense muscular contraction. The lids could be opened with difficulty under cocain. Four weeks of varied eliminative treatment was tried with iodides, inunctions and profuse sweating, without effect. Urine and Wassermann negative. Severe pyorrhea with loose teeth was present; four days after removal of all the teeth, the ocular condition became normal. **Bachstez** reports functional blepharospasm. **Sicard** and **Poulard** write on the treatment of blepharospasm by alcohol injections.

Eyelash in Canaliculus.—**Clarke** reports two cases of an eyelash lodged in the canaliculus; in each there was sudden irritation of the eye and inspection revealed a lash partly protruding from the canaliculus. This was readily drawn out with complete and immediate relief.

Marginal Blepharitis.—**Black** calls attention to stubborn forms of blepharitis marginalis of long standing, which do not yield to the usual local treatment. In these cases an underlying general constitutional cause should be looked for. Anemia is that cause in many cases, for which the best treatment is hypodermic medication. A constitutional cause is also present in certain instances of chronic conjunctivitis. In epiphora, the puncta of the lower lids will be frequently found to be somewhat everted; if slight, the patient should be directed never to make dragging movements on the lower lid when wiping the eye. Facial massage with cold cream, the movements of the

tips of the fingers being directed over the skin of the cheeks toward the inner corner of the eyes may restore the puncta to their normal position. In more severe cases, he excises a small triangular flap between the punctum and the inner surface of the lid. In extreme cases he employs Ziegler's method of cautery puncture of the conjunctiva and tarsus in addition to the measures outlined. In severe cicatricial trachoma, he excises the tarsus without a suture.

Dermatitis.—A case of ulceration of the skin of the lid is described by **Caspar.** At first glance the appearance suggested favus. Cultures showed the presence of a mould fungus. The ulcer healed under use of weak sublimat solution and 10 per cent noviform salve. **Plocher** reports the case of a young man who had in five days developed a lesion of the upper lid suggestive of anthrax. The nasal half was bluish black, the rest of the lid yellowish. There was extensive sloughing, but examination showed streptococci and staphylococci as the only organisms present. The loss of substance caused shortening of the upper lid and some ectropion.

Syphilis.—In **Lloyd's** case the use of a dirty towel which had been previously used by a syphilitic, was followed several weeks later by a lesion of the left upper lid. When examined by the reporter about six weeks later, the left eye showed a thickened upper lid with a superficial ulceration, 5 x 8 mm., upon the skin surface at the outer canthus. The preauricular gland was enlarged to the size of a large pea; firm, not tender. There was also a chain of enlarged glands in the postcervical triangle upon the same side. The skin showed a wide spread maculo-papular rash of characteristic color and distribution, extending upon the forehead and into the scalp. Search for the spirochete from the above lesion failed to reveal their presence. The Wassermann was strongly positive. Two injections of diarsenol, 0.4 grams each, were given intravenously and perchlorid of mercury by the mouth. About six months later there were no clinical signs of active syphilis and the eyelid showed only slight thickening. The Wassermann was still strongly positive.

Shaffner observed a case of ulceration of the lower lid, accompanied by a large, painless, hard, freely movable gland under the angle of the left jaw. The clinical diagnosis of primary syphilis was confirmed by finding the spirocheta pallida. A member of the family was found to be suffering from typical syphilitic angina, mucous plaques on the cheek, etc.; this person stated that she had employed the tongue to remove a foreign body from the above patient's eye.

In **Bruder's** case, a swelling of the left lower lid, which lasted for a few days and then became ulcerated, occurred one month before observation, in a subject who had contracted lues 12 years previously. There was an irregular eroded and punched out ulcer near the outer canthus and extending to the palpebral margin. The preauricular gland was swollen. The floor of the ulcer was covered with a dirty gray exudate; conjunctiva slightly thickened. Wassermann 4+.

Pearce observed rather extensive destruction of the lower lid, which, in the absence of a Wassermann, was held to be the breaking down of a gumma.

Tuberculosis.—The cure of tuberculosis of the conjunctival surface of the upper lid by radium is reported by **Pusey.** He has often used radium covered with rubber without ill effects. The applications are continued for 20 minutes, a time sufficient to produce erythema on the sound skin.

Xanthelasma.—**Heller** obtained marked improvement in a case of xanthelasma by fulguration. The treatment was associated with moderate pain, but there was no reaction or pain following it.

Thickening of Lids.—**Bell** observed a thickened upper lid which resembled thickened epidermic patches; the elevations felt rough and horny. Diagnosis of *senile keratosis,* secondary to xanthoma was made. The prognosis is that the condition may remain quiescent or later undergo epitheliomatous degeneration.

A case of *emphysema* of the lids and orbit is reported by **Lowenstein.** Swelling of the lids with amyloid degeneration is reported by **Sakai** and **Miyake.** Examination of the tissue removed showed a development of bone.

EDEMA.—**Weidler** reports three cases of solid edema of the lids and face. Cultures from the nose showed staphylococcus pyogenes aureus. A vaccine was made and injections given with a satisfactory result in every one of the cases.

CHALAZION.—**Dunn** insists that in operating upon Meibomian cysts the incision should always be carried along the gland thru its opening on the free border of the lid. The proximal end of the gland, tho apparently healthy, if not opened and curetted, remains a possible source of infection which may interfere with prompt and proper healing. After the walls of the cyst have been curetted until they are smooth, they are wiped with a solution of silver nitrate, 15 grains to the ounce; boric acid salve, 5 grains to two ounces, is inserted into the sac three or four times daily until the healing is complete.

Del Monte summarizes his studies on the etiology and pathogenesis of chalazion. He reaffirms his conviction that chalazion is produced by a protozoon, which he always finds in the granular tissue of the little tumor. The microorganism consists of cortical and nuclear portions, which frequently contain hyaline granules. The author did not succeed in growing them on artificial media. The chalazion commences as a primary lesion on the epithelial lining of a Meibomian gland, and extending to the extraglandular tissue when the parasite penetrates the tarsus.

ENTROPION.—In **Jackson's** case of corneal ulcer with entropion of the lower lid, the lashes of the middle third continually rubbed the cornea. The lid was cauterized with caustic potash, the sharpened stick being drawn parallel to the lid margin, about 4 mm. below it, until the skin turned brown. After more than 5 years, the lid margin has remained in good position with the lashes well everted.

Koster makes use of the operation of Carron du Villard for treatment of entropion, with a slight variation of the method, and **Slocum** corrects cicatricial entropion by plastic operation. **Duhamel** also writes on the operative treatment of entropion. **Meller** discusses the formation of the lid in relation to ectropion and trichiasis. **Lowenstein** has suggested the subcutaneous division of the orbicularis muscle for spastic ectropion, an operation he has performed on three cases without accident. After disinfection with tincture of iodin, a one per cent novocain solution with adrenalin is injected in the lower lid 4 to 6 mm. from the lid margin. A horizontal incision is made 5 mm. from the lid border, the point of the knife introduced and the muscle divided, the eyeball being protected by a Jaeger's lid plate. **Claiborne** has written on the use of electrolysis for removal of lashes displaced after trachoma.

For displacement of the lashes caused by curvature of the cartilage of the upper lid **von Blaskovics** has resorted to the excision of the greater portion thru the palpebral conjunctiva, without disturbing the skin of the lid. The incision is made parallel to the lid margin after the lid has been strongly everted. Fixation of the cartilage is obtained by two pairs of forceps introduced at either end of the incision. The desired triangular piece is excised and three sutures introduced to bring the conjunctiva together, the ends being carried thru the cut edge of cartilage to be tied on the skin surface of the lid.

ECTROPION. — In **Reese's** case of cicatricial ectropion of both lids, all scar tissue was excised and the lids sutured together by Hunter's method; the denuded area was covered by a Wolfe graft from the arm. The result was very satisfactory and cosmetically better than the other eye, which was similarly affected and had been operated upon with a pedunculated flap from the forehead.

Von Herrenschwand, in an extended paper, well illustrated, discusses the treatment of congenital ectropion and entropion. He points out that in con-

genital ectropion of the conjunctiva the cartilage does not curve out with the lid, but is convex outward as in entropion. Acquired entropion, on the other hand, has the cartilage concave outward, its free edge being displaced outward, carrying the lashes and lid margin.

Higgens remarked that for a long time he had tried to make good deficiencies by the use of other bodies, such as celluloid, fluid celluloid and paraffin. His present conclusion is that the only way to treat these cases successfully is by transplanting a piece from the patient, or living tissue from another. He had not tried to implant bone, but had used cartilage with great satisfaction. He always aimed at using tissue from the vicinity, turning up a flap with a pedicle, always avoiding the use of scar tissue; where possible, it was best to cut away every bit of scar tissue and unite edges accurately. One thing he had done which answered excellently for sockets and that was to replace conjunctiva by conjunctiva, and that could generally be managed in a large war hospital, because, unfortunately, there were always men who had lost their eyes and whose sockets were so damaged that they could not be restored and the conjunctiva left was available for other cases.

One of his favorite operations was similar to one described by Major Gillies. Where there was good skin, he took a piece and dissected it up, leaving a pedicle close to the outer canthus. He then bored a hole underneath the outer canthus, pulled the piece of skin in, fixed it in position with sutures, and stuffed the cavity with gauze, and repeated the stuffing until all was healed. A tunnel was left under the lid, which, as a rule, closed of itself; if not, he slit it up and sewed the margin to the edge of the flap. He filled large depressed cicatrices by muscle or other tissue from the same patient. He thought that no hard and fast rules could be laid down in plastic operations; each case was peculiar to itself. Certain things were essential: The surgeon should possess a certain operative capacity, considerable manual dexterity, ingenuity, and above all, unlimited patience. A single operation might require from 2 to 3 hours. He always used antiseptics, but it was impossible to keep the eye, nose, etc., aseptic. It was extraordinary how wounds in the face healed, even when it seemed there was no chance of healing taking place. He believed soldier patients were better subjects than were usually found in civil practice.

Butler writes that whereas before the war, injuries of the lids requiring extensive plastic surgery were not common, and few ophthalmic surgeons obtained sufficient practice to become really proficient in this branch, the war has supplied a very large number of cases, and great progress has been made; old methods have been perfected and new ones devised. The cases fall naturally under two heads: Deformities and malposition of the lids, caused by wounds and by contracting scar tissues; and actual loss, partial or complete, of one or both lids. The operations which he employs to remedy these defects are of three types: pedunculated flaps; VY and sliding operations; and grafting. In the large majority of war injuries he always uses a pedunculated flap. But when the deformity has been produced by burns, a flap cannot always be obtained, and then he resorts to grafting.

The degree of success gained is largely influenced by the state of the lid edges. Given an uninjured margin a satisfactory lid should be obtained by a well planned attack. But if the lid margin be absent, or seriously damaged, then the final result is apt to be imperfect. The object of these plastic operations is generally a cosmetic one, to remove deformity with a minimum scarring, and to enable an artificial eye to be comfortably worn. Often several operations are necessary. The VY method (often called the Wharton-Jones method) has proved unsuitable except in the most trivial cases. The Wolfe or whole skin graft is sometimes very successful, but has in the opinion of the writer been largely superseded by the new Esser epithelial outlay plan. The advantages of this

method, which has immense possibilities in suitable situations, are three: The graft invariably takes, allows free liberation of the contracted area and can be used when older procedures can not be applied. Its disadvantage seems to be that the cosmetic effect is mediocre; the graft has a wrinkled parchment-like appearance and some depression remains.

The operation is carried out as follows: An incision is made along the edge and all adhesions and bands are freely separated; the skin is undermined in such wise that a pouch is formed. A piece of dental "stent" or dental "molding wax" is warmed and molded till it fits into the pouch easily. The epithelial skin graft is now sewn round the stent, which is put into the pouch, and the edges of the pouch are united with 4 or 5 sutures. In from a week to ten days the wound opens spontaneously or is opened and the stent is removed. The pouch will be found to be lined with epithelium. It gradually unfolds, liberating the contracted lid. All the details of the operation are important. The graft which much be 1¼ inches square, thin and not including any subcutaneous tissue, is cut from the flexor surface of the forearm, arm, or inner aspect of the thigh. The graft is spread out with the raw surface downwards, the stent is placed on it and the graft sewn round it with fine catgut; when the unfolding is complete, it may be necessary to excise the edges, which may remain hard and raised. Immediate grafting of burns should be employed to prevent contraction.

Pedunculated flaps, generally cut from the cheek or temple, have given uniformly good results and are employed in preference to any other method when the conditions are favorable. Even apparently trivial displacements of the lid are more satisfactorily treated by flaps than by procedures which seem to be less formidable.

The first essential in all plastic work is to avoid tension, and when this is not possible, to reduce it to a minimum, and to transfer the tension to a spot where aseptic healing is more certain than it is at the actual seat of injury. A VY flap involves considerable tension at the site of the deformity, and close to the lid edges. A little suppuration is more likely to occur here than on the temple; it may vitiate the result and the resulting cicatrix will be bad and in an exposed situation. If some suppuration takes place along the edge of the transplanted flap, the final result is not prejudiced. The flap will always be taken from the temple unless local conditions forbid. If both lids be displaced, two flaps are cut, one from the cheek and the other from the temple. The objection to the cheek flap is that it leaves a scar, which, however, is rarely marked. The scar from the temple flap must be kept close to the outer canthus; it then lies in wrinkled skin and soon becomes invisible.

Morrison describes his method of using the cuticular layer in performing canthoplasty. After local anesthesia with cocain in the conjunctival sac, followed by infiltration of the region with a ½% solution of novocain, to which a few drops of adrenalin are added, a cataract knife is entered at the commissure, splitting the skin and pushed outwards approximately ⅓ of an inch, the skin being kept on a stretch. The knife is at all times perfectly visible beneath the cuticle and this layer is separated from the cutis by "working" the point and body of the knife from side to side until the skin is split into two layers. Next an incision involving the cuticle only, is made, commencing at a point about ⅛ of an inch above the commissure and passing upward and outward for ⅓ of an inch. A similar incision starts the same distance below the commissure and extends to a like distance downward and outward. The little flap now formed is reflected toward the temple, and then all remaining structures, including the deep skin layer, with muscle, etc., are divided with the scissors in the usual way. Finally the apex of the cuticular flap is sutured with fine silk to the middle of the original canthus and one similar suture is

placed at the upper and one at the lower edge of the flap to prevent curling.

In oculo-palpebral prothesis, **Ricchi** advises first constructing a wax model by applying with wax an artificial eye to the cutaneo-orbital cavity; the lids are then modelled in wax softened by heat. From this model a negative is made in white caoutchouc to which the artificial eye is attached. The entire apparatus is held in place by a spectacle frame and colored in oil. The frame should carry convex lenses of greenish yellow or cobalt tint. At a distance the cosmetic result is very satisfactory.

Danis employs a modification of Snellen's operation of cutaneous autoplasty for reconstruction of the lower culdesac. The operation is done in two stages, as described in the year book (v. xiii, p. 313). The two advantages of the operation over that of Snellen are better nutrition of the flap, and the conjunctival and cutaneous suturing is rendered much easier by the liberation of the lower eyelid. Two cases in which the operation was performed are referred to.

Mayou referred to the fact that usually when evisceration was done the flaps were allowed to fall back into the cavity, which was subsequently skin grafted, requiring two or three months to heal, leaving a deep hole. It was his practice to sew up the skin entirely. The skin was first dissected off the tarsal cartilage and reflected around the orbit. The periosteum was then incised and stripped up from the orbital walls and the contents evacuated in the ordinary way. The orbit was subsequently closed by sewing the skin tightly together over it. The wound in most the cases united, but even where the stitches did not entirely hold, healing was much facilitated. In one or two of his earlier cases, he filled up the orbit with decalcified bone, but now he regards that as unnecessary, as the blood clot was sufficient.

To replace a lid destroyed by a malignant pustule in childhood, **Soria** took a long flap of skin, extending below the ear, according to Snydacker's method with entire success.

Ormond believed that there were three types when operative interference was called for in the way of plastic surgery. The first was at the very early stages, almost as soon as the patient was wounded, in which a slight stitching or pulling together of the edges of the lids, would greatly assist the subsequent condition. The second, when those who were in charge of these cases a week or more after they had been wounded and had to look after them for weeks subsequently could aid in the success of the final (third) attempts at plastic surgery. As regards the Esser method, he calls attention to a small technical point, namely, that when making the wax model of the space it was desired to fill with epithelial tissue, it was difficult to hold the piece of wax; he had found that if in modelling it, one arranged to leave a piece for holding it by drawing out a bit as a handle, it obviated the liability to slip, and the piece could easily be snipped off afterwards.

In **Komoto's** case, the entire lower lid of the right eye and the inner portion of the upper lid of the left eye had been destroyed, probably as a result of congenital lues. The lower lid was formed by incising the skin of the cheek horizontally and detaching the flap upwards toward the eyeball and covering the fresh surface with the skin flap by Fricke's method. Upon the left side the defect was covered by a long-tongue-shaped flap whose apex extended, in part, as far as the eyebrows, so that hairs having the appearance of cilia came to be placed upon the newly formed lid margins.

Wyler's operation of canthoplasty in trachoma is intended to apply a radical measure which will relieve the blepharospasm and enlarge the lid fissure permanently to get improved drainage and make topical applications easier and more efficient. The ordinary canthoplasty uses the dissected conjunctiva to cover the tissue denuded by the splitting of the lids. This proves unavailing in trachoma as the contracted, scarred membrane is already too

small for its required function. Wyler's idea is based upon the use of a small skin flap to cover the denuded canthoangle. Its performance is possible in any complication, and practically painless with local anesthesia.

Von Blaskovics describes two types of operation for traumatic coloboma of the lids which is the most frequent injury to the eyelids in war. In the first type the eyelid is torn away from the canthus, usually the inner one. A scar varying in length, runs downward from the angle of the lids, anchoring the lid fast in a position of ectropion. The difficulty of suturing the eyelid to its original position is due to the absence of a sufficient raw surface at the canthus, whereby a proper union of the wound edges and a satisfactory adhesion of the eyelid in its original position can be obtained. Under these conditions, the ectropion returns thru renewed retraction after operation.



Fig. 1. Blaskovics' operation for ectropion with spur flap; outlined incisions.

In order to correct this defect, it has seemed advisable to fasten the lid to the canthus in a way which can be described as hanging the lid upon a small flap or spur. The method is extremely simple and consists of the following steps: (a) The scar is outlined by two parallel incisions which are joined at their extremities; after thoroly excising the scar tissue as well as the lateral strands, the lower lid is perfectly free. (b) At the inner margin of the wound a flap is formed with its base at the level of the angle of the lids. Fig. 1. (c) At the temporal margin of the wound just below the adherent margin of the lid a straight incision is made into the skin. This small incision gapes in the form of a triangle and serves to receive the little flap decribed in (b). (d) The wound edges are carefully united (Fig. 2.). The little spur like flap fits smoothly into the triangular gaping wound just described; the remainder of the wound can be sutured with a continuous suture. Recovery is smooth and without relapses. The new adhesion of the lid was always sufficiently strong and the spur like flap gave a large enough raw surface to which to unite the lid; the spur itself becomes a part of the skin of the lid. The operation is as well suited to the upper lid as to the lower.



Fig. 2. Blaskovics' ectropion operation with flaps sutured in position.

The second procedure is suited for those uncommon colobomata of the lower lid in which the margin of the lid has suffered traumatism in its middle part. After cicatrization of these wounds at the line of separation of the lids, there is a cicatricial layer between the two margins of the lid and ectropion occurs. (a) The first incision is made at about 1 cm. below and parallel with the margin of the lid and thruout the whole length of the lid (b) The scar is then circumscribed by two incisions which run vertical to the margin of the lid and completely separate the bridging flap. (c) The scar is thoroly dissected and its lateral expansions excised. (d) The margin of the coloboma are then approximated by

three interrupted sutures; the ectropion is thereby corrected and a semilunar raw surface is formed below the sutured lateral flap. (e) To cover this wound surface another curved incision is made running from the lower margin toward the temple. The apex of this newly formed flap is 1.5 to 2 cm. to the temporal side of the inner canthus. (f) After detaching this flap, a triangular piece of skin and subcutaneous fat is excised from the lower margin; the base is dissected up and measures 1.5 cm. (d) The columns of this triangle are first united. The flap is thereby displaced toward the nose and covers the defect by occupying a broader surface of raw area than before. The flap is then sutured with a continuous suture. The results of this procedure were just as good as the first one. The flaps unite, owing to their broad base, without any trouble. The position of the lid is normal. Relapses were not observed.

Cary states that the difference between his operation for repair of the tarsus and previous methods is that he corrects the pathology of the lid. When pannus is present, he removes the diseased portion of the orbicularis and squeezes and rolls out the indurated masses under the lid, just as is done in an expression operation for trachoma. When the tarsal fascia has become thick and forms a band, he introduces a spatula under this band and removes the excessive amount of fibrous tissue. He never buttonholes the conjunctiva unless by accident. In early cases it is not necessary to cut the tarsus.

Plastic Operations.—In a discussion upon plastic operations upon the eyelids before the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom, **Clegg** called attention to the enormous increase in the need of such operations following war injuries as compared with civil practice. For ptosis he had often done Hess's operation with advantage: in one case where the result was not successful, the Dieffenbach operation was satisfactory. For trichiasis he usually performed a van Millingen. Recently he had a case with adhesion and marked symblepharon; in this case he used a Thiersch graft, after separating the lower lid from the globe; in order to fix the Thiersch graft in position and get a good firm support, he put a Snellen prothesis in the conjunctival sac in front of the eye for 5 or 6 days, with a very satisfactory result.

In the same discussion **Cruise** called attention to the flaw in plastic operations, that contraction went on with consequent shrinkage, so that final results were not as satisfactory as the immediate ones. **Gillies** showed the great improvement brought about by plastic operations upon the eyelids, by a large number of photographs which were exhibited by the epidiascope. **Riegel** in a Würzburg thesis, contributes to the literature on plastic operations.

Tartois reports satisfactory use of the whole skin from the upper lid, in blepharoplasty without pedicle. But his results are reported too early to show the effect of slow contraction common in flaps including the whole thickness of the skin. **Axenfeld** has described blepharoplasty in which using the skin of the ear he included with it the whole thickness of the muscle. **Goldschmidt** demonstrated a case of anophthalmos in which lids had been built up by the use of ear cartilage and Thiersch grafts after excision of the scar tissue. **Kuhnt** in a systematic article which is itself largely an abstract of the literature, reviews at length the principles involved in plastic operations on the eyeball, lids and orbit.

Wood's work consists in making metal masks for facial wounds; it is in the nature of sculpture and has no real connection with surgery. The plate is adjusted by strong spectacles at the requisite angle to give a well distributed pull. Where the plate is large, an elastic band around the back of the head is necessary. Two illustrative diagrams accompany the paper. **Carsten** has also reported a method of ecblepharon prothesis in which the imitation lids and eyeball are supported, as in Wood's work, by spectacle frames especially adapted to the face.

DISEASES OF THE ORBIT

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This section carries the literature of the subject from June, 1918, to July, 1919. For previous references see A. J. O., October, 1918, p. 174. For related topics see sections on Eyeball p. 213 and Diseases of the Lids, p. 236.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

ANATOMY.—**Hueber** gives a description of a rare muscle, the *transverse orbital muscle,* first brought to attention by Bochdalek in 1868. Hueber found this transverse orbital muscle in a woman 30 years of age, in both orbits. The muscle originates with a flat horizontal tendon, at the medial orbital wall directly behind the trochlea, runs laterally below the superior oblique and divides at the medial side of the levator palpebrae in two bundles, the weakest of which flexes backward; the strongest perforates the levator muscle in such a way that most of the levator fibres pass over the transverse muscle, and a bundle of about 3 mm. broad passes below the transverse muscle.

The part of the transverse muscle which goes thru the levator muscle, goes laterally, courses over the lateral rectus, then below the lacrimal gland and forms an insertion at the lateral wall of the orbit. The inferior portion of the levator muscle forms especially at the lateral side, a strongly developed superior tarsal muscle. At the lateral side a part of the fibres of the superior tarsal muscle go behind the lacrimal gland and insert at the lateral orbital wall. The transverse muscle unites now with this part of the superior tarsal muscle; they form together a thin tendon, which has grown together with the underlying capsule of Tenon and attaches itself the width of 1 cm. at the lateral orbital wall.

In the course of the superior tarsal muscle we find therefore a hiatus in which the lower lacrimal gland is situated. At the right side, where the transverse muscle is somewhat more developed the hiatus is absent; the superior tarsal muscle continues without interruption in the transverse muscle; the lower lacrimal gland lies here upon the superior tarsal muscle. At the right side the transverse muscle lies almost entirely below the levator muscle; only a few very small muscular bundles of the levator pass below the transverse muscle.

PULSATING EXOPHTHALMOS.—**Augstein's** case of bilateral pulsating exophthalmos occurred in a man, a mason by occupation, who, in 1910, fell down three flights into the court-yard and suffered a fracture of the left inferior border of the orbit. In four weeks he was apparently well and was able to follow his occupation. On February 1, 1915, he received a gun shot injury

from close by, tearing the soft tissues on the left side of the face and neck. The ascending ramus of the jaw and the zygomatic bone were demolished and the carotid artery was almost exposed. Paralysis of the facial. He complained of bad vision, diplopia and constant noises in the head. When lying on the left side vertigo set in. On bending or on physical exertion the noises became louder. Intense edema of the lower lid.

The veins of the upper lids were engorged and tortuous, more marked on the right side than on the left. Both eyes were proptosed, the right eye measured 23 mm., the left 20 mm. with Hertel's exophthalmometer. The intraocular pressure was raised to R. 38 mm. Hg., L. 42 mm. Hg. Pulsation could be felt over the closed lids, and on auscultation, a blowing sound could be heard over the whole head. On compressing the left carotid, both noises and pulsation ceased. Ligation of the left common carotid was done with good results.

Salus reported a case of bilateral pulsating exophthalmos in a soldier, aged 22 years, who had received a shrapnel injury which entered on the outer side of the right eye and was later extracted from the vicinity of the neck. Immediately after the injury the patient noticed that the right eye was blind, both eyes proptosed, and he felt an intermittent "howling" noise. On examination both eyelids showed, in the skin, tortuous and engorged vessels. Near the inner canthus, above and below the tarsal ligament, there was a pulsating tumor, giving a thrill to the finger.

The exophthalmos measured: R. 25., L. 24 mm. A change in the position of the head did not affect the measurements. Ophthalmoscopic examination of the right eye showed the picture of traumatic retinitis proliferans with large connective tissue bands in the vitreous. The disc and the retinal vessels could not be seen. In the left eye the disc was hyperemic, the arteries normal, but pulsating on slight pressure, the veins were engorged and tortuous toward the periphery. Compression of the right carotid relieved the noises.

Fritsch described a case of pulsating exophthalmos in a woman, aged 60 years, who gave a history of having had protrusion and pulsating of her left eye since her earliest childhood. An injury was not admitted. In later years headaches, vertigo and head noises became intolerable. The blood pressure was 155—120 mm. The left eye was proptosed and pulsated synchonously with the pulse. The tension was +. The ophthalmoscope showed optic atrophy. Ligation of the left common carotid artery brought cessation of the subjective symptoms and the exophthalmos receded.

Bell's case of pulsating exophthalmos was due to fracture of the base of the skull in a man aged 46. Patient fell, striking on the back of his head. At that time patient bled from nose, mouth, and ears, and was unconscious for a few minutes. When he presented himself, he complained of headache, buzzing noises in ears and head. There was much proptosis and marked restriction of ocular movements. On pressing the eyeballs into the orbits pulsation could be seen and felt. Diplopia was present. Over both temporal regions, a bruit was audible, more marked on the right side. There was engorgement of the retinal veins in both eyes, and some chorio-retinitis in the right. The exophthalmos in the right eye was 24 and in the left 22. X-ray plate showed diseased ethmoids and frontals, but no fracture could be made out. This was an aneurism of the internal carotid in the cavernous sinus. Ligation of the right common carotid was advised. A month after the operation the bruit had disappeared and the exophthalmos diminished.

Boot presented a case of spontaneous pulsating exophthalmos in a woman, aged 21 years. There was no history of trauma, overstrain or sickness. The nose and nasal accessory sinuses were normal. The right eye was more prominent than the left by 3 mm. There was a soft swelling on the right side of the nose. On palpitating this swelling a thrill was felt and a bruit was heard

over the whole face. Ligation of the right common carotid effected a cure.

Zeemann described a case of pulsating exophthalmos in a woman, aged 53, years. She complained first of a haze before the left eye. Wassermann positive. In spite of specific treatment her condition became worse. When seen again, the eye was blind and was proptosed forward 7.5 mm. No souffle was heard, nor did the patient notice any bruit. A Krönlein operation was performed and a pulsating mass could be felt above the optic nerve which was tied off. During manipulation a place of such slight resistance in the roof of the orbit was found, that an absorbtion thru the aneurism seemed present. This was later verified by the X-ray. A year later the protrusion had increased and she died from multiple myelomata. **Komoto** and **Okayama** describe an operation for pulsating exophthalmos.

Gibson presented a case of pulsating exophthalmos due to rupture of the carotid into the cavernous sinus. It occurred in a woman of 19, who had a fall from a horse. The left shoulder and the left side of her face were bruised.. The left eye became black and swollen. Later the eye became proptosed, pulsated, and a very loud bruit could be heard over the left temple. Ligation of the left common carotid was performed which caused the symptoms to disappear. **Damel** and **Barrios'** case of arterio-venous aneurism occurred in a man 61 years of age, with a good family and personal history. He first noticed diplopia, facial paralysis with subsequent pulsating exophthalmos directed straight forward. Motility and sensibility conserved. Vision normal. On pressing the eyeball back into the orbit, pulsation could be felt. A loud blowing sound could be heard on auscultation. Compression of the common carotid brought only partial relief, and ligation of the artery was advised.

Intermittent Exophthalmos. —**Schruender** describes a case of intermittent exophthalmos in a man aged 42 years, who 22 years previously suffered a severe fall. He was unconscious for a while and had a gaping wound on the right upper lid. Sixteen years later, protosis of the left eyeball occurred, which changed according to the position of the head. On bending over, a dollar sized swelling would appear in front of the left ear, also the left side of the upper lip would show a swelling. Compression of the left jugular vein was not tolerated well, the patient experienced a sense of fullness in the head with palpitation and a sense of fear. Interference with the venous return flow from the orbit was looked upon as the cause.

Zeemann demonstrated a patient with intermittent exophthalmos, and the photographic displacements of the cornea under influence of different movements which hinder the venous flow. The author considers it not proven, that the cause might be a narrowing of the jugular vein. **von Hippel** also described a case of intermittent exophthalmos.

Zlocisti gave the clinical histories of four cases of intermittent exophthalmos occurring in patients suffering with typhus fever. In all cases there was some lagophthalmos and all showed the Graefe, Stellwag and Möbius signs more or less. Irritation of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system is given as the probable cause. His fifth case was one of exophthalmos due to a retro-orbital abscess, which receded after evacuation of the pus.

Varicocele of Orbit.—**Zeemann's** case of intermittent exophthalmos was due to varicocele of the orbit. It occurred in a man, a gardner by occupation, who had noticed for the past 8 years, that while stooping over his right eye would protrude forward. The left palpebral aperture was a little wider than the right, but when the patient fixed an object, the right palpebral became 13 mm. while the left was 11 mm. The author explains this intermittent exophthalmos as the effect of a varicocele. The enlargement of the veins of the orbit is accompanied in all such cases by enlargement of the entrance into the sinus cavernosus. This explains the enoph-

thalmos when the head is held in certain positions.

Orbital Cyst.—**Gifford** gave the history and treatment of the three cases of blood cysts of the orbit. In his first case the contents of the orbit were exposed by the Krönlein method and a dark colored cyst was found within the muscle funnel. This was secured by passing a suture through its wall and a brownish fluid was evacuated. It was swabbed out with dry swabs, then with swabs dipped in 95% phenol, the latter being passed firmly down to the end of the cavity and finally, with swabs dipped in alcohol. The second and third case were treated likewise. In all three cases the cysts were found to be multilocular.

Cavernous Sinus Thrombosis. — **Smith** reviews the salient facts known about cavernous sinus thrombosis, and describes the history of five cases occurring in his practice. He concludes that a study of septic cavernous sinus thrombosis indicates:

1. The hopelessness of any but surgical measures, first to the source of infection, second to the sinus itself.

2. Septic cavernous sinus thrombosis is an operable condition if opened and drained early.

3. An early definite diagnosis can be made in at least some cases.

4. A larger number of cases operated upon is necessary before any more definite conclusion can be drawn.

Obital Hemorrhage.—**Pissarello** described a case (O. Y. B. 12, 287) of spontaneous subperiosteal *hematoma* of the orbital roof in a peasant, 47 years of age, suffering with arteriorsclerosis. There was enormous proptosis and lagophthalmos with ulceration of the cornea.

Among many cases of exophthalmos due to gun-shot injuries, **Cords** singled out a group of cases of tense orbital hermorrage having the following symptoms: The exophthalmos is very marked, amounting almost to a luxation; it may be 1 cm. or more. Reposition is impossible. The motility is absent or almost so and the eyeball is fixed. The mucosa surrounds the cornea like a thick blueish-red wall. The cornea is not covered by the lids and is consequently subject to desiccation.

Luxation of the Eyeball.—**Weigelin** observed a case of spontaneous luxation of the right eye of a man, aged 20 years, who in early youth had lost the sight through atrophy of the optic nerve in consequence of caries of the orbital bones. The eye was abducted and a slight exophthalmos was present. On several occasions the eye became dislocated anterior to the lids. A tarsorrhaphy was made with good results.

Cellulitis.—**Jickeli** gave this history of three cases of acute exophthalmos occurring in soldiers 19, 24 and 29 years of age respectively. Examinations of the nose and nasal sinuses were negative. The first case diagnosed as orbital cellulitis had a previous attack of rhinitis, the two latter cases were as sequels of influenza and were due to retrobulbar cellulitis. **Wallace** gave the history of a boy aged 12, who had a swelling and edema of the right eyelids. The skin around the orbit was swollen, the temporal muscle indurated and the eye very prominent. No nasal or sinus disease was found. X-ray examination not made. Incision through the eyebrow revealed some pus. Later some pus came from an opening below the lower lid to the outer side, and finally pus was evacuated 4 inches above the right ear.

Emphysema of Orbit.—**Beauvieux'** case of emphysema of the orbit came on after receiving a blow in the right orbital region while cranking an automobile. Patient felt no inconvenience until after blowing his nose fifteen minutes later, a sensation of a break in the superior internal orbital region was felt, later the eyelids became swollen, the eyeball proptosed 5 mm. and deviated downward and outward.

Syphilis.—**Weve** described a case of tertiary syphilis of the maxillary antrum and the orbit. **Charlin** gives the clinical histories of ten cases of orbit-cranial syphilis. **Schulmann's** pa-

per dealt with syphilitic exophthalmic goiter.

Enophthalmos.—**Pichler** gave the detailed histories of 28 cases of traumatic enophthalmos. In most cases, if not in all, fractures in the bony orbital walls were present. This and contracting scar tissue were given as the causes of the retraction of the globe. **Rados** described a case of congenital retraction of the globe. (See also p. 8.)

Gonzalez reported a case of transient relapsing enophthalmos of sympathetic origin in a woman, aged 25 years, who was in her fourth month of pregnancy. The syndrome began with marked paleness of the left side of her face, specially noticeable in the lids and conjunctiva, which were completely bloodless. A few minutes later the patient had the sensation of sinking of the eyeball; and an examination revealed a narrowing of the palpebral fissure, ptosis, and a recession of the eyeball into the orbit of 5 mm. The pupil was smaller than that of the other eye. The patient could lift the upper lid only to a limited degree. The brow was not drawn up, and there were no wrinkles on the forehead. The ocular movements were difficult and delayed, but the excursions normal. Fundus normal. Tension minus.

After 15 minutes the skin of the lids recovered its color, the palpebral aperture widened, and the eyeball advanced in the orbit and the whole paroxysm ended.

Orbital Disease due to Sinus Disease.—*Mucocele of the Ethmoid.* **van Iterson** reports the case of a woman, 38 years old who had epiphora of the left eye for 15 years. There was a fluctuating swelling in the upper inner angle of the orbit, not painful, with the overlying skin movable. The swelling did not pulsate nor could it be pressed away. The lacrimal sac was normal. The exophthalmos was 1 cm., and the eye was displaced downward and outward. An incision over the fluctuating tumor brought a sterile yellowish fluid. A probe passed through an opening in the bone, went into a large ethmoidal cavity. Rhinologically, absence of the concha media and synechiae between the nasal wall and the septum were found.

Onfray's case of orbital swelling with *abscess* formation was in a boy of 13, of the adenoid type. The right eyelids were swollen and tense, the immobile eyeball pushed forward, downward and outward. In the superior internal angle of the orbit there was a painful swelling which was incised and a quantity of pus evacuated. Seven months later a swelling appeared in the left orbit causing exophthalmos. Intravenous injections of electrargol were made with good results. **Wissmann** described a number of clinical cases of orbital inflammations and their surgical treatments.

Palomar's case of phlegmon of the orbit and of the ocular globe occurred in a woman, aged 39 years, consecutive to a dacryocystitis. The exophthalmos was enormous, the cornea dry and perforated. The eyeball was eviscerated and the lacrimal sac removed.

In discussing injuries and inflammatory diseases affecting the orbit and accessory sinuses, **Mollison** divides his cases in 2 categories: (1) thru and thru wounds, (2) all other wounds. The results of the first of these were the formation of adhesions of the ethmoids. In some cases foreign material had been driven into the frontal sinus. The frontal sinus was often infected. He had seen one case of severe orbital cellulitis in a woman which could be called idiopathic, for the cause could not be traced. In two days she died of extensive pyemia. **McKeown** presented a case of exophthalmos of the left eye, due to ethmoiditis.

Vail communicated the history of four cases of orbital abscess and exophthalmos due to intranasal suppurative processes. His first case was in a woman, aged 27 years, who had acute exophthalmos from orbital abscess of the right side, followed by thrombosis, first of the right cavernous sinus, then of the left, and finally of all the anterior cerebral sinuses with general septic leptomeningitis and death. His second case was in a woman aged 26

years, who developed an acute orbital abscess and exophthalmos of the right eye, and abscess of the nasal septum with complete sloughing of the cartilaginous septum due to abscess of the right posterior ethmoidal cells, enucleation and recovery. The third case occurred in a man of 56, who presented an acute exophthalmos from abscess of the right orbit, due to recrudescence of a chronic empyema of the anterior ethmoidal cells in atrophic rhinitis. Death from abscess of the brain. His last patient, a man aged 52, also had acute exophthalmos from orbital abscess, due to empyema of the right frontal sinus. The eyeball extruded and was dislocated forward, downward and laterally. Recovery.

Good considered orbital abscesses caused by infections of the anatomic structures adjacent to the orbit, with special reference to early intracranial involvement. These abscesses were either subperiosteal, between periosteum and orbital wall, or between the extrinsic muscles with their membranous connections and the periosteum; or between the extrinsic muscles and the optic nerve in the orbit.

Orbital Periostitis. — **McCaw** reported a case of orbital periostitis in a boy aged 15 years, who 2 years previously had been thrown from a truck, striking his nose and eye on the cobblestones. Two weeks ago a swelling appeared over the left eye, midway between the external and internal canthi and a little below the upper rim of the orbit. Puncture of the swelling revealed pus. **Candat's** case of phlegmon of the orbit was preceded by a rhinopharyngitis, then ethmoiditis. **Meierhof** reported two cases of orbital diseases of nasal origin. His first case was one of orbital cellulitis the result of purulent ethmoiditis. The second case, a patient with periostitis of the orbit was also due to purulent ethmoiditis.

Plastic Operations.—In his paper, plastic surgery of the face and orbit in relation to war injuries, **Scarlett** comments on the restoration of the culdesac, to admit a false eye. In a case where the upper lid was intact, he found that a flap of skin from it, with a base at the external angle, sutured into the incision made in the conjunctiva after undermining the edges, proved to be the best method.

In order to obtain a larger movable stump, **Lagrange,** in cases of enucleation, where the other eye is prominent, uses an oval, racket-shaped flap from the temporal region and places it into Tenon's capsule, attaching to it the four straight muscles. In cases where the eye had been enucleated for some time, a similar method was employed. **Kausch** enlarged the shrunken orbital cavity by mobilizing the eyelids, and pressing into the orbit a large tampon, to which were attached Thiersch's grafts of epidermis, sutured with catgut. In five cases, the result of gunshot wounds, the effect was good.

Carlotti publishes 10 cases of enucleation with transplantation of costal cartilage in the orbital cavity. In six cases he employed cartilage with skin, in four cases he used only cartilage, with satisfactory results. He advises the suture of the four straight recti muscles on top of the cartilage and then to sew up the conjunctiva.

Henderson's procedure in the case of retraction of the inferior fornix is as follows: The whole depth of the lower lid is grasped with fixation forceps, and a suture with curved needles at both ends is introduced from within, brought out a full half inch below the lid margin. At least two such sutures are inserted and tied firmly over a piece of rubber tubing. The resulting traction pulls the apex of the orbital cavity forward, and at the same time causes the floor to sink into sulcus which will retain an artificial globe in position.

Schwenk and **Posey's** procedure for the restoration of the orbital socket is as follows: Separation of the margins of the two lids from one another and a free dissection of the tissues sublying. Then follows a division of the external canthus. The lower culdesac is then restored by the Maxwell method and the upper by transposing a long flap taken from the skin of the forehead above the brow. The edges of the flap must be coaptated to the margin of the

upper lid, and the upper border of the skin secured by the Maxwell procedure. The next step is the restoration of the external canthus. Two double needled sutures of No. 4 silk are passed thru the skin of the upper pillar of the old canthus and brought out thru the raw surface of the pillar; they are again reunited into the raw surface of the lower pillar, and made to issue upon the skin surface of that structure.

Fromaget, in an interesting article, speaks of the establishment of an orbito-ocular service during the war, equipped with electromagnetic and X-ray apparatus, in which those injured in the orbital region were brought immediately and taken care of. **Sachse** described a new method for reparation of the disfigured orbit. Nine figures accompany the text. For use as support for the surgical reconstruction of the orbit, **Bruhn** has described an apparatus which is used to prevent the shrinking of the conjunctiva, or after injury to the bony part, to act as a brace to the collapsing tissues. Several illustrations exemplify the construction and use of the apparatus.

Posey called attention to an article by Magitot and Landrieu who had modified the Krönlein operation. The original method is followed until the resection of the bone is reached. Then the bony resection is made with a Gigli or wire saw, which is entered thru the pterygomaxillary fissure into the orbit.

Ocular Prothesis.—In order to improve the contact of the ocular prothesis with the stump, **Sondermann** has devised a modification of the simple glass eye. He fastens to the concave side of the prothesis four small pegs or projections, which press somewhat into the stump and in this manner form a more intimate contact between the stump and glass eye.

Dimitry suggests that the principle of suction thru a vacuum be taken advantage of to hold an artificial eye in position. He mentions three possible methods: One, that an opening be made on the posterior surface of the prothesis, 4 to 12 mm. in diameter; second, that there be a concavity with a rim around it on the posterior surface of the prothesis so as to form a band; third, that a rubber cap be put on the posterior surface of a Snellen eye to cause suction.

Injection for Painful Eyes.—**Grüter** described his technic for orbital injections of alcohol, for the alleviation of pain in blind eyes. He first cocainizes the conjunctival sac, then injects a 2% solution of novocain with a curved canula on the temporal and nasal sides around the posterior pole of the eyeball. This is followed 5 minutes later with an injection of 1 cc. of 80% alcohol in such a way that the vicinity of each of the ciliary nerves is equally infiltrated.

Exophthalmic Goiter. — **Wilson**, who studied experimental lesions in the cervical sympathetic ganglia in relation to exophthalmic goiter, concludes: That it would appear that irritation from the presence of certain bacteria within the cervical sympathetic ganglia of the goat, may produce histologic pictures within the ganglia and in the thyroid which parallel those found in the various stages of progressive and regressive exophthalmic goiter. This evidence supports the suggestion that in exophthalmic goiter the thyroid receives its stimulus to overfunction thru its nerve supply and as a result usually of local infection in the cervical sympathetic ganglia.

Janney has proposed to discard the seemingly inadequate hyperthyroid explanation and substitute for it "dysfunction" of the thyroid to explain the phenomena. In the light of this we can now understand that some of the symptoms of exophthalmic goiter, the thyroid enlargement, cutaneous symptoms, scleroma, osseous changes, and special metabolic manifestation, such as hypoglycemia, are identical with those of a hypothyroidism attributable to a poorly functioning gland. They are truly symptoms of thyroid deficiency which have usually been disregarded in the symptomatology.

The more familiar manifestations, psychic stimulations, tremor, tachycardia, increased basal metabolism, etc., are toxic symptoms which he assigns to the liberation of intermediate prod-

ucts of poisonous nature, perhaps owing to the incapacity of the glands to produce the normal thyroid hormone. In exophthalmic goiter, then, a toxic substance is circulating in the system. With a defective endocrin secretory function postulated, it becomes evident how hypothyroid and toxic symptoms may be discovered concomitantly.

Gittens reported a case of exophthalmic goiter in a girl aged 11 years, who some time after an attack of sore throat and articular pains, developed a well marked case of the disease. In **Chauffard** and **Monnet's** case of exophthalmic goiter in a girl aged 21 years the usual symptoms of the affection developed after a severe mental shock. She also showed change of character with mental instability. In addition, there was edematous swelling of face, affecting the eyelids and cheeks.

Rondopoulo has been examining persons with a tendency to nephritis in order to detect exophthalmos. He found it in two among 52 cases. The exophthalmos was of the goiter type, with positive Graefe and Stellwag or Möbius signs.

Electric Treatment.—**Olivier** reports two cases, for which he bespeaks interest on account of the extreme gravity of the cases as death from inanition or heart failure; and for the intensity of the electric treatment applied. The applications were with 60 volts and 80 milliamperes, with large electrodes to back and neck. One patient took twenty-seven half hour sittings, the other took forty-two; daily at first and later at intervals of a week. The patients were soon restored to clinical health.

X-ray Treatment—**Hernaman-Johnson,** in his paper on the use of X-ray and electricity in exophthalmic goiter, comes to the following conclusions: (a) X-rays are a specific in the sense that the secretion of the thyroid may be diminished to any required degree. (b) Cure cannot be effected in the presence of any persistent irritation, mental or physical, and reduced activity on the part of the ductless glands may be a factor in delaying cure. (c) The bedside administration of X-rays in acute cases threatening life is urgently called for. If, however, the condition of the patient is such that he will evidently die unless the amount of thyroid secretion in his blood can be reduced within a few hours, immediate operation offers the only hope of saving life.

Nordentoft reports fifty cases of exophthalmic goiter given X-ray treatment, and discusses the participation of the thymus. The exposure was made for from forty to sixty minutes, at one sitting. Two or three exposures generally sufficed, with intervals of from four to eight weeks. The subjective improvement was marked from the first, the restlessness, tremor and subjective heart disturbances subsiding first, the goiter and exophthalmos more gradually; the tachycardia last of all. Even in the most favorable cases, the patients still display an unstable pulse and tendency to tachycardia on slight provocation. In several cases the desired effect was realized with a single exposure.

He presents data which sustain the assumption of a "thymus Basedow" and a "thymogenous exophthalmic goiter." If the thymus is mainly responsible, then removal of the thyroid would have little effect on the disease. The thymus is the organ that should be removed in such a case. This might entail spontaneous retrogression of the thyroid.

Secher reports a case of death following X-ray treatment in a woman aged 40, previously healthy until exophthalmic goiter developed. The thyroid was given X-ray treatment, eight exposures, each ½ Sabouraud-Noiré unit, distributed in four fields, three on the thyroid and one on the thymus. Her symptoms became aggravated at once, with restlessness, choreiform movements, pulse 100 to 200, and heart beat up to 240, respiration 72, and death the fifth day.

TUMORS

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This section covers the literature of the subject from July, 1918, to July, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., 1918, October, p. 184.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

LACRIMAL TUMORS. — **Pfingst** removed, from a man, aged 48 years, a slow developing growth of the lacrimal gland, weighing three and one-half drams (Dig. of Lit. 1918, p. 184). It resembled in its make-up neoplasms of the salivary gland, spoken of as *mixed tumors*. It was encapsulated, contained structures found in normal lacrimal glands, a preponderance of fibrous tissue which had undergone myxomatous changes; and in some of the larger spaces, apparently distended gland acini, the epithelial cells had taken on a pearl-like arrangement. The author gives a resumé of the literature which shows quite a diversity of opinion regarding the origin of these growths; some regarding them as springing from epithelial structures, others, endothelial. These tumors occur in adult life, are of slow growth, do not recur, are not associated with enlargement of the lymphatic glands and have never been known to lead to general metastasis.

Würdemann's patient, a colored woman aged 40 years, during the previous two years, noted failing sight, pressure on the eye balls and protrusion of the eye. Bilateral nodular tumors, at the site of the lacrimal glands, were observed. The excised masses were reported by a pathologist as containing ideal miscroscopic *tubercles*. Microscopic section from **Reese's** patient, a female, aged 37 years, showed *adenocarcinoma* of the lacrimal gland. Tumors of the lacrimal gland are discussed by **Pascheff.**

TUMORS OF THE LIDS.—A rare case of *epithelioma* of the lid, in a child aged 5 years, was observed by **Girgis.** The fungating growth covered both lids of the right eye, and extended onto the upper part of the cheek. It measured 2x3x4 cm. The tumor together with surrounding skin, subcutaneous tissue and fat were removed. Thiersch's graft was used. There was no recurrence in sixteen months.

Sweet's patient, a man, aged 26 years, first noticed a swelling of the eyelids two years before coming under observation. There was present a hard mass extending from the inner canthus to midorbital margin. Complete exenteration and microscopic examination of the growth showed an *endothelioma.* Roentgen rays controlled further progress of the disease for eight years. Sarcoma of the lid was observed by **Teitz;** melanosarcoma of the same structure is reported by **Gallemaerts.**

TUMORS OF THE CONJUNCTIVA.—An editorial, in the New York Medical Journal, on *melanotic growths* of the conjunctiva, states that they are either epitheliomatous or sarcomatous according to their starting point in the epithelium or dermis of the mucosa. Epithelioma is painless and offers the characteristic aspect of a sanious irregular ulcer. If not ulcerated it may be mistaken for a pinguecula, a papilloma, or a dermoepithelioma. The starting point is nearly always in the conjunctival fold, which is found at the juncture of the sclerotic and cornea often intruding slightly on the cornea and almost pedunculated. Careful examination of the anterior chamber is useful. In spite of benign appearance these tumors are malignant. Extirpation of the growth and glands and exenteration of the orbit, if necessary, are essential.

Cosmettatos describes a case of *epithelioma* of the ocular conjunctiva in which death resulted from metastasis in the larynx in spite of two operations on the bulbar growth. The first operation was a careful dissection of the tumor

and extirpation including normal conjunctiva, the second, one year later, enucleation and removal of the affected conjunctiva. The growth was found to have invaded the corneal parenchyma and the canal of Schlemm. **Eymann's** patient had a *contact carcinoma* of the conjunctiva and cornea.

A patient with *syphilitic lymphoma* of the conjunctiva with membrane formation was observed by **Gilbert. Stocks'** patient had a *myeloid tumor* of the eye; **Müller's** *bilateral lipodermoid* of the inner canthus; **Brotherus** observed a *polypoid tumor* of the conjunctiva; and **Axenfeld** observed a *dermoid* in the temporo-orbital region.

Uhthoff's patient, with tuberculosis of the conjunctiva and lids, also had, as a complication, a *lymphangioma.* **Schmitt's** patient had a multicentered hemangioma; and a subconjunctival *angioma* was observed by **Herrenschwand.**

Tumors of the Cornea and Limbus. —**Stark's** case report seems unique in that the probable dermoid tumor was nowhere connected with the limbus. The patient was a Mexican girl, aged 15 years. The growth was congenital, occupied the center of the cornea and had a base 8 mm. in diameter. Surrounding the mass was a ring of clear cornea 2 to 3 mm. in width. To the nasal side were several small blood vessels. The tumor was removed and submitted to several pathologists for examination. A report of their findings together with a very good review of the literature bearing on the subject and six illustrations are presented in the contribution.

In spite of the many varieties of corneal affections described, **Feingold** fails to find, even in the best and most modern textbooks, any mention of *granuloma* of the cornea. The author's contribution is interesting, shows careful observation in the report of two case histories accompanied by two illustrations, contains an excellent bibliography and should be read in the original. He divides granulomas into three groups. Granuloma in the region of the cornea, the result of a prolapse of the iris. Those of the cornea extending from the conjunctiva after injury. Thirdly, those of the cornea developing away from the limbus and not the result of perforation. Under etiology the essayist considers two points. Under what condition does granuloma arise in tissues and especially in the cornea? Secondly, why did the destruction of corneal substance not lead to any secondary infection but only to the formation of granulomas? **Steinohrt** writes on the recognition of tumors of the cornea.

Pearce exhibited a patient with a peculiar epithelial growth of the limbus. The patient had been under treatment for several years; the eye being operated upon three times for pterygium with recurrence each time. The cornea is nearly covered with a peculiar epithelial proliferation.

Fischer presented a patient with a history that 17 years previous the mother noticed a small dark colored mass on the "white part of the eye." The author first observed the eye two years previous at which time the growth was 3 mm. in diameter and 3 mm. from the limbus. In the past two years it has progressed 3 mm. to the cornea and 1 mm. onto the cornea. Vision was 19/30, media clear. The question raised was whether to enucleate or shave off and observe the eye.

Fuchs details the pathologic condition present in *carcinoma* of the limbus which invaded the choroid. In another communication the same author reports his observations of the formation of a *lymphoma* at the site of a cystoid scar.

Tumors of the Sclera.—An epibulbar *sarcoma,* in a woman, aged 34 years, was observed by **Collins.** The growth extended from the limbus out and down invading the conjunctiva but leaving the cornea and sclera free. Following removal and radium there was no recurrence present after six months. A demonstration of *melanosarcoma* in a functioning eye was reported by **Kraupa.**

Plocher reports his experience with X-ray therapy in the treatment of epibulbar *carcinoma.* Epibulbar carcinoma is discussed by **Böhm.**

Löwenstein reports an epibulbar *lymphoma*. Epibulbar tumor is the report on **Hofle's** patient. **Kleinertz's** contribution is on epibulbar *chromatophoroma*.

Tumor of the Iris.—**Mulcahy** and **Ewing** had the rare opportunity for a complete study of the pathologic conditions present in a patient with *tuberculoma* of the iris. A girl, aged 3 weeks, was entered in a foundling hospital; about one year later the records show that she had sore left eye and enlarged fingers. At aged 2½ years the authors first observed her. The dactylitis had broken down and had discharged pus. In the anterior chamber in the lower outer quadrant was a small yellowish white mass. Repeated Wassermann tests were negative, two von Pirquet's were negative, a third was mildly positive. The condition did not improve. A one quarter milligram of old tuberculin was administered with a general and focal reaction. Two months later the child had measles followed by lobar pneumonia and died. Pathologic study showed caseation of the bronchial lymph nodes, granulomatous and necrotic inflammation of the bone marrow and the periosteum, in the iris and ciliary body lymphocytes, plasma cells, proliferating blood vessels, etc., changes consistent with a tuberculous origin. The value of the general tuberculin reaction was clearly demonstrated in this case.

Schwenk's patient, a man, aged 24 years, showed two *cysts of the iris*, one at 10 o'clock and the other at 4 o'clock. This very unusual condition presented itself some ten months following the removal of a dislocated lens. At the time of operation the eye had a glaucomatous expression. The fellow eye was lost due to macular choroiditis. A keratome was passed from 4 o'clock to limbus, the cyst wall was engaged with a Tyrrel hook and cut off. Upon looking for the second cyst it could not be found, showing that there must have been a common wall connection. The cysts were supposed to be invagination of epithelium caused by trauma or operation.

Friedenwald did a very large iridectomy for the removal of a spindle celled *sarcoma* of the iris. At the time of reporting the case eighteen months later the vision remained fair with no recurrence. **Berner** states that the sarcoma which he removed from the lower part of the left iris seemed to resemble those in Wood's and Pusey's cases. There has been no sign of recurrence in the case reported during the two years to date, and the vision is 5/10 without glasses. **Hirsch** observed a transplanted epithelial tumor of the iris.

Pockley's patient with sarcoma of the iris was a man, aged 46 years. During the preceding two years the iris had changed from a bright blue to a brown. At the time of first observation there was a moderately acute glaucoma with cyclitic condition present. T + 2. A sclero-corneal trephining with a complete iridectomy was performed following failure of treatment by the use of eserin, purgation, and leeches. About five months later there was present a brownish cheesy substance all over the anterior of the iris. Five days subsequent to this visit the patient had an acute attack of iritis which subsided under treatment. About one year later there was present a large hypopyon-like substance in the anterior chamber, having a course granular appearance (like wet coffee grounds). Lens cataractous. Sections of the excised iris revealed typical multiple melanotic sarcomata.

(*Continued next month*)

OPHTHALMIC YEAR BOOK

TUMORS.

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(*Continued from November issue*)

TUMORS OF THE CILIARY BODY.—**Castelain** observed, during a period of seven months, a patient with, what subsequent microscopic examination showed to be, a sarcoma of the ciliary region. The symtomatology is of interest owing to the character of the pain. This was slight at first, lasted one day, and was not accompanied by injection. Three weeks later there was intense pain preventing sleep and accompanied by a bluish-red injection. The eye was sensitive to touch especially in the upper portion. These symptoms lasted four or five days. About three weeks later he had another attack of pain and again two weeks later. These were more severe and took longer to quiet down. Later attacks were more severe and were accompanied by throbbing of the head; but there were always periods of intermission. Each attack of pain was followed by diminution of vision, of the visual field, and also of tension. It is possible that these attacks were due to traction on the ciliary body which was eventually detached at the site of the tumor. The hypotension noted is contrary to the rule.

Török presented a patient, a female, aged 40 years, with a sarcoma of the ciliary body. There was no evidence of inflammation. The mass pushed the iris forward and extended into half the pupillary area. **Herenschwand's** patient had a ring sarcoma of the ciliary body. The importance of an early diagnosis in melanosarcoma of the ciliary region is discussed by **Marin Amat.**

Ring observed a minute growth on the opaque capsule, in a woman, aged 54 years, operated upon for cataract seven years previous. It apparently proceeded from the ciliary body pressing the iris slightly forward The writer declined to advise enucleation. No change being observed in three months he is inclined to believe it is nonmalignant.

TUMORS OF THE CHOROID.—On pigmentation, *melanoma* and *sarcoma* of the choroid, **Fuchs** discusses certain conditions and varieties of shape found among numerous specimens. He found that in normal pigment epithelium of the choroid, the tint as a whole varies widely, while that of the pigment particles does not. The color of the choroid, as a whole, also varies more than that of the individual pigment granules. It depends upon the number of chromatophores but more especially upon the amount of pigment in these cells. Melanoma, which is very rare, is found in choroids that are well or deeply pigmented, and are diagnosed as such when all the cells in it resemble chromatophores. The fact that the majority of tiny sarcomas are spindle celled and pigmented contradicts the theory that the early form of sarcoma cells is round and nonpigmented. It indicates rather that these tumors are histologically of the same structure at their commencement as they show in their later stages. Case reports and illustrations accompany the contribution.

A melanotic sarcoma the size of a filbert, in a man, aged 47 years, was observed by **Carpenter.** Five years previous the patient observed a defect in vision that eventually ended in blindness. The eye remained quiet until injured shortly before coming under observation, at which time he had severe pain. Examination of the enucleated globe showed the origin of the growth was from the lower and external part of the choroid extending thruout the sclera into the areolar tissue of the orbit. Exenteration was performed sixty

days later. There has been no recurrence during the past three years.

Mendelsohn, while in Siam, observed a man, aged 32 years, with melanotic sarcoma of the choroid. Accompanying pictures show the large mass protruding far out of the orbit. Following operation recovery was uneventful. **Avery** presented a specimen of the eyeball and microscopic slides of a melanosarcoma.

Houwer reports a necrotic sarcoma of the choroid, in a gravid woman, aged 24 years. At the time of first observation there was present an acute inflammatory process resembling panophthalmitis. Three weeks later the sight was poor, the eye became quiet, in the vitreous was a thick opacity which was believed to be the remnant of an abscess; in the fundus, scars of a retino-choroiditis. Fifteen years later the patient returned with a more severe attack at which time the eye was enucleated; a mass filling half the bulb was discovered. It had become necrotic remaining latent and then started to grow, subsequently becoming necrotic again. No explanation could be found for the total absence of plastic iridocyclitis, the necrosis being due to insufficient vascularization.

Nance exhibited a patient, a man, aged 24 years, with an intraocular growth which seemed to arise from the superior temporal aspect of the eye, probably from the retina or choroid, extending downward and to the nasal side, well circumscribed, yellowish white in color, and several well defined blood vessels. It suggested glioma, but this never occurs in an adult. Sarcoma of the choroid may or may not be pigmented, so called *leucosarcoma* rarely occurs. The author was inclined to give the latter as his best guess. Sight in the eye had been failing during the previous eight months and a white object had been noticed in the pupil during a part of this time. Choroidal sarcoma is discussed by **Ballaban.**

Allen refers to three patients with sarcoma of the choroid and one with a gliosarcoma. Specimens shown illustrate the four stages, simple detachment of the retina, glaucomatous, fungating, and metastatic. Since reporting the above the author has had four operations for malignant disease of the globe. One case history is reported in detail. The patient complained of loss of vision in the right eye. Examination disclosed a large retinal detachment below. Neoplasm was not diagnosed at this time. The patient returned later with an attack of acute glaucoma. Neoplasm was then suspected and enucleation advised; but the patient refusing, a large iridectomy was made. Eye quiet and patient returned to work for several months. later, upon the return of pain, the patient submitted to an enucleation. An *endothelioma* filling two thirds of the globe was found.

Shiosi observed metastatic choroidal *carcinoma* in a man, aged 24 years. The primary focus was in the breast; after extirpation it recurred in the lung and right eye. Histologic examination confirmed the diagnosis. This is the fifty-seventh case reported since Perl's first communication. **Fehr's** report contains ophthalmoscopic pictures of metastatic choroid carcinoma. Treatment in bilateral choroidal carcinoma is reviewed by **Igersheimer. Carruthers** exhibited a patient with an intraocular tumor, probably of four months duration. Optic neuritis was present. The condition showed improvement, short of cure, following the use of mercury and iodides.

TUMORS OF THE RETINA.—**Traquair's** report of *hereditary glioma* of the retina, is the eighth on record, and the third with transmission from the father. The father lost one eye at the age of 6 months. Following marriage there was one stillbirth, and later, a male child at 6 weeks developed glioma. The eye was removed but four years later the child died from general metastasis. The third, a female, developed glioma at 6 years. Refused operation; child died soon after from bronchopneumonia.

Two patients with glioma were observed by **Pockley.** The first was an infant, aged 8 months, who had had purpura hemorrhagica. The second, an

infant, aged 18 months, had an interesting family history. The mother was blind in one eye (cataract and no projection) and partial cataract in the other; fundi obscured. The mother's mother was blind in one eye, cause unknown. The father lost both eyes due to glioma in infancy. Two of the father's sisters had had both eyes removed for "growths" in infancy.

The distinctive features of **Lawson's** case of recurrent glioma was the failure of radium treatment, the purely local nature of the recurrence, which was practically a continuation of the original tumor outside the globe, rapid growth, absence of metastasis and the excellent general health of the patient until protrusion into the mouth had taken place. The mass after death had a circumference of 16¾ inches and weight of 43 ounces. **Kümmell's** report deals with his experience with the use of X-ray in the treatment of glioma of the retina.

From his experience, with three cases of glioma of the retina, **Duncan** is warranted in concluding, that in early cases immediate enucleation followed by prophylactic radium radiation, a high percentage of recurrences would be prevented. Later cases, in which nerve and orbital tissue is involved, require immediate enucleation followed by proper radium treatment. In recurrent cases radium therapy is a most effective method of treatment. The first patient, a boy aged 6 years, with a large intraocular glioma, together with involvement of the optic nerve, showed no recurrence in eighteen months. The second patient, a girl aged 2½ years, with involvement or the orbital tissue, showed pronounced improvement despite very irregular attention to treatment. The third patient, aged 27 months, with a growth involving the whole retina to the lamina cribrosa, did not show any recurrence for seven months after enucleation. Following the use of the X-ray the recurring growth increased; the subsequent use of radium caused the mass to entirely disappear in six weeks and remain well after fifteen months. (See paper of Kusama, A. J. O. v. 2, p. 636.) **Rados** noted regressive changes in a patient with glioma of the retina. **Dimmer** observed bilateral retinal glioma. **Uhthoff** reports a patient with the same condition. Telangiectasis was present in a diffuse glioma of the retina observed by **Argañaraz.**

Ring presented a preliminary report of a case which involved a question of diagnosis. A child, aged 11 months, suddenly had a convulsion. Two days previous a hard cough drop had been swallowed, which was passed in forty-eight hours. At this same time, the mother having influenza, the child was immediately weaned. The lids were moderately swollen, cornea hazy, the periphery of the iris retracted, lens hazy and swollen, from the pupil was a pinkish white reflex crossed by a large blood vessel. Tension minus. The reporter was inclined, after reviewing many points in differential diagnosis, to that of retinal glioma.

A patient with bilateral multiple *angioma* of the retina is reported by **Collins.** Six years previous the vision was 6/6, altho there were several patches of colloidal degeneration near the disc. During the past six weeks the vision was 3/60. Ophthalmoscopically there was found an enormous distension and convolution of all the vessels without any points of differentiation between the arteries and veins. In the temporal periphery they passed into two large raised pinkish masses in the retina and several other places, the vessels were lost in similar smaller masses. There were many small, white shining dots scattered thruout the retina. The general physical examination of the patient, and the Wassermann reaction, were negative. The special features of interest in this case were: first, that there were several separate new growths in the same retina; second, that both eyes were affected, the right more than the left; third, that there was a gradual progression and increase in the size of the lesions.

Hosford's patient, with a peripapillar swelling, angioma (?), was a woman, aged 38 years, who complained of failing vision of the right eye, following a

blow on the temple some six months previously. The entire retina was swollen from the edges of the disc out to the periphery, where it thinned down to normal. The disc appeared to be sunken in a cushion of gray edematous tissue. There were a few hemorrhagic splashes near the macula. Under antisyphilitic treatment (the Wassermann was 1+) the condition persisted and she was discharged some months later with mere perception of light and the retinal condition practically unchanged.

Hosford's second patient, he reports, was a woman, aged 45 years, whom he examined for presbyopia. Six months later the retina around the disc was somewhat swollen and the blind spot slightly enlarged. Mercury was administered; six months later there was a complete ring of edematous jelly-like tissue around the disc. Nearly two years later the eye, completely blind, was removed because of pain. The tension was at all times normal. The pathologist reported an *endothelioma* completely surrounding the optic nerve head and infiltrating into the surrounding tissue. **Oloff** observed a primary tumor and tumor-like formation of the optic papilla.

Tumors of the Optic Nerve.—A primary intradural tumor of the orbital portion of the optic nerve was removed by **Cohen,** by the Krönlein method. The growth, measuring 2.8 x 1.5 cm., was obtained from a female, aged 18 years. Four illustrations of microscopic sections accompany the report. A diagnosis of ganglionic *neuroglioma,* probably benign and primary in the optic nerve, was made. The case is reported for the reason that it is no doubt the first observed that shows definitely the presence of numerous ganglion cells, occuring primarily, in an intradural tumor of the optic nerve. **Rietz'** patient had a glioma of the optic nerve. A pigmented *sarcoma* of the optic nerve sheath was observed by **Tagoshima.** A patient with sarcoma of the right optic nerve was observed by **Garcia. Golovine** reports the operative treatment for benign intradural tumors of the optic nerve.

Mills' patient, a female, aged 16 months, had numerous swellings on the head and face, accompanied by a nasal discharge. Peter, who made the eye examination, noted symmetrically ecchymotic edematous lids, the palpebral fissures were abnormally wide as a result of the proptosis; and some outward deviation, muscle movements otherwise full. Fundus examination showed well defined discs, hazy retinae, arteries and veins tortuous and overfilled. X-ray showed that the sella turcica was obliterated. Pathologic examination of sections of the tumors showed small round celled sarcoma of rapid growth.

Tumors of the Orbit.—**Van der Hoeve** urges the need of a good radiogram in orbital tumor cases. It will often afford valuable information regarding the nature of the growth and its relation to surrounding structures. It is particularly useful in osteomata in indicating the best way of attacking the growth, as many of them arise from one of the nasal sinuses. **Stern's** contribution also discusses *osteoma* of the orbit.

Culbert reports an unusually interesting case history of a patient with a multiple osteoma of the nasal accessory sinuses and the right orbit, complicated by syphilis. A man, aged 43 years, in robust health, had noticed during the preceding seven years, a hard mass growing in the inner angle of the right orbit. Following two separate operations thru a modified Killian incision, the eburnated osteoma was found to involve the frontal, ethmoid, right orbit, middle and superior turbinates and crista galli, and protruded into the cranial cavity. In the frontal sinuses and the right orbit the mass was one continuous growth. About seven months after coming under observation the patient suddenly fell unconscious and died within twenty-four hours. These tumors are histologically benign, but clinically malignant, therefore an early diagnosis and complete removal is the only acceptable procedure. X-ray pictures accompany the report.

Campbell's patient, a man, aged 42

years, with *neurofibromata* of the orbit, first showed evidence of the disease in other parts of the body, twenty-three years previous. During this period he has had tumors removed every two years but they are now becoming more frequent and deeper. The exophthalmos and ptosis began very gradually two years before coming under observation. At this time the eye was very greatly proptosed and two masses felt under the supraorbital ridge. Removal of the masses disclosed their attachment to the supraorbital nerve. A third mass was felt deep toward the apex, which was removed. The author believes this tumor to be intradural, owing to the absence of frank intraocular changes. The severe pain preceding the operation has been absent during the past ten months.

Cunningham exhibited a patient with a *cartilaginous tumor* of the orbit. **Grimsdale** exhibited a patient, aged 13 years, with a pulsatory tumor of the orbit which he regarded as aneurysmal. **Posey** exhibited a patient from whom he had removed an *adenoma*. The globe was proptosed 11 mm. A Krönlein incision was made but the mass, the size of a horse chestnut, was removed without interference with the bony wall of the orbit.

A female, aged 43 years, observed by **Nelissen,** complained of disturbance of vision in the left eye. She was fitted with glasses, but two weeks later returned with the eye protruding from a rapidly growing tumor of the orbit. It seemed to be a phlegmon due to maxillary sinus disturbance, but the sinus, when opened, proved to be free from pus. Roentgen treatment and iódid of potassium were given. Rapid retrogression and complete recovery confirmed a diagnosis of inherited *syphilis*. **Fernandez** refers to a patient with optic neuritis and exophthalmos with orbital tumor. Mixed tumors of the orbit are discussed by **Van Duyse** and **Aubineau,** oculomotor reflex with orbital tumor is discussed by **Rouquier. Von Hippel** describes the changes observed in an eye thru pressure of an orbital tumor. **Wessely's** paper discusses tumors of the orbit.

Under the title of orbital tumor **French** submits the case report of a patient, a female, aged 58 years, who had noticed a bulging of the left eye during the preceding nine years. Above the inner canthus there was a soft fluctuating mass, but upon deep pressure it gave a definite hard sensation. No diplopia and fundi normal. X-ray showed a definite thickening at the upper inner side of the orbit extending into the ethmoid region. Transillumination showed a dark left frontal. The growth had increased definitely during the past month. In discussion the mass was believed to be a *mucocele*. Great caution was advised in drainage owing to the possibility of the back wall of the frontal sinus being absorbed, thus affording the danger of sepsis. The author expected to drain through the nose, rather than where the tumor presented, thus avoiding the danger of infection.

A very interesting case history, of a patient with a *perithelioma* of the orbit, is reported by **Jeremy.** A female, aged 4 years, when first entered, a diagnosis of dermoid of the orbit was made. Family history good. During the past three months the child screamed with pain. The right eye was proptosed and displaced down and out, muscular movements were restricted upward and inward, pupils equal, irides reacted, cornea clear and fundus vessels full and tortuous. Under the upper inner margin of the orbit was a soft, smooth, localized tumor, not adherent to the skin, movable from side to side, and not deeply attached. There were no enlarged glands or abnormalities in the chest or abdomen. Thru a two-inch incision, at the base of the upper lid, a soft, white, bilobular, encapsulated tumor, attached to the optic nerve, behind, was removed. The stalk was ligated close to the nerve. The tumor ruptured during removal. The following week the child developed scarlet fever. Two months later there was a recurrence. After complete exenteration, including the periosteum, the child recovered and remained well.

Carpenter observed a man, aged 71 years, with a brownish mass, extending

under the globe, causing moderate dislocation of the lower lid. Refusing exenteration the tumor, which measured 15 x 7 mm., was removed. Pathologic report showed a round celled melanotic *sarcoma*. Eight months later recurrence demanded exenteration. Pathologic report at this time was melanotic sarcoma with angioma. Epithelization of the orbit was very slow. The patient has been well for five and one-half years.

Davis reports two very unusual orbital tumors. The first in a robust man, aged 19 years, showed a mass extending from the eyebrow to the hair. An incision was made and a portion of the roof of the orbit removed. Pathologic examination showed an *endothelioma*. One week later the roof of the orbit and one and one-half inches of the frontal bone to the hair, extending into the brain tissue, were removed. This was followed by X-ray treatment. At the time of reporting, one year later, the patient had no recurrence. A girl, aged 8, had a Krönlein operation performed by a colleague for a spindle celled sarcoma. Seven years later the eye again became prominent. Complete exenteration was performed. Examination of specimens showed a *myxoglioma*. **Ischreyt's** patient had a primary *sarcoma* of the orbit, complicated by iridocyclitis. **Garcia** did a complete exenteration for sarcoma of the orbit.

A *carcinoma* of the orbit, in a female, aged 31 years, is reported by **Knapp**. The duration of the disease was about two years. Death occurred about one year after exenteration.

Notes of four orbital tumors are reported by **Posey**. A woman, aged 27 years, with a marked exophthalmos, which first appeared at about 7 years of age, caused by a hard, smooth mass under the orbital rim. The mass was evidently a *dermoid*.

The second patient was a man, aged 54 years, with a *sarcoma* of the orbit, The eye had been enucleated four years previously, probably for sarcoma of the choroid. Hemorrhage was controlled by electrical desiccation of Clark. The third patient, a girl, aged 18 years, with a proptosed eye. A firm, movable mass, about the size of an almond, at the upper outer orbit, was removed. Microscopic appearance suggested sarcoma.

From a man, aged 35, a large *fibroma* of the orbit had been removed five weeks previously. The proptosis began six weeks previous and increased until it had advanced 12 mm. Vision was good. **Kendall's** paper discusses the Krönlein operation for orbital tumors and **Whitaker** writes on innocent intraorbital growths.

In a review of the recent literature on tumors of the eyeball and its appendages, **Harbridge** cites several illustrative case histories from his personal experience. The contribution does not lend itself well to abstract.

PARASITES.

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This section covers the literature of the subject from July, 1918, to October, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., 1918, November, p. 234.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Myiasis of the Conjunctiva. — A case of kerato-conjunctivitis due to the larvae of *Rhinoestrus Nasalis,* (de Geer), was observed by **Perez Bufill** in a butcher 29 years old, who complained that a foreign body penetrated his eye the day before, and produced great itching and redness. On examination, a marked pericorneal injection in the superior and internal part of the eye and small conjunctival ecchymoses were observed. In the cornea, and on the caruncle appeared two small, thread-like bodies, which proved difficult to remove on account of their adherence to the tissues. The larvae were 1.20 mm. long by 0.20 mm. large. The *Rhinoestrus* is a fly which selects the eyes or the noses of the mammalia, especially the horse, to deposit its larvae, and is so swift in this operation that altho of a size of 8 to 11 mm., is not generally seen by the patient. Of the 700 or 800 larvae that fill its abdomen from 4 to 8 are laid at once on the mucous membranes of the host. From the nose the larvae, by means of its hooks can progress and infect the frontal sinuses, pharynx and even the larynx.

Ophthalmomyiasis is very common in Siberia (Porthinsky) and has been found also in man, in Austro-Hungary, Italy, Algiers and Spain. **Barsoum** reports three cases of fly-blown orbits observed in Egypt, which were produced by the larvae from a sarcophagidal fly identified as *Wohlfartia magnifica* (Schinner), and which is said never to enter homes. In the first patient, a child 2 years old, the lid of one eye was much swollen and sloughing in places. The condition gave rise to a most offensive odor, and the worms were so abundant that they dropped from the eye when the child walked into the clinic. One hundred larvae were removed from three large

pockets packed with worms, one between the eyeball and the nose, another on the upper aspect, and the third on the outer side of the globe. Treatment consisted in constant bathing with sublimat solution and fomentations with permanganat. On the second day the eye was eviscerated, and large maggots removed from behind the globe. The child died on the third day. No autopsy was made.

In the second case, a child one year old, a notch about 7.5 mm. wide was observed in the upper lid near the inner canthus and from it five worms were picked out. Two others were free in the culdesac. Recovery.

The third case occurred also in a child, 3 years of age, in whom a large ulceration of the orbital region near the outer angle, led to three pockets filled with larvae, one extending toward the lower lid, a second toward the temple, and a third below the inner canthus. Recovery.

The author refers to another three cases of myiasis described in 1915 by Azer Wahba, of Zagazig, but these were produced by the *Cordylobia anthropophaga*. **Ticho,** also, adds to the literature of ophthalmomyiasis.

Extraocular Cysticercus. -- **Gallemaerts,** has observed two cases of subconjunctival cysticercus. In the first, 8 days prior to the examination, a small growth, about 20 mm. diameter, appeared below the conjunctiva, between the superior and internal recti, near the limbus. In the beginning it was brilliant, slightly translucid, soft and not lobulated. The conjunctiva was thickened, and adherent to the mass, with a marked injection around. In opening the growth a white homogeneous and filaceous mass escaped, in which microscopic examination revealed many pus cells and a cysticercus.

The other case was also acute, the growth having been formed in 15 days below the conjunctiva, between the external and inferior recti. Its diameter reached about 12 mm. It had a violaceous color and was covered with highly injected conjunctiva. The preauricular gland was enlarged and an abscess existed on the angle of the mandible. No diagnosis was made in this patient. An exploratory puncture was unsuccessful, but incision gave issue to a cyst, which proved to be a cysticercus.

Intraocular Cysticercus. — A rare case of cysticercus in the anterior chamber is reported by **Gomes,** the cyst being removed by a corneal incision. The same author has observed another patient with cysticercus in the vitreous in whom the operation was successful, against the ordinary rule, in such cases. He ascribes this gratifying result to his method, which purports a change in the position of the head. After a small "radial" incision of the sclera, the patient was raised to a sitting position keeping the head bent over one side, and the eyeball turned upward and inward, so as to bring the parasite close to the ground. Using the electric ophthalmoscope an attempt was made to grasp the vesicle with iris forceps; but failed. A second introduction of the forceps, however, seized the larva which was easily drawn out.

Gomes states that in Brazil only one other case of intraocular cysticercus has been reported. **Schieck** reports a case of intraocular cysticercus.

Uhthoff describes extraction of a cysticercus from the vitreous being the third he has made of intraocular cyst during the war, and the fourth case he has seen in that time among 2000 patients. Altho in peace generally one case is observed in 2000 patients, changed conditions and lack of sanitation have increased this proportion to 1 :500 in war time. The soldier can get compensation when the cyst occurs after being on duty 5 or 6 months, as it can be safely assumed that from 4 to 5 months are necessary for the larva to fully develop in the eye.

The case of cysticercus in the vitreous reported by **Stock** was that of a soldier, who had noticed impairment of vision for six months. There was complete detachment of the retina, and clouding of the vitreous. The eyeball

was enucleated. Encysted in the vitreous was found the parasite clearly identified as tenia solium.

The case of subretinal cysticercus reported by **Carsten** occurred in an aviator who had been admitted to the service with sound eyes, but now came with vision in the right reduced to 1/50. In the macula was found a rounded area larger than the disc and of lighter color than the adjoining fundus. This area enlarged and became grayish white and within it the head of the parasite was detected. Operation was done about six weeks after the case was first seen. Meridional scleral incision was made with a Graefe knife, and the exposed cyst opened with iris scissors. Recovery was rapid, and at the end of a month vision had risen to 1/15. Carsten gives a general review of the subject with colored plates showing the appearances observed. **Sattler** also has reported a case of subretinal cysticercus.

Filariasis.—**Elliot** has reported a case of filaria moving freely under the conjunctiva. The patient contracted the disease in Benin City, which district is the principal endemic center in West Africa. The responsible fly, a common pest there, is of a yellow color and has been classified as *Chrysops dimidiata*. In this patient the movements of the worms in various parts of the body produced little inconvenience, but when moving in or near the eye and ear, gave rise to "maddening" pain, irritation and itching. The use of cocain instilled into the conjunctiva was very beneficial, and many times allowed the patient to rest and sleep, the parasite becoming sluggish in its movements, probably from the toxic influence of the drug. A subcutaneous injection of cocain made in the lid once for the purpose of extracting a worm, induced such swelling that the surgeon lost track of the parasite. When the edema subsided, the patient felt a linear immovable mass which was probably the dead filaria, and afterwards a cyst developed in the place which was incised and scraped.

The filaria travels very rapidly in the loose tissue around the orbit, and the patient stated that on two previous occasions, the removal of the worm from the eye, was followed shortly afterwards by the appearance of a second, possibly the male, in search for its mate. Several times two worms were felt at the same time, one around each eye. Two years after infection the first filaria removed was 60 mm. in length; seven years later another specimen had only 36.5 mm., and later even shorter worms were removed. This is against the common view. For attracting the parasite to the eye, Elliot used with complete success, hot fomentations, the larva appearing very soon below the conjunctiva, from where it was extracted after cocain instillation, by seizing it with a forceps, passing a thread around, and after incision with scissors, pulling it out gently.

McMurray after dealing *in extenso* with the description and life history of filaria loa refers to seven cases that he has been able to see or get definite information upon. All of them were missionaries or members of missionaries families located at Kamerun, West Africa. One patient, the wife of a missionary, had the first adult worm removed four years after infection, and the microfilaria in the blood 9 years later. The husband had numerous "Calabar swellings" but no adult worms were removed until 8 years after going to Africa. That shows the very slow development of the parasite in the human body. Their two children born in Africa were both infected. All worms that were removed in these patients, were from the eyelids or chest. In one of them could be seen, in these regions, numerous cicatricial lines, evidently outlined paths frequently traversed by the worms.

In the discussion of this paper, Vail referred to the case described by him in 1905, which he claims is the second observed in America, and emphasized Manson's theory of transmission of the filaria by a diurnal blood sucker.

Tomkins and **Thurston** have each

observed one case of *filaria loa* moving under the skin of the lids. Both patients came also from West Africa. Tomkins used for removal two forceps, one for catching the worm, and the other for drawing it out, twisting the body around the instrument to avoid rupture. The second author, not being able to see clearly the worm under the skin, painted it with iodin tincture and removed the parasite successfully.

Pacheco Luna confirms his previous views in regard to the classification of the filaria which he considers the cause of some intraocular changes (See O. Y. B. 1918, p. 236) altho waiting for **Ward** to give an expert opinion, he believes however that it is by no means the Filaria bancrofti, as Jackson suggested, but an *Onchocerca,* probably the *Onchocerca Volvulus* (Leuckart). **Izquierdo** who has studied comparatively Pacheco Luna's specimens does not give a definite opinion of their identity. **Jackson** points out the uncertainty and confusion that still prevail in science regarding filaria. A large accumulation of incomplete accounts still exists, and it is indispensable in future to secure the services of an expert biologist to obtain accurate reports; carefully preserved specimens being easily sent from any part of the world to larger centers. He considers as settled, that filaria loa enters the human host only in West Africa. Those found in the region of the eye are immature forms, the fully developed forms showing little tendency to migrate. *Filaria bancrofti* is widely distributed in tropical regions. The larval form infecting the blood at night has been called *Microfilaria nocturna* and *Microfilaria diurna* that which comes from filaria loa.

Other forms of filarial disease have been described, but probably most of them were due to the species which infect the eyes of lower animals and accidentally gain admission to a human host. Within the eye, filaria has been observed in the anterior chamber by Barkan, and in a cataractous lens by Graefe.

Ocular Sparganosis. The *Sparganum Mansoni,* is a rare parasite, a cestode larva, which has been found once in the large serous cavities, four times in the genito-urinary system, twice in the limbs, and seven times in the adnexes of the eye. The adult form is still unknown, but has been tentatively classified in the family of the *Dibothriocephalides.* **Motais** who had observed a case, describes this parasite as a white, flattened, ribbon like worm, about 30 mm. long 1.7 mm. broad, which has been found in the pig in Japan, Africa, English Guiana, Tonkin and Annam.

His patient was a boy 11 years old, born at Hut (Annam), who had a tumor the size of a bean, in the upper and outer part of the upper lid, below the skin. The author mentions another case observed by Gaide and Rongier in a woman on whom swelling and redness of the lids, ptosis and exophthalmus with chemosis of the conjunctiva, were produced by small tumors localized below the lids and in Tenon's capsule. A pterygium was also present, which after incision proved to contain sparganus.

Ashikaga contributes a paper on ocular parasitic disease in Japan. His paper is illustrated, and gives a table covering reported cases in the literature from 1894 to 1910. **Kahn,** in a Heidelberg dissertation, takes up the subject of vegetable parasites in the eye of a dog.

INJURIES.

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This section brings the literature of the subject to September, 1919. For previous references see volume 1, A. J. O., Oct., p. 195 and Nov., p. 209.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

INJURIES FROM LIGHT, HEAT AND COLD—**Cerise** divides oculo-palpebral burns in war into those due to calorific agents, and such as are produced by chemical substances, and lastly those caused by gases. Of injuries caused by heat, he considers burns of the integument, conjunctiva, sclera and cornea. As regards chemical agents (melinite, sulphuric acid, alcohol and ether) there is no special symptomatology proper to each; it is only a question of degree.

Herrenschwand adds two cases to those reported by him in 1916, in which there was corneal inflammation resulting from exposure to cold in high mountain regions. The men had been in a region about 2,000 meters above the sea for a long period, without relief from the storms, cold and the dazzling sunlight of high regions, combined with the glare from the snow fields. The area affected was the center of the cornea, of elliptical form. The inflammatory changes were limited to the center of the cornea by a band-like area, which extended to the periphery. In the more pronounced cases, the deeper layers of the cornea were involved. In all cases healing was hastened by the application of a 10 per cent precipitate salve of balsam of Peru.

INJURIES FROM ELECTRICITY.—In **Posey's** first case, a boy aged 14, was

struck by lightning; a cataract developed in one eye which was needled four months later. In the second case, almost complete blindness of both eyes followed a stroke of lightning. A few days later a diffuse haze and edema of both retinas could be discerned; the margins of both optic nerves were slightly obscured and both papillae were hyperemic. A month later under strychnin the vision and fields were normal in each eye.

Morax observed, from a high voltage current (1200 volts) which caused a severe burn of the hairy scalp 28 days later, symptoms of iridocyclitis in the left eye. This recovered in 17 days, followed three months later by mild iridocyclitis in the right eye. Both attacks disappeared without leaving any trace, but opacities of the lenses developed in both eyes. In another case iridociliary symptoms followed more than two and one-half months after an accidental discharge of a current of 15,000 volts. The left eye became completely cataractous; the right lens showed a few small cortical opacities. He concludes that following accidental electrocution, symptoms of iridociliary inflammation, preceded or accompanied by modifications in the crystalline lens, may affect both eyes simultaneously or successively, and occur from 10 days to three months after the traumatism.

Chemical Injuries—**Derby** describes the effect of "mustard gas" on the eye. This gas, *dichlorethylsulphid,* is a dark brown liquid. It is not sent over in clouds but in shells, and its action is delayed as it vaporizes slowly. It will hang around a locality for many hours. In about 80 per cent of the cases affected it produced inflammation of the eyes. It works best in the presence of moisture, and therefore affects particularly the mucous membranes and the moist portions of the skin. A well constructed gas mask is impervious to its fumes. The direct effects are usually not immediate but are delayed 3 to 8 hours. It causes vomiting, the eyes begin to burn and water and the lids often swell. The respiratory passages are very irritable; the skin lesions occur later, varying from mild erythema to bullae. The mortality is about 2 per cent. The commonest cause of death is bronchopneumonia.

The ocular lesions consist of a chemical burn of the lids, conjunctiva and cornea. The lids are red and swollen and often show numerous large bullae; they are kept tightly closed. The irritation and photophobia are so intense that cocain and a lid elevator may be required to separate the lids. The appearances of the conjunctiva vary from slight injection to marked white edema and chemosis, most marked in the area of the palpebral fissure. Secondary infection of the conjunctiva is not uncommon.

In the more severe cases, a certain amount of corneal involvement, varying from slight roughening of the epithelium to well defined opacity, is nearly always present, but ulceration is rare. The corneal condition tends to disappear rapidly leaving no trace, except in the cases with ulceration. The intense photophobia present is explained by the corneal involvement. About 10 to 15 per cent or more of the cases are benign, duration 10 to 15 days. About 80 per cent are medium, duration 5 or 6 weeks; 3 to 5 per cent are severe with marked general symptoms, often developing bronchopneumonia. As regards treatment, the eyes should be protected from light, but not bandaged. Irrigation with some bland solution followed by a drop of liquid paraffin or, in the later stages, argyrol 25 per cent solution are soothing. Atropin should be used in corneal complications. As the irritation subsides, it is very important to get these patients up and accustom them to a greater degree of illumination.

Warthin, Weller and **Herrman,** after experimentally producing lesions in the eyes of animals and man with dichlorethy-sulphid, "mustard gas," conclude:

1. The action of the gas upon the cornea and conjunctiva is essentially the same as that upon the skin.. 2. Exposure to dilute concentrations of the gas, produces slight degenerations of the corneal and conjunctival epithe-

lium, which can be demonstrated by fluorescein within ten or fifteen minutes after exposure. 3. Exposure to the concentrated gas produces necrosis of the cornea varying in degree, even to extending thru all layers. Purulent exudation into the anterior chamber may occur. In severe cases iridocyclitis may occur without secondary infection. The conjunctival epithelium may become necrotic, accompanied by intense edema of the subconjunctival tissues with marked congestion, hemorrhages, leucocytic infiltration, and frequently secondary liquefaction necrosis. 4. No metastatic lesions of the eye could be produced experimentally. 5. Healing in the more severe forms results in vascularization and cicatrization of the cornea with marked disturbance of vision. Serious refractive errors and reduction of vision result even in mild cases.

Pickard found the reactions of the eyes to dichlorethylsulphid gas to depend upon the duration of the exposure, and the dilution of the gas. Eyes once affected seemed more prone to a second attack. The cases ranged in severity from mild to a high grade conjunctivitis, associated with edema of the lids and chemosis. He thinks that the deleterious effects can be best treated by antiphlogistic measures without reference to the chemical composition of the gas.

In **Mayou's** case a soldier was blinded six days before being seen by the reporter as the result of explosion of a gas shell. There was intense injection of the conjunctiva of both eyes. The lesion of both corneas was the same. The surface epithelium was slightly roughened but intact; in the superficial layers of the cornea, about 2 mm. from the margin, was a yellow band of purulent infiltration. The margin toward the center of the cornea was sharply defined and the cornea clear beyond it; but the outer margin was ill defined and shaded off into the surrounding cornea, which was practically clear at its margins. At the expiration of 5 weeks, the purulent exudation was absorbing, without breaking down of the surface epithelium; all that could be then seen was a fine white line beneath the epithelium of the cornea, which was also disappearing; the photophobia, and blepharospasm was still very marked. This is the only instance in the writer's experience of purulent infiltration of the substantia propria from mustard gas.

Carsten saw a case in which particles of *indelible pencil* had entered the eye. The patient was first seen nine hours after the accident. There were photophobia, injection, and a wound of the conjunctiva. The cornea was gray and had a number of superficial abrasions. The pupils were irregularly contracted. At the limbus of the cornea there was a round area impregnated with the dye. The impregnated area was curetted and most of the stain was removed with difficulty. The conjunctiva healed readily, but the corneal irritation continued, and the opacities did not clear up. Six months after the accident the vision was limited to counting fingers.

Miller calls atention to the danger of severe conjunctivitis during *ether* anesthesia when the towel or gauze covering the eyes has become saturated with ether; whereas if the eyes are uncovered, no such result is likely to occur. If liquid ether is accidently spilled over the eyes, they may be washed with saline solution or sterile water, or the lids may be carefully dried with soft gauze. The lids should be closed during anesthesia. The lid reflex may be frequently tested with the finger tip and the condition of the pupil noted. Touching the conjunctiva to elicit the corneal reflex should be avoided.

Denig has obtained satisfactory results in trachomatous pannus from transplantation of mucous membrane from the mouth. He thinks that the nutrition of the cornea will be improved by the healthy mucous membrane of the mouth. Equally gratifying results were obtained in cases of *burns* of the *cornea* from chemical agents.

Contusions. — **Frenkel** writes a lengthy article upon contusions of the anterior segment of the eyeball based upon 66 cases, of which 53 were war injuries and the remainder ordinary accidents. The right eye was affected

in 35 cases and the left in 31. He divides these injuries into 5 classes: 1, periocular; 2, corneal (or scleral) without perforation; 3, iridodialysis or perforation of the iris; 4, subluxation of the lens, with resulting changes in the pupil; 5, partial traumatic cataract, usually nonprogressive; 6, diminution of visual acuity out of proportion to apparent lesions. It is hardly necessary to add that these contusions of the anterior segment may be complicated by other lesions, especially those of the posterior segment. Complications of inflammatory origin are exceptional.

Lister contrasts the pathologic aspects of certain war injuries of the eye with the common injuries in civil practice. He presents the different types under five heads, viz: 1. Ruptures of the sclera; 2. Concussion changes; 3. Suppurative changes; 4. Changes in the vitreous; 5. Effects produced on retina and choroid by penetrating foreign bodies. (See A. J. O., Vol. 2, p. 59).

Lopez operated upon a lens which had been dislocated into the anterior chamber by a trauma; six months later the same accident occurred in the other eye. In another case of dislocation of the lens secondary glaucoma followed some months later, the vision was lost and enucleation finally became necessary. **Ricchi** reports two instances of injury of the macula lutea without other lesion of the eyeball.

In **Bane's** case the patient was struck in the eye with a snow-ball and knocked down by the blow. The vision was disturbed, equalling light perception 5 days later. There was marked congestion of the orbital tissues and hyphema. Atropin caused pain and increased tension which eserin relieved. The fundus could not be seen, presumably on account of intraocular hemorrhage.

Berrisford reports a case in which an annular **lens opacity,** *"Vossius ring,"* occurred in the left eye after contusion of the eye with a piece of hose. The skin of the left lid was excoriated and the tarsus was lacerated. There was marked ciliary injection. Aqueous turbid. Vision R. 20/20, L. 20/120. Two days after the injury a circular circumscribed lens opacity was seen; its diameter was 3 mm. The opacity appeared to be on or in the lens capsule, and was made up of minute dust-like dots. In the macula there was a small round pigmented hole which contrasted with the rest of the fundus.

In seven weeks the annular opacity had entirely disappeared. The author discusses the various theories of the cause of annular lenticular opacities, and concludes that until farther confirmatory experimental evidence is gathered, the theory, which from the clinical aspect of the case seems the most logical, must tentatively be accepted as the cause.

Bachstez presented a patient whose right eye had been injured. The sight had decreased to 0.2. In the lens very small dark spots could be seen. The papilla was surrounded by a grey circle, the fovea was red. A number of small grey spots could be seen in the macula, and just below this a very thin membrane could be seen, from which fine white spots in streaks emanated radially to above the macula. In addition to this there were small black spots, apparently the remains of a former hemorrhage. The author did not think that the condition was a Berlin's opacity, but believed that it was due to tissue changes secondary to the accumulation of blood in the retina.

De Schweinitz discusses *concussion* and contusion injuries of the eye in warfare, based upon observations obtained in "eye centers" in Europe and America. Reference is made to the Atlases of Lagrange and v. Szily and to the recorded observations of Colonel Lister. The fundus lesions are classified as lesions of contact and lesions by concussion, or both combined. External manifestations may be absent or slight. Naturally, the character and degree of the visual depreciation depends upon the extent, situation and age of the lesions. The visual field changes evidently depend upon the location of the lesion and its depth and character. Marked reduction of intraocular tension is common in many of these cases; reduced tension does

not necessarily mean wound or rupture of the globe.

The ophthalmoscopic picture of concussion and impact effects necessarily varies according to the stage of the process, but in general may be divided into primary and secondary changes. Among these is the commotio retinae of Berlin, which differs somewhat from the type commonly noted in civilian practice in the presence of more numerous hemorrhages, the yellow tint of the so-called retinal haze, its longer duration and more circumscribed character. Lacerations of the choroid and retina, or of their vessels, or of both, followed by hemorrhage beneath the retina and in to the vitreous, are common. They depend in part upon stretching of these membranes by the vibrations in the vitreous. They are frequently placed at the posterior pole of the eye and near the papilla.

The above lesions are *primary;* they lead to the *secondary* lesions, the most important being atrophic chorioretinitis and proliferating chorioretinitis. In place of the usual impact and concussion lesions, there may be extensive disorganization of the interior of the eye (without rupture); liquefaction and infiltration of the vitreous, wide spread masses of yellowish white exudation and large detachment of the retina. Injuries to the optic nerve in the canal by a missile passing thru the orbit posteriorly are notable; avulsion of the nerve is not infrequent. The writer is skeptical whether remedial agents such as are intended to stimulate absorption have much influence, and more than skeptical as to the value of subconjunctival injections. In a certain number of apparently severely concussioned eyes, after long periods of time, notable improvement in vision has occurred. Transitory astigmatism after direct concussion has often been noted.

Penetrating Wounds. — **Duhamel** finds that in an army ophthalmic service during a period of three and one-half months, without special activity at the front, there were 48 cases of penetrating wounds of the eye. In two thirds of these the right eye was affected; there were no grave lesions of both eyes in the same individual. In one-sixth of the cases immediate enucleation or evisceration had to be performed, because of irremediable damage to the organ; and finally in one-fourth of the cases an intraocular foreign body could be demonstrated by radioscopy.

After approximate localization of the foreign body, a conjunctival flap was dissected off and the electromagnet applied to the wound. The foreign body, when magnetic, was in general recovered without difficulty. Where the foreign body was nonmagnetic, which occurred in about one-third of the cases, a small forceps was introduced under radioscopy and foreign body extracted. In most of his cases the foreign bodies were small, 2 to 3 mm. in length, and 1 to 2 mm. in breadth being average dimensions. Such small splinters are generally endowed with great velocity and are almost always situated in the posterior segment of the eye, having passed around the lens. Instances of penetration of the entire eyeball and lodgment in the orbit are very rare as is also true of those which remain fixed in the anterior chamber.

McKeown observed injury of the eye from being struck by a rooster's beak; the sclera was perforated allowing the vitreous to escape. In a second case as the result of a blow in the eye from a piece of wood, there was inability to close the lids.

Neeper describes three cases of injury. In the first, the left eye had been destroyed and enucleated. The most important wounds of the right eye were one thru the lower lid, probably grazing the eyeball on the lower side and entering the sphenoid, and another penetrating the bulbar conjunctiva 4 mm. to the temporal side of the limbus and also passing into the sphenoid; the sclera was not punctured, altho the course of the foreign body was indicated by an anteroposterior line of hemorrhage within the vitreous, the remains of which greatly disturbed the vision; but the exudate was gradually diminishing with vision 20/50. There

was much retinal edema at first but this had disappeared. The X-rays showed fragments three quarters of an inch behind the eyeball, probably in the sphenoid.

In the second case an explosion of a water glass of an engine cut thru the lower lid and then thru the eyeball making a 7 mm. vertical incision thru the nasal side below the limbus and leaving the eyeball at and below the temporal portion of the disc. Both the eyelid and anterior wound in the eyeball were stitched. The wound of exit was clearly visible and there was also a ribbon shaped exudate which hung vertically in the anterior vitreous. Three days after the injury a vertical line having a gelatinous appearance showed on the anterior capsule of the lens; this disappeared in a few days. Except for a slight hemorrhage into the vitreous at the point of exit, the media had been quite transparent all the time. The vision is now 20/40.

In a third case the eye sustained a lacerated wound about 14 mm. long in the neighborhood of the upper nasal limbus; it involved the cornea, iris, lens, conjunctiva, sclera and upper lid. The vitreous and iris which projected were clipped off and the wounds stitched; healing was prompt. The irregular pupil is filled with opaque lens matter in the capsule, which was clearing gradually.

In **Heckel's** case the cornea of a miner had been so nearly penetrated by a small fragment of coal that a part of the body projected into the anterior chamber, while the superficial corneal layers had healed over the embedded portion; the lens was opaque. The opaque lens was removed, the coal fragment not being disturbed at that time but removed later with iris forceps thru a corneal incision.

Boyd reports two cases of punctured wounds of the crystalline lens. The first occurred in a youth of 19. One hour after penetration of the cornea, the anterior chamber was seen to be full of soft lens matter; the iris was in contact with the wound. Atropin relieved the synechia in two days; the lens matter was rapidly absorbed and the eye became quiet. The second case closely resembled the first; absorption occurred and the eye became quiet. **Meisel** reports a penetrating wound of the lens with recurring inflammation.

In **Posey's** case of perforating wound of the limbus the iris had prolapsed and the lens was injured. As the patient did not report at the hospital until 48 hours after the injury, he treated the case expectantly, especially as there was some conjunctival discharge; and the wound was closed by dissecting the conjunctiva from the ectatic area, and slipping it beneath the undermined conjunctiva below the wound, as in McReynold's pterygium operation.

Best found that intramuscular and subcutaneous injections of electrargol controlled subacute inflammation in wounded eyes, but the drug was of no use in the treatment of suppurative processes such as acute suppurative panophthalmitis. He did not see a single case of sympathetic ophthalmia develop under electrargol therapy. However, he enucleated all suspicious eye. In encephalitis after wounds of the brain with meningitic processes already begun, intravenous injections of electrargol are useful, and perhaps life-saving.

Burleson in severe corneal injuries separates the conjunctiva from the cornea in its entire circumference and also well back over the orbit, taking care not to injure the muscular attachments. Any part of incarcerated iris is replaced or cut off and the lens removed if it has been displaced. After flushing the conjunctival sac with warm normal salt solution, a No. 2 ten-day catgut purse string suture is introduced, the detached conjunctiva pulled over the entire cornea and the suture tied. The catgut suture is not removed, but is allowed to absorb. After this has taken place, the conjunctiva will gradually recede from the cornea and reattach itself at the scleral margin. Extensive lacerations leave only a small opacity following this procedure and the cosmetic appearance is astonishing. Six cases are reported in detail.

De Lapersonne reports 83 cases of early operation, 24 to 48 hours after wounds of the eyeball. When the X-rays showed a foreign body or fracture of the orbit, the operator frequently resorted to orbitotomy which gave free access to the orbit, at the same time insuring the safety of the conjunctiva and palpebral fissure. Immediate suture was the rule in all these early operations, suture of the conjunctiva after partial or complete ablation of the eyeball, suture of wounds of the eyelids with conservation of even the smallest shreds of tissue, suture of the circumorbital skin wounds, etc. In some instances skin grafting had to be resorted to to cover a denuded area.

Duverger had good results in war wound of the eye, by *resecting the anterior segment* of the globe in favorable cases. He records the results obtained in 24 patients. By this procedure a better stump was obtained for the prothesis. In selected cases the danger of sympathetic ophthalmia is not great. The author makes a circular incision thru the sclera in the region of the ciliary body, 5 mm. from the limbus and removes this segment. After the contents of the globe have been removed, sutures are placed in two planes, the first is thru the sclera, three catgut sutures being used; the second plane consists of silk passed thru the conjunctiva. The conjunctival sutures are removed in four or five days.

Putnam uses *conjunctival flaps* for large injuries of the cornea. He classifies the operations as follows: 1. The single pedunculated flap. 2. The double pedunculated flap. 3. Two flaps, one with a single peduncle, the other with two bases. 4. The complete flap. The author describes each method, and gives the indications for their use. **Schuster** advises using conjunctival flaps in perforating wounds of the cornea and sclera, and calls attention to the necessity of thoro asepsis and prophylaxis to prevent infection.

Terrien believes with Duverger that the eyeball should be retained in injuries of the anterior portion only. In 150 penetrating wounds he successfully carried out this principle. He emphasizes the necessity of injecting every wound of the eye with a 1 per 1000 solution of mercury cyanid whether a foreign body be present or not.

Injuries from Spectacle Lens.—**Giri** reports four cases of perforation of the cornea from spectacle lenses, all myopes. The reporter regards minus lenses as more dangerous than plus ones, because they are thinnest at the center and so, if broken, would present a sharp and more or less pointed edge to the globe. The absence as a rule of infection in these injuries is ascribed to the fact that such lenses are usually kept clean and do not harbor pathogenic microbes.

In **Radcliffe's** case an eye was lost as the result of an explosion of a tin of "Common Sense" rat poison. The explosion broke a spectacle lens and cut a wound in the cornea, the iris prolapsing. The lens was cataractous and finally panophthalmitis developed necessitating enucleation. One section, a wedge shaped piece of glass, 8 mm. long, 3 mm. wide and 2 mm. thick, was found in the vitreous just back of the lens. The vitreous was filled with pus.

Nance observed an incised wound of the conjunctiva, sclera and choroid from a rimless spectacle lens which had been struck by a ladder. The wound healed with the vision 20/50.

Wounds of Posterior Segment.—By wounds of the posterior segment of the eyeball **Duverger** understands all penetrating wounds of the vitreous chamber, leaving intact the anterior chamber and its walls including the irido-crystalline structures which form its posterior boundary. These conditions may be fulfilled provided the traumatizing body enters back of the root of the iris, about 3 or 4 mm. from the limbus and that its course is directly backwards; it traverses the ciliary muscle infringing upon its internal surface and enters the vitreous body, occasionally wounding a few fibers of the zonula but leaving the lens intact. It thus appears that the point of entering the sclera may be quite well for-

ward; nevertheless these wounds limited to the posterior segment are relatively rare, and but little has been written upon their symptomatology. He describes 6 cases in detail from a consideration of which he discusses the immediate symptoms.

The wound may be easily visible, difficult to discover or invisible. Hernia of deep membranes does not occur in the absence of an expulsive hemorrhage, which latter the writer has never met with; this is in marked contrast to wounds of the anterior segment in which hernia of the iris or ciliary body is the rule. Palpebral and subconjunctival ecchymoses are much more frequent than in wounds of the anterior segment. Immediate chemosis is even more important. This must not be confounded with the inflammatory chemosis which does not occur until 24 to 48 hours subsequently, accompanied by orbital pain and indicative of infection. The tension is in general very low.

The anterior chamber, although intact, may be the seat of very characteristic symptoms, which the clear cornea permits following in detail: the most striking sign is the marked augmentation in the depths of the anterior chamber, which may reach two or three times the normal. At times this increase affects the entire periphery, at times it is more marked upon one side. The shape of the iris is not less characteristic: it is not in the shape of a funnel with the summit at the pupil and the base at the insertion of the iris, but rather the transformation of the irido-corneal angle into a plane at the expense of the peripheral portion of the iris. The pupil is round or slightly oval; it responds slowly to the usual stimuli. Hyphema is frequent. The transparent crystalline is displaced backward, at times regularly, at times obliquely. The deeper media are either opaque or but partially transparent, according to the amount of the blood in the vitreous.

Ophthalmoscopy is much more frequently possible than in wounds of the anterior segment. The same is the case with a certain amount of vision. Pain does not occur as a rule in the absence of infection. The writer explains these symptoms which occur in the anterior segment, not by subluxation of the crystalline which is usually given, but by recession of the lens system, by the difference of tension in the vitreous and anterior chamber. He emphasizes the principal symptom in these wounds of the posterior segment as transitory abnormal depth of the anterior chamber with a peculiar recession of the iris and absence of iridodonesis.

Gomez discusses at length the various types of traumas to the globe and their treatment. **Newton** cautions the general practitioner to treat injuries early and to carefully observe the rules of asepsis in their management. **Roy's** records show 26 cases of perforation of the eyeball by foreign bodies where these were lodged either in the ball itself, or behind it in the orbital cavity; 5 of which presenting points of special interest are reported in some detail. **Meller** observed lesions of the choroid and retina after shot wound thru the orbit.

Hansell reports a case in which the eye was struck by two bullets from an air rifle. Vision equalled 6/20; the conjunctiva was torn and discolored, but in the eyeball itself there was no hemorrhage, exudation or other change; except that the pupil was slightly dilated, reacted slowly and was not quite circular. Tension normal rotation inward restricted. No limitation of field. Two foreign bodies were distinctly shown on the X-ray plate. In addition to the two distinct shadows, five or six more were discovered scattered thruout the orbit. By a careful dissection the two bullets were removed. Two weeks later the eye was well. The writer ascribed the lowered vision to concussion of the eyeball.

Marbourg found a piece of wood, ½ by $\frac{1}{16}$ inch, between the eyeball and lower lid which had been in that situation for two weeks; the piece was readily extracted.

Foreign Bodies.—**Cantonnet** describes the signs and symptoms of

eyelashes in the anterior chamber There is marked photophobia but traumatic keratitis is absent, tho the cornea shows some loss of epithelium. In the anterior chamber are seen one or more fine blackish objects which resemble eyelashes, sometimes lying in the sagittal axis, running from the deep surface of the cornea, to which one end is attached, to the iris or crystalline lens; at other times the lashes lie flat on the iris, at the periphery or near the pupil, thru which they may pass to the lens; they are usually two or three but as many as six have been observed. In some cases there is iritis but more often not; irritation is always present as shown by photophobia and blepharospasm.

The diagnosis is easy by oblique illumination. The prognosis is favorable at first but ultimately serous cysts of the iris form which may fill the anterior chamber and disorganize the eye. The lashes should be removed, an operation easily performed when the eye is quiet and the lash lies between the cornea and iris; it is difficult when the eye is inflamed or when the lash has been lying flat on the iris for some time. An iridectomy may be necessary. If there are several eyelashes, repeated operations may be required. It is difficult to understand the process by which an eyelash can be torn from the eyelid and driven thru the cornea unless a larger body has also entered.

Haigh observed irritation of the eye from the presence of an eyelash in the canaliculus, removal of which gave immediate relief.

Bachstez reports a case in which foreign bodies penetrated the lens without the formation of a diffuse traumatic cataract. The right eye was quiet with free movements. In the cornea, which was smooth and clear, were seen three brown foreign bodies, incorporated into the outer layer. The two smaller ones were near the center of the cornea, and a third larger one near the temporal limbus. Around the latter there was a slight inflammation of the cornea. The anterior chamber was of moderate depth and the same as the left eye. There was a hole in the iris in the pars ciliaris, and lens opacity in the center of which were seen several small foreign bodies of the same character as those in the cornea. The form, reaction, and width of the pupil were normal and like the left eye. Iris and fundus normal. Vision 6/18; Refraction, hyperopic in all meridians, and no defect of field of vision. This case is of especial interest on account of the number of foreign bodies, probably iron splinters, a larger one in the cortex and several small ones in front of the posterior capsule, with lack of irritation.

In **Bane's** case, a chip of metal perforated the cornea and caused a rent in the margin of the iris; the lens capsule was broken and the lens partly opaque. The X-rays located the foreign body 15 mm. back of the center of the cornea and 6 mm. above the horizontal meridian. A bit of steel 1 by 4 mm. was removed by the hand magnet thru an incision at the temporal margin of the superior rectus 12 mm. back of the cornea. The lens has partly disappeared since the removal of the steel and vision equalled good light perception and projection six weeks subsequent to the injury.

Pfingst reported a case in which a small piece of steel entered the eye. The vision was not affected. No wound of entrance could be detected three hours after the injury. Three small round bodies were seen in the vitreous, which the author believed were air bubbles. The foreign body was localized by Sweet's method. An incision was made thru the sclera a quarter of an inch from the edge of the cornea and the foreign body was removed with the giant magnet, followed by normal vision.

Heckel observed three curious cases of injury to the eye by a flying bit of brass wire which was plaited or braided into the end of the whip or what is commonly called the cracker. He finds that after a vigorous crack of the whip the velocity of the cracker is very great and quite capable of penetrating the eyeball or even traversing its entire length. In the first case the

wire penetrated the cornea and entered the anterior chamber. In the second the X-rays showed the wire in the posterior part of the vitreous, and in the third the wire was located just outside the posterior sclera.

Anderson observed, two and one-half years after the entrance into the eye of a very small fragment, a distinct negative photograph of the iris upon the anterior lens capsule. He ascribes the photograph to some change between the foreign body and the fluids of the eye, which produce a substance, which combined with the pigment of the iris to form on the lens capsule the photograph described. It may be added that the upper half of the cornea showed fine keratitis and the vitreous many opacities. The iris was of the same color as that of the other eye and dilated regularly under homatropin; vision 6/12.

In **Matson's** case a chip of steel 0.5x5 mm. passed thru the cornea and iris midway between the pupil and sclero-corneal margin; there was slight hemorrhage in the anterior chamber but no opacity developed in the lens; the foreign body, which was shown by X-ray to lie at the bottom of the vitreous, was removed through a scleral opening between the external and inferior recti, by means of a small tip attached to the giant magnet; correction gave 20/20 vision. **Ticho** observed a foreign body in the clear lens.

Knapp observed, five months following an injury to the left eye, with failing vision (15/200), a linear scar in the center of the cornea and also of the anterior capsule of the lens directly underneath. The rest of the lens was clear, except for a radiating opacity in the posterior cortex. Upon examining the eyeground, a very distinct foreign body could be seen in the macular region in the retina. Repeated attempts with the magnet have failed to dislodge the foreign particle, which is probably firmly wedged in the sclera. The eye is free from irritation and presents no sign of siderosis.

In **Lambert's** case the eye was seen 5 months after injury. The external appearances were normal; vision 20/200 with $+ 5S \bigcirc + 2$ cy. Ophthalmoscopic examination showed a piece of steel projecting from the sclera; there were some vitreous opacities and some changes in the choroid; the optic disc was slightly congested; no attempt has been made thus far to remove the foreign body.

Verhoeff comments upon Tuckett's statement that in siderosis bulbi iron salts have a selective action on the nerve terminals in the dilator and constrictor muscles of the iris. He refers to his own observations, many times confirmed, that the dilator muscle has a marked affinity for iron, to which the resulting impairment in the mobility of the iris is due. He finds that the ciliary muscle becomes pigmented only in the immediate vicinity of the ligamentum pectinatum.

Frenkel points out that the prognosis as regards foreign bodies in the eyeball is much better in civil than in military practice, for the reason that in the former the intraocular foreign body is almost invariably single, whereas in wounds of war the projectiles are frequently multiple. This fact comes out with special emphasis when eyes that have been enucleated are examined by the X-rays. Of 100 enucleated eyes so examined at a base hospital, 59 contained foreign bodies, of these in 28 only were the projectiles single. In the remaining 31 they were multiple: in 14 there were two, in 6 three, in 3 four, and in the remaining 4 from seven to seventeen or more, while in four the eyes contained metallic dust. In the majority of these cases extraction was possible by the magnet in only a very few. In 2 of the cases in which a foreign body had been extracted before enucleation, the eyes were found after removal to harbor another. As regards the comparative value of the large and small magnet, he is inclined to believe that in the case of large foreign bodies the small magnet is more conservative of the tissues, while small foreign bodies are more easily removed by the large magnet.

O'Brien details three cases of foreign body in the eye. In the first, within

an hour after the accident, the X-rays showed a foreign body 3x3x1 mm. in size in the vitreous. It was extracted with the magnet thru the wound of entrance. Vision finally equalled 20/15 partly.

In the second case a foreign body supposed to be a piece of chisel was located by the X-rays in the vitreous. Attempts at removal with the magnet upon three occasions resulted in failure to extract the foreign body. The eye was enucleated but no foreign body was discovered. Subsequent X-ray of the orbit showed that the body had not entered the globe at all but had passed between the conjunctiva and sclera and lodged in the orbital tissues immediately adjoining the globe.

In the third case, the eyeball had been penetrated by a small piece of gun metal which the X-ray appeared to locate in the posterior capsule of the lens; extraction of the lens and irrigation of the anterior chamber one month later failed to remove the foreign body. Enucleation was advised but declined. Two and one-half months after the accident the other eye became inflamed and terminated in bare light perception; enucleation of the exciting eye at the outbreak of involvement of the other had no beneficial effect whatever.

Böhm concludes, after a review of numerous cases, that the eye tissues are relatively indifferent to the presence of small lead particles. The solubility of lead in the vitreous is very limited, and the surface of the particle is hardly abraded even after being in the vitreous some time. The course of the healing in all his observed cases was favorable, altho no definite ultimate conclusions can yet be reached. The lead particles do not seem to dispose toward sympathetic ophthalmia, and for that reason enucleation is rarely indicated. However, if the sight is lost, and the eye shows signs of panophthalmitis, enucleation is advisable.

Localization of Foreign Bodies.—**Pirie** discusses the relative merits of Mackenzie Davidson's and Sweet's methods of localizing foreign bodies in the eye. Of the two methods he considers the Davidson method the more accurate.

With geometric drawings he illustrates how Sweet's original method can be at fault. He claims that when no allowance is made for divergence of rays, there is a possibility of locating it outside of the globe when it is actually within the globe. If the X-rays came from infinity instead of 50 cm. from the plate no such error would result. He seems unacquainted with Sweet's later work which guards against such possible errors.

Pirie has devised a simple instrument which he claims fulfils all of the theoretic and practical requirements. It consists of an accurately made right angle, having attached to it a metallic indicator which is capable of adjustment and a mirror placed at an angle of 45° to the upright of the right angle. The patient's head is placed in the ordinary position on the X-ray plate and he is directed to look with both eyes toward some object. The upright arm of the right angle is fixed so that it is exactly in front of the center of both eyes. The eye suspected of containing a foreign body should be nearest to the plate. The metallic indicator is then placed exactly in front of, and opposite the center of the injured eye, and the position of the reflection of the indicator noted in the mirror. If the indicator is correctly placed, the first exposure is made with the X-ray tube 50 cm. from the plate, and 10 cm. above center. Before making the second exposure the tube is moved parallel with the plate towards the patient's feet to 10 cm. below center. The plate is again exposed with the tube in this position. After the plates have been developed the position of the foreign body is found by a simple method of triangulation. Tables to facilitate the readings of plates accompany the article. **Halliday** writes on Sweet's method of localizing foreign bodies.

McGrigor describes a simple method of localizing foreign bodies in the eye. He uses the ordinary adjustable spectacle trial frame. In the frame he places two cross wires, and X-ray films

are put into the lens holder of the frame which is adjusted to the face, so that the intersection of the cross wires is in front of the center of the eyeball. The face should be up and the tube in position under the table. With a plumb line the tube is placed so that its central rays will be directly beneath the intersection of the cross wires of the frame. Two exposures are then made, one 3 cm. on each side of the center. The foreign body is located on the film and readings made on a special but simple chart. The author claims that the method is easy, accurate, and very inexpensive.

Valude insists that the detection of very small intraocular bodies by the X-rays requires special training. He gives in detail the method applicable in such cases, for foreign bodies situated within the eyeball and its immediate neighborhood. Of 400 instances of wounds of the orbital region examined, the body was situated in the orbit in 100, extraorbital in 120, within the eyeball in 40; in 140 cases the examination was negative.

Boardman and **Donovan** use Sweet's method of localizing foreign bodies in the eye and orbit. **Engelbrecht** writes on X-ray localization. **Hoffman** concludes that all foreign bodies in the eye should be localized, when possible, by the X-ray. **Blatt** has written on the accurate localization of shot fragments by clinical symptoms.

Magnet Extraction.—**Lancaster** has had constructed a portable magnet as large and powerful as possible; it weighs about 50 pounds. It will pull as much at seven or eight mm. as the Haab at 10 mm.; and can be approached a little nearer to the eye so that its effect is almost equal to the Haab in power. It comes in three sizes, costing $25, $125 and $350, respectively. The magnet can be used with an automobile battery and without a foot switch, but the latter is preferable. **Hertel** has written on the comparative efficiency of different types of magnet.

In **Parker's** case, 24 hours after injury, ophthalmoscopic examination disclosed a glistening black foreign body, up and in, and posterior to the lens margin; it floated freely in the anterior vitreous. The magnet was at once applied to the point of entrance, which showed as a small elevation of the limbal tissues. A foreign body attached itself to the magnet immediately upon turning on the current. A second examination with the ophthalmoscope showed the original foreign body occupying its former position. While viewing the foreign body the current was turned on and off several times. Each time the current was turned on, the particle could be seen to jump toward the magnet and then fall back to its original position. Attempts were made to draw the fragment thru the pectinate ligament, behind the iris and thru the pupil, but its pull was too small to offer sufficient attraction to overcome the resistance of a healthy ligament. Therefore a posterior sclerotomy was done and the fragment extracted with ease. Two weeks later vision was 6/9.

Tyson reports that, following a penetrating injury of the eye, which cut the iris, a dark object could be seen extending into the inferior nasal quadrant of the lens. Removal of the foreign body by the Haab magnet brought with it the entire iris. Recovery was uneventful with vision 20/30.

Tuckett reports three magnet cases. In the first, a piece of iron passed thru the lower lid, cornea and iris; there was some lens opacity, and also exudate in the vitreous. The Haab magnet was tried with negative result. A skiagram showed a large foreign body outside the eye. The Haab magnet was again applied as far back as possible, bringing the foreign body beneath Tenon's capsule, from which it was extracted thru an opening. Two weeks later there was an anterior synechia, dense posterior cortical lens opacity, large mobile opacity in the vitreous. Vision was fingers at 2 feet.

In the second case a piece of steel entered the eye at the corneo-scleral junction and after passing thru the globe, was shown by a skiagram to be lying about 6 mm. behind the eyeball at the back of the orbit. Three at-

tempts were made with the Mellinger magnet to move the foreign body, but without result. Three weeks later the vitreous was still full of blood and vision only perception of light. Ciliary injection and keratitis punctata supervened ten days thereafter, so that the eye was enucleated. On examination, a hole of exit was found about 5 mm. on the temporal side of, and 2 mm. above the optic disc. Viewed from inside the eye the opening was filled by a curtain of organized inflammatory vitreous; the outside of the opening was covered by a piece of rusty iron adherent to the globe and embedded in a mass of organized blood clot.

In a third case, loss of sight early followed injury. Three weeks after the injury, a linear scar was noted upon the cornea, corresponding to which the uveal pigment at the margin of the pupil was a little deficient and a lump of pigment was adherent to the lens capsule. The lens was semiopaque near the posterior pole could be seen a shining particle. Vision equalled fingers at 2 feet. The Mellinger magnet brought the foreign body forward, but it could not escape at first thru the lens capsule and it revolved round and round in the semifluid lens matter, giving the impression that the lens itself was rotating; after about a minute it escaped thru the hole of entry into the anterior chamber, whence it was extracted thru a keratome incision. After needling, curetting and evacuation the vision finally equaled 6/9 with a cataract lens.

Gibb, Juler and **Moore** report their experience at a Base Hospital in the treatment of intraocular foreign bodies with the ring magnet. They have tested with the magnet every case in which there was the slightest possibility of an intraocular foreign body, and they have attempted to save every eye that seemed to hold the slightest prospect of being of value. They did not as a routine have a skiagram taken when a foreign body was suspected, but put up all such cases to the magnet without delay. They practiced removal thru the sclera in cases: with a recent wound of entry of some size in the sclera, and secondly where it had not been found possible to draw a magnetic intraocular foreign body forward, altho its presence had been demonstrated. As to the relative merits of the Haab and the ring magnet, they are decidedly in favor of the ring.

In a review of a number of important papers upon the magnet extraction of foreign bodies from the eyeball, **Allport** states that the ring-magnet may become dangerous from its great attractive power, altho its force can be graduated to any desired degree. He thinks that hand spatulas connected with the magnet may be justifiable in operations thru the cornea, where the steel is visible and accurate contact possible; but of doubtful expediency where the operation is done thru the sclera and the steel is not visible. He thinks that in recent injuries where healing has not yet occurred, the steel should be removed thru the original opening. When the wound has healed and the steel is in the lens or anterior to the lens, it should be removed thru the cornea; but where the wound has healed and the steel is in the vitreous chamber, it should be removed thru the sclera; he never sutures that structure but merely the conjunctiva. He recommends accurate localization and objects to a "trial pull" to ascertain the existence of a foreign body. He favors removal at the earliest possible moment.

Koster discusses the management of cases with small foreign bodies in the periphery of the anterior chamber. If the foreign bodies are magnetic and the trauma recent, he advises attempting removal thru the original wound with the giant magnet. If the foreign body is small and the wound has closed a new opening is made at the periphery of the anterior chamber, where the piece drops when the magnet stops attracting it. The opening is made as peripheral as possible with a fine Graefe knife directed radially. It should be a little longer than the foreign body. The pole of the magnet is introduced into the wound with slight pressure on the scleral side, when the foreign body presents itself.

Failing in this, Koster locates the splinter with a sideroscope and makes a scleral angular incision with one line in the limbus and the other radial in the sclera. The chamber angle, with the root of the iris and ciliary body is then exposed, and the point of the flap is pulled outward with a fine, sharp hook, and the magnet applied. The flap is replaced with a superficial suture. For very fine particles it is advisable to wait until the anterior chamber is restored.

With nonmagnetic foreign bodies, lengthening of the incision and the formation of a flap is advisable. The opening should be long enough to permit free access to the foreign body with strong anatomic forceps. After removal, the incision is either closed with superficial silk sutures or covered with a conjunctival flap.

The author describes a case in which a piece of glass entered the anterior chamber, lying on the temporal side of the iris. An unsuccessful attempt to remove it had been made by another ophthalmologist. The incision had been made below with a keratome, and while trying to remove the foreign body with iris forceps bleeding took place and the hemorrhage obscured the foreign body. Two days later when the patient was first seen by Koster, there was still some blood in the anterior chamber, the pupil was filled with opaque lens substance and a parallelogram-shaped piece of glass was seen in the pupillary space.

An 8 mm. incision was made perpendicularly thru the cornea at the upper margin of the pupil, somewhat to the nasal side. A second incision 6 mm. long was made towards the nose downward in the cornea, perpendicular to the first. The angle of the flap was lifted with a sharp hook. The foreign body was removed with fine anatomic forceps and the lens substance was partly removed. A small bead of vitreous presented. The conjunctiva was loosened and pushed over the corneal wound and held into position with a suture. The corneal wound healed perfectly and two years later gave corrected vision = 6/6

Lamb reviews the literature on the extraction of foreign bodies from the vitreous by the anterior chamber compared with the scleral route. He concludes that there is as much authority for one method as for the other; and that both the large and small magnets are necessary to an oculist's outfit, for, whatever method is favored, each magnet will at times be of value.

Birkhäuser reported two cases in which foreign bodies had penetrated the eye and were successfully removed with good visual results.

Evulsion of Optic Nerve.—**Lister** and **Hine** found records of only 22 cases of evulsion of the optic nerve, and only 4 with pathologic report; but during the war this condition has become quite familiar. It was recognized either as a hole at the optic disc, which occupied the whole or a part of the scleral ring, or the disc seemed to be filled with a white substance. In either case the retinal vessels completely or partially disappeared. The tearing of the tissue resulted in gross hemorrhage at the back of the eye, so as to obscure the field for the ophthalmoscopic examination. When, as occasionally happened, little or no hemorrhage took place into the vitreous, the ophthalmoscopic picture was a fundus oculi without vessels, an optic disc replaced by an apparently bottomless glaucomatous pit, set in a background in which there were striking concussion changes.

Blake reported a case of evulsion of the optic nerve which followed an accident, for which it was necessary to enucleate the left eye.

One week after the accident the eye ground of the right eye was examined. The media were clear. The region of the papilla was occupied by an excavation, which was difficult to estimate but was at least 8D. No details could be made out at the bottom of the excavation. In color it was uniformly gray and one had the sensation of looking into a deep well.

The diameter of the hole was slightly greater than the normal disc. The retina was torn on the nasal side of the opening and separated from the choroid for a short distance. There

was a large hemorrhage in the upper part of the retina and numerous small ones scattered thru the fundus. A few retinal vessels appeared to have a circulation of blood thru them but the majority were white and bloodless. In the course of a few weeks the excavation was filled with connective tissue and circulation was restored in several of the lower retinal vessels. Vision nil.

Jackson's case of evulsion of the optic nerve, with others of permanent changes in the retinal vessels following injury, has been noticed under Retina, p. 147.

Kraupa-Runk observed an eyeball driven into the antrum of Highmore from injury by a heavy iron chain. The optic nerve was torn thru. **Kayser** reports evulsion of the eyeball with division of the chiasm and **Gladhorn** reports evulsion of optic nerve following an indirect injury.

Penetrating Wounds of Orbit.—**Vacher** considers orbito-sinus injuries under two heads: Those with, and those without a foreign body. Radiography and the magnet are necessary in the first class. The diagnosis of wounds without a foreign body is much easier; the path traversed by the projectile and the tissues injured must be ascertained. This diagnosis is frequently very difficult unless the path of the projectile be probed under antiseptic precautions. Probing, however, should be avoided if there is no suppuration and the patient is not suffering.

In wounds of the orbit and frontal sinus he advises: Rigid aseptic cleansing of the wounded region; if the wall alone is fractured without intracranial complication, to abstain from attempts at replacement of the fragments unless assured that the wound is not infected; if the bony wall is comminuted, to remove all free splinters, to allow adherent ones to remain and to lightly tampon the sinus. The tampon should be withdrawn if there is no suppuration. If, however, the cavity of the sinus contains pus, drainage should be established thru the nose by enlarging the naso-frontal canal.

Orbito-maxillary sinus wounds are less dangerous than those of the frontal sinus. The maxillary sinus can be readily drained thru its internal wall, thus transforming it into a true accessory cavity of the nose; such perforation can be readily made by the specialist. Wounds of the orbit and ethmoidal cells are difficult to treat and generally require a rhinologist. The same is true of wounds of the orbit and sphenoidal sinus; these are very severe as the projectile must have traversed important organs to reach the sinus and for the reason that its presence in the sphenoidal sinus may give rise to intracranial complications. Foreign bodies must be extracted from the sphenoidal sinus if they are causing sinusitis.

In a short paper upon the results of early treatment of orbito-ocular wounds observed during the war, **de Lapersonne** concludes that there can be no doubt that early intervention with all possible conservatism and immediate reposition ought to be the almost invariable rule in orbito-ocular surgery. This plan is the only one which has given really favorable results, from the standpoint of total or partial conservation of vision as well as the least degree of mutilation when the vision can not be preserved. A resumé is given of 351 cases in which 83 important operations were performed, almost all at an early period following the injury. The traumatism is but rarely confined to the eye and orbital walls themselves. The surrounding cavities and bones are generally involved at the same time, hence the ophthalmologist should have the requisite surgical competence to undertake, when necessary, operations upon the head and face.

Chapman reported a case in which a fragment of shell had entered the orbit, following the explosion of a rifle eleven years before. The foreign body was overlooked and the wound sutured at the time of the accident. The man had been well until shortly before the author saw him. At the time of the first examination there was a purulent secretion from the nose and a discharging sinus near the scar of the old

wound. When operating on the maxillary sinus a dark, movable object was detected in the roof of the sinus. This was removed and found to be a piece of steel an inch square and three-eighths of an inch thick, from the breech of a rifle.

Gibson reported a war injury in which there were several foreign bodies in both orbits. Some of the bodies passed thru each eye, taking the lens in transit. Three months after the injury scars were noted in the cornea. A 2 mm. hole was noted in the iris of the right eye, membranous remains of a traumatic cataract were seen in both pupils, and X-ray indicated the presence of small foreign bodies in both vitreous chambers or in the outer coats of the eye. With correction the vision in each eye was 6/36. After needling the cataractous remains the vision with correcting lenses equaled R. 6/6, L. 6/9.

Lemaitre and **Garmy** have written on foreign bodies in the immediate neighborhood of the orbit, including those partially intraorbital, but excluding those completely extraorbital and those at a greater distance away. Their positions are: internal, in the ethmoid or sphenoid sinuses; superior, in the frontal bone, the frontal sinus, or slightly posterior to them; external, in the anterior part of the temporal fossa; inferior, in the maxillary sinus, or the lower retromalar fossa; posterior, behind the orbit, within the skull.

The paths of approach to them are the paralateral nasal, frontal sinus, temporal and vestibular routes. The methods used in each are described and the number of cases in which each was used, with the result, are given. Radiographs are necessary, supplemented, if possible, by radioscopy. In 6 intracranial cases, 4 of which were complicated by brain abscess, there were 2 deaths. In 17 extracranial the results were perfect, even the scar being almost invisible. Ten case reports are given as well as 2 plates and 14 figures showing radiographs of the positions of the foreign bodies. The cases were all war injuries.

In **Sweet's** case a piece of steel 4 x 2 mm. passed thru the lower lid at the inner portion, 1 cm. from the margin, and was located by the X-rays to the temporal side of the orbit, below and back of the eyeball. From the history of the injury the steel must have passed in a slightly upward direction thru the eyelid, probably wounding the eyeball at its lowest portion and then was deflected downward to the situation indicated by the radiographs. Vision was not affected for several hours after the accident, and at examination equaled good light projection. Only a grayish reflex was seen by the ophthalmoscope.

In **Sherman's** case the eye was struck while the patient was testing a pair of heavy knives used for cutting steel. There was a small V-shaped wound just above and to the nasal side of the center of the cornea, a laceration of the edge of the iris and a rent in the anterior capsule of the lens with almost complete lenticular opacity. The giant magnet occasioned no response and no pain. The eye could be moved freely and painlessly in all directions except inward. X-rays disclosed a long, slender foreign body extending from a point on or just outside the eyeball and a few mm. to the nasal side of the posterior pole backwards and to the left, penetrating the posterior ethmoid cells of the right side, crossing the extreme upper part of the nasal cavities, and passing thru the left sphenoid sinus to the anterior wall of the pituitary fossa. After enucleation, the anterior end of the foreign body, about 3 or 4 mm. of which was in the orbit, was easily located in the orbital fat; it was readily removed with a pair of forceps; it was found to be a piece of steel 57 mm. long nearly straight and irregularly triangular in form and about 1½ mm. in diameter.

Cords observed 58 cases of death after wounds of the orbit. He divides them into a very small group, in which an inflammation of the orbital tissue itself proved fatal and such as caused death from injury to an organ more or less near the orbit. Neither tetanus nor gas cellulitis followed wound of the orbit in any case; erysipelas occurred but once with a favorable out-

come. In the second group, he includes infections of the temporal region and pterygomaxillary fossa and infections from wounds of the nose and ethmoid which often lead quickly to thrombosis of the cavernous sinus and later cause empyema of the accessory sinuses. Injury of the frontal sinus is especially dangerous, particularly of the posterior wall, which is apt to lay bare the dura mater to a large extent. Hemorrhage from large vessels is a rare cause of death. Contusion of the brain may be fatal but direct wounds are more dangerous, especially such as pass thru the orbit; in these cases abscess of the brain may result fatally after the lapse of months.

Cords summarizes his very excellent article on the therapy of orbital foreign bodies in war as follows:

1. The advisability of removing the foreign bodies from the orbit should be seriously considered. 2. Attempts at extraction should be made as early as possible after the wound has been received. 3. The simplest method of extraction is thru the path of the foreign body. 4. For nonmagnetic foreign bodies, an alligator forceps for grasping the foreign body is essential; and the instrument can best be inserted under the guidance of the X-ray.

In **Spencer's** case of steel in the right orbit, application of the giant magnet to the center of the cornea effected outward movement of the foreign body about 11 mm. but not forward. The lens was hazy and the vitreous contained blood. The X-ray plate indicated that the foreign body was in the orbit.

Krückmann writes that in fractures of the superior maxilla and orbit the lesion may extend even to the posterior wall of the frontal sinus. Even when the mucous membrane has not been involved, the cicatrix, more frequently fibrous than osseous, may reopen and be followed by meningitis independent of all surgical intervention. Late infection of the sinus should not, if possible, be treated surgically during the first three months following the injury.

Large wounds of the orbit, of the nose and roof of the palate are closed temporarily by plates or tampons constructed by dentists and inserted thru the wound of the palate into the wound of the orbit. Purulent secretion is diminished and the patient can swallow chew and speak, circumstances which aid nutrition and improve the general condition. Wounds of the maxilla are followed by cutaneo-periosteal cicatrices which, unfortunately, can not be freed and softened without operation.

A graft of fat is the most suitable for replacing loss of substance, provided it does not lie upon cicatrical tissue; in such a case, a pediculated graft becomes granular and reabsorbed. Transplantation of aponeuroses, particularly from the thigh, and of cartilage give excellent results in repair of the face. Of the bones, the iliac is suitable on account of its two periosteal surfaces. Krückmann, however, has had the best cosmetic results with aponeurotic grafts. Secondary infection is always a danger, consecutive to a preceding osteomyelitis of which the infecting germs have not yet been destroyed. Infection of the sinus is very frequently due to dental lesions, to which great attention should be given. It is frequently followed by thrombosis from infection of the veins of the diploe.

Kayser, in discussing the explosion-like *breaking of an artificial eye* in the socket, reviews the literature on the subject.

He reports a case in which Müller's hollow reform eye exploded. As the patient stepped out of the house into the cold air, a loud report occurred, which was distinctly heard by a companion. Blood issued from the orbit almost immediately, and when he took the eye out of the socket, it was noticed that the posterior wall was broken. The author noticed a hole in the orbital wall the next day, and found a round piece of glass corresponding to the part missing in the artificial eye. Kayser concludes that the explosions are due to the unequal contraction of the glass when part of it is exposed to the cold air.

Gunshot Wounds.—In **St. Martin's** case, a man received a shot from a

revolver point blank in the right temple in 1908. The vision of the right eye was completely abolished and that of the left, decidedly diminished. Ten years later he began to have pains in the head with progressive loss of vision in the left eye. The right temple presented near the external canthus a circular cicatrix with loss of bony substance. The right eye is deeply embedded in the orbit. No atrophy. Tension normal and no change in the aspect of the cornea, iris or anterior segment. The lids move normally. There is no sign of ptosis. Movements of the eyeballs are extremely limited. The ophthalmoscope shows an extensive chorioretinal lesion at the posterior pole, with evulsion of the optic nerve.

The left eye shows no apparent lesions except that movement upward is abolished. Palpation reveals a hard immobile body at the infero-external angle of the orbit about 1 mm. from the surface. The iris and pupil are normal as are pupillary reflexes. The illumination of the right eye fails to cause consensual contraction of the left pupil. The ophthalmoscope shows plaques of chorioretinal atrophy in the form of elongated crescents concentric with the papilla in the infero-external sector. These plaques do not look like ruptures of the choroid but appear to be atrophic regions at the seat of former hemorrhages. The vision is 1/10. The visual field is decidedly narrowed in all directions especially inward. X-rays showed the presence of three foreign bodies, a small one in the right and two large ones in the left orbit, evidently fragments of the bullet.

In **Hansell's** case a boy was struck in the eye by a small B. B. bullet from an air gun. A few hours following the accident, the anterior chamber was filled with blood, the eye intensely injected but no rupture of external tunics was apparent. Examination by the X-rays was negative. As the blood in the anterior chamber absorbed, an iridodialysis was observed with traumatic cataract and ruptured capsule. The pupillary fibers of the iris at the lower edge were ruptured and the iris adherent to the lens capsule. There was some lacrimation and photophobia in the fellow eye. As rise of tension took place the atropin was stopped and eserin ordered; this followed by marked amelioration of all symptoms in each eye. As light perception and projection are now definitely present, operation upon the capsule promises to result in a useful eye.

Brown observed in a soldier, six days after having been shot thru the left lower jaw, the wound of exit being on the cheek just below the left lower lid, a great deal of chemosis which almost covered the whole of the cornea. A deeply infiltrated area was discovered in the cornea in which a small black foreign body was seen; which on extraction proved to be an eyelash. A few days later traumatic cataract appeared with a small amount of lens substance protruding into the anterior chamber. The eye was enucleated two weeks later at another hospital, probably from fear of sympathetic ophthalmia.

As regards intraocular foreign bodies incident to war wounds, **de Lapersonne** concludes: 1. That small intraocular shell fragments are very dangerous and often entail blindness of one or both eyes; 2. Visors, goggles or masks should be used as protectors; 3. Foreign bodies should be removed at once, an indication which requires that the necessary radiologic installation for localization and photography be at hand.

Terrien and **Cousin** call attention to the gravity of ocular injuries from grenade splinters. Of 116 ocular lesions so caused, in 103 the vision was less than 1/10. They find that such injuries are caused by very small foreign bodies and that the ordinary protections of the eyeball are inadequate. They have accordingly devised a special visor to be attached to the soldiers' caps to prevent such injuries. (See Fig. 1.)

The steel visor devised by Captain **Cruise** was recommended by the Ophthalmological Society of the United Kingdom as likely to prevent 50 per cent of all eye injuries received in warfare. It was tried in the British Army, and was the cause of numerous com-

plaints. Upon investigation Cruise found these due to ignorance of its purpose and value, and faults of design. The improved form is shown in Fig. 2. Reports upon 500 of these in actual use, indicate it is a practical protection for the eyes which does not militate against efficiency. The rifle scores made with the mask in use were as good as the same men were able to make without it.

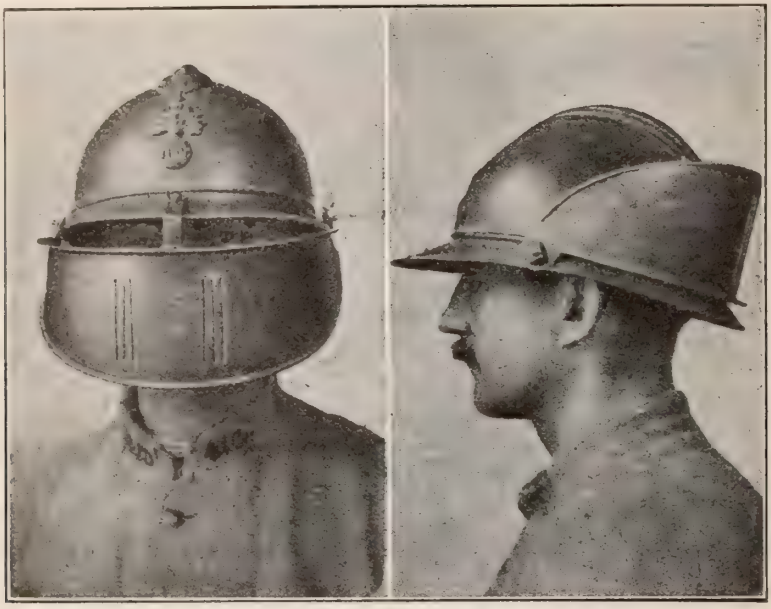


Fig. 1. Mask for protecting eyes from war injuries, shown in use or lifted and turned back out of the way. (See p. 291. Terrien and Cousin.)

Pringle reports three cases of *gas infection* of the cornea following gunshot wounds of the eye. A striking feature was the rapid involvement of the cornea—only a matter of a few hours, while in the last case, the upper third of the cornea became infiltrated in 45 minutes. The reporter was able to observe the actual formation of gas bubbles in the corneal substance in his last case. In each case the eye was removed while the cornea alone was involved—an unfortunate circumstance in that it would have been extremely interesting to note the spread of the infection to the other tissues.

In one case pathologic examination of a small portion of the gassy cornea showed, after incubation, a growth of streptococci and staphylococci, diphtheroids and numerous Gram positive rods. There were a few bubbles of gas formed. Subculture after heating to 80° Cent. for 15 minutes showed subterminally sporing Gram positive rods. Only streptococci and staphylococci were isolated from the contents of the globe; and, beyond inflammatory reaction the sclera showed no signs of actual gas infection. It is probable that the sclera would offer considerably more resistance to the development of gas organisms than the damaged cornea.

As streptococci and staphylococci were isolated from the iris and vitreous, infection had evidently spread thru Descemet's membrane into the interior of the globe; whether or not the blood supply of the iris and ciliary body had anything to do with the barrier offered to the inroads of the gas organisms in this direction can only be conjectured. **James** calls attention to two cases of gas infection of the eye previously reported by him.

General Papers.—**Black** has compiled valuable information regarding *industrial accidents* for the workman,

his fellows, shop foremen and superintendents. If such knowledge were possessed by those interested, and the suggestions carefully carried out, much damage to the eye would be avoided. He sums up the three cardinal points in factory first aid in three words: Cleanliness, Noninterference and Protection.

Wieden writes what the general practitioner should and should not do in wounds of the eyeball. He particularly insists upon the importance of examining the lacrimal passages for the possible existence of infection there.

Valois has brought together in an octavo of 230 pages an account of the surgical procedures intended for the preparation for suitable *prothesis* and also the methods devised to insure the best prothetic results, the latter by Rouveix. His statistics show a large proportion of enucleations, about 25 per cent among the total ocular operations.

The surgeon's role is considerable; he makes ready the ground for the prothesis, which later must adapt itself to the surgical result. The author, first of all, insists upon the necessity of following the operations upon the cavity of the orbit by the interposition of a temporary olive shaped plate of ebonite, highly polished, the use of which presents advantages during the entire management of the case. But the plate should not be used for the purpose of dilatation; such purpose would result in failure or only partial success.

Reconstruction of the orbital cavity may be attempted immediately following the injury: cleansing the flaps, toilet of the wound, suture at times and often juxtaposition. The existence of a fracture or the opening of an adjoining cavity are no contraindications for immediate suture, but require a small drainage for safety in one of the angles of the wound.

If early suturing of the palpebro-orbital wounds has not been perfomed secondary operation for restoration of the cavity should be done as soon as possible. Following very free application of equal parts of tincture of iodin, glycerin and 90 per cent alcohol, and curettement of the entire surface of the wound with a sharp curet, the margins being excised and smoothed off, the adjoining skin carefully dissected to free any fibrous bands which may have formed; the temporary olive shaped plate is inserted, if the conjunctiva and culs de sac permit. The procedure is completed by a blepharorraphy. If this operation fails the attempt should be made when the injured tissues have undergone definite cicatrization, to reconstruct the orbital cavity.

Such tardy reparation should not be attempted until after the lapse of a considerable time. The procedure will naturally vary according to the condition of the cavity and the extent of the fibrous retractions. After a description of the different methods to

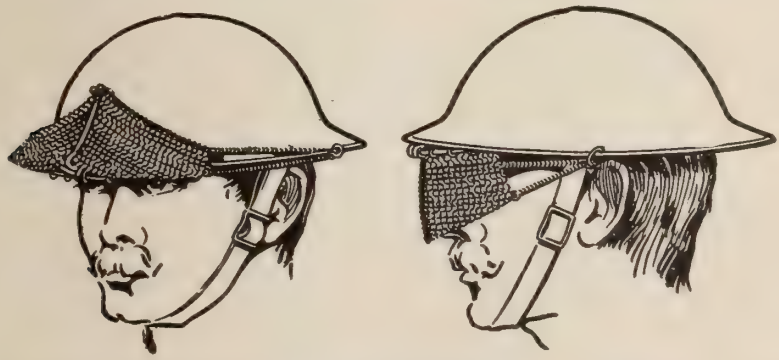


Fig. 2. Visor to protect the eyes from injuries in warfare, dropped for use, or raised when not needed. (Cruise.)

be employed, the writer insists upon the necessity of immobilizing in the position which is to be given to it, the entire mobile structures of the lids by blepharorraphy; and to assure a definite result by means of the temporary piece of ebonite which now acts as a mold. Support of the prothesis is next considered, taking up amputation of the anterior segment, optico-ciliary neurotomy, and exenteration, the newly constructed stumps, orbital heteroplasty, skin grafts, cartilaginous and artificial stumps.

Positive and negative molds of the orbital cavity should be made in every case, the material of which should always be alabaster. The study of these molds is of particular importance. It permits of differentiating the normal part from the part that is deformed. The entire effort of the surgeon should consist in augmenting the former at the expense of the latter. Finally the author insists upon the excellent results obtained by artificial stumps of ebonite as supports for the prothesis.

For orbits and faces in war, **Birch-Hirschfeld** is of the opinion that *prosthetic operation* is preferable even to a skillful prothesis; because of the unnatural appearance of a prothesis and the fact that the color of a prothesis rarely matches the color of the skin after a certain period of time. He advocates a very wide use of the plastic operation in all cases, difficult or simple.

It has been his practice to operate at the earliest possible moment, before scars and areas with poor circulation have a chance to form, excepting in cases where there is suppuration, or inflammation of the conjunctiva or lacrimal apparatus.

The tasks to be performed and the fundamental results to be attained in a plastic operation can be enumerated as follows: 1. Widening of the conjunctival pocket by loosening and eventual absorption of the scars. 2. Replacing any part of the conjunctiva that is lacking by a plastic flap. 3. Loosening of any scars that might be drawing the lids out of place, strengthening and supporting of the lids. 4. Restoration of lacking parts of the lids from the parts that are left, or by grafting. 5. Plastic restoration of the orbit, especially the floor of the orbit, as the foundation of the conjunctival sac and the lids.

He describes detailed methods for accomplishing the desired results and gives case records.

Grout writes a paper upon late reparative surgery of the lids; a problem equally, if not more difficult than that of the earlier period. Owing to failure at the first attempt, the original operations must be repeated, with a difference, however, that scar tissue has formed, which gives an entirely new phase to the matter. For the procedures employed, the original text with illustrative diagrams should be consulted.

Tooke gives a vivid account of the disaster at Halifax and briefly details the histories of 48 cases of injury to the eye—all severe.

In the Doyne Memorial Lecture before the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress, **Collins** touches upon wounds of the orbit, eyeball and cranium and instances illustrative cases, and calls attention to the relation between cerebral traumata and visual symptoms; asthenopia in neurasthenia, etc. The address is interesting in style and suggestive.

Lister presents a selection of observations of certain war injuries of the eye: They are given under 5 heads; 1. Ruptures of the sclera. 2. Concussion changes. 3. Suppuration. 4. Changes in the vitreous. 5. Effect on retina and choroid by penetrating foreign bodies.

Halle writes on foreign bodies in the intranasal tear duct; **Pichler** on the dispersion of stone dust over the iris, and **Wachtler** on severe injury to the eye from a chestnut burr.

GENERAL PATHOLOGY.

HANS BARKAN, M. D.,

SAN FRANCISCO.

This section carries the literature from September, 1918, to October, 1919. For previous references see A. J. O., November, 1918, p. 217.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

HEREDITY.—A father and two daughters with blue scleras and brittle bones seen by **Voorhoeve,** led him to study a very interesting family history. He secured information regarding 244 members of the family, extending over five generations, without consanguineous marriages or any trace of lues. Among them were also exhibited other congenital abnormalities of great interest. The following table gives in four colums the frequency of the different conditions in four family groups, the figures in brackets showing degrees of the blueness of the sclera. In the genealogic tree of the third group, 59 individuals, it appears that the anomalies were inherited by sons and daughters and from either parent.

The congenital defects thus associated suggest to Voorhoeve that they may depend on hereditary inferiority of the mesenchyme. From this embryonal layer develop the skeleton, scleras, heart, blood vessels, lymph glands and vessels, fibrous tissue, ligaments, involutary muscles; and, perhaps, the spleen and blood. This supposition is of wide significance and raises the question; Can such inferiority be restricted to one germinal layer without others being affected? In this connection he cites the cases of blue scleras and brittle bones that are accompanied with labyrinthine deafness. On examination two of his patients and two other members of their families were found to suffer from this defect; clearly an hereditary affection of an ectoderm organ. It would be well if every case of multiple congenital anom-

TABLE

Number	6	4	59	3
Blue scleras	1	3	4	3
Blue scleras	(3)	..	(7)	(7)
Brittle bones	1	3	3	..
Hemophilia	2	1	4	3
Cong. vit. cord	..	..	1	1
Cleft palate	1	..	1	1
Rachisis	..	..	1	1
Total abnormalities	8	7	21	14
Individuals affected	5	3	16	13

alies should be carefully studied with reference to Voorhoeve's hypothesis.

Skeletal and Ocular Defects.—Such defects of the eye as ametropia and heterophoria, which are generally regarded as congenital in origin, are considered by **Lowman** to depend on faulty skeletal alignment. Attention to his work has been called by his collaborator, Mills, (see A. J. O., v. 2, p. 493). Whether one set of defects can generally be regarded as a cause of the other, or whether both may not arise from a defective mesenchyme as suggested by Voorhoeve is a proper subject of more searching investigation.

Congenital Pigmentation.—A case of congenital melanosis was studied and reported by **Stargardt** with reference to its acuity, refraction, visual fields for white and colors, and dark adaptation. The melanosis was unilateral, but both eyes were normal in all these particulars. His review of the literature seems to show that in some of the reported cases the eyes were functionally defective. But on the other hand some of them show no defects.

The formation of pigment in the retinochoroid of white dove embryos has been studied by **Riddle** and **La Mer.** They find that it is formed at from 3 to 12 days in development, is not produced earlier, and is produced less readily or not at all in full term embryos or those just hatched. Killing the tissue with mercury bichlorid does not prevent the development of the pigment. The presence of free oxygen is essential, and this may vary in amount from the percentage in the air to 100 per cent. Raising the tissue to 100 degrees C. prevents formation, and it is absolutely prevented by an atmosphere of carbon dioxid. These facts are believed to sustain the view of Riddle that the specific color of an animal is an index, not of the presence or absence of certain germ elements; but of a particular balance between physiologic conditions and environment.

Senile Changes.—**van der Hoeve** concludes that there is a direct relation between influence of certain lights and the appearance of lenticular opacities. These latter are caused by damage done to the ciliary body, which can be extremely irritated thru ultraviolet light. Damage done the epithelium of the ciliary body carries with it a change in the fluids secreted which then cause the lenticular opacities. He also believes that the senile changes about the macula may be caused by this light.

In the discussion the question arose as to whether degeneration of the macula was more frequent among the inhabitants of the Highlands and among those at the sea shore as contrasted with the city population. It was also mentioned that the disappearance of the pigment in the lower nasal quadrant of the posterior surface of the iris in cataract cases might be referable to the effect of the ultraviolet rays. The question was also raised as to whether this degeneration of the macula was less frequent in those wearing glasses, and more frequent in the aphakic. In closing, van der Hoeve drew attention to an observation of Elliot, who found frequent retinal degenerative changes in cataracta nigra, and also pointed to the frequency of choreoretinitis in the Eskimo.

Anaphylaxis.—**Wibaut** starts from Kümmel's investigation to produce inflammation in the rabbit's eye thru anaphylaxis. He produced a moderate inflammation in the iris, especially at its posterior surface, and a much more severe inflammation in the ciliary body with extensive diffuse and focal inflammations of the choroid. He concludes that they greatly resemble sympathetic ophthalmia; that it is proved that focal inflammations in the uvea need not be of bacterial origin.

Von Szily, Fuchs, and Meller do not agree with him. Their experiments gave similar results, but their conclusions are different. They believe the inflammation to be toxic, and Meller terms it an endophthalmitis septica. In both cases the change of the exudate into the connective tissue, with formation of "Schwarten" is marked, and the affection of the choroid depends upon that of the retina, which is not the case in true sympathetic ophthalmia.

Wibaut uses for first and second injections freshly sterile horse serum. The anaphylactic inflammations were produced by a first intravenous injection, followed after an incubation time of fourteen days, by a single injection in the vitreous. The severe inflammation followed in 24 hours showing the clinical signs of a very severe iridocyclitis. Wibaut has shown with these specimens that it is possible to produce inflammation along anaphylactic ways, showing the picture of a rather clear uveitis.

Two long and elaborate papers intended to throw light upon this subject have been published by **von Szily.** They are based upon experiments on rabbits. One deals with the supposed bacterial anaphylatoxins of the bacillus prodigiosus. The effects produced by various extracts and cultures von Szily thinks better explained as those of bacterial toxins introduced into the circulation. The other paper deals with the supposed anaphylaxis produced by so-called chemically pure eye pigment used as an antigen. Here, too, his results are negative. In opposition to Elschnig and Salus they seem to indicate that eye pigment is not truly an antigen; but he admits that the question is still undecided.

Experimental Inflammations.—**Wegeforth,** induced by experiments which showed that withdrawal of cerebrospinal fluid during a suitable experimental septicemia resulted inevitably in the production of a typical meningitis, used similar experimental methods for producing infections in the eye. He reasoned on the close anatomic and physiologic analogies occurring in the elaboration and change of fluids of eye and brain. He used the bacillus lactis aerogenes which was shown to have marked virulence for the eye when introduced directly into the anterior chamber. He succeeded in infecting eyes from the blood stream by injecting sublethal doses of 0.5 cc. broth culture of bacillus aerogenes lactis, and puncturing the anterior chamber two minutes afterward, thus producing an analogous condition to the experiments as carried on with the cerebrospinal fluid. A panophthalmitis occurred.

Lippman and **Bruckner** succeeded in showing on the eyes of animals, the blood of which had been rendered entirely free of leucocytes, that by the injection of thorium in the cornea or in the anterior chamber, exudative cells could be produced. The isolated reaction of the cornea permitted them to identify the cells found in the aqueous as being derived from the endothelial lining of the cornea, and by stronger irritation cells derived from the chromatophores of the iris also produced cells as a reaction, which could be identified due to their content in pigment. They conclude that the ability to produce cells as a reaction to stimuli of a chemical nature is much more a function of the cells of the body at large than has previously been supposed, and furthermore, that this function may be independent of the blood vessels as their experiments with the avascular cornea prove.

Abderhalden's Reaction.—This has been studied by **Ohm** in one case each of keratoconus, glaucoma and 3 of retinitis pigmentosa; and in 8 cases of miners' nystagmus. His results throw no light upon the pathology of these diseases. Thus in the cases of miners' nystagmus 2 gave negative reactions, 2 gave positive with the liver, 2 with the thymus, one with the adrenals, and one with the liver and testicles.

Fat Infiltration.—**Versé** has shown that a combined feeding of cholesterin and oil produces in the rabbit in a comparatively short time a condition of high grade permanent lipemia; whereas if one of these substances only be fed the serum remains entirely clear. The changes in the organs, which consist of a high grade infiltration with fat, and also consequent parenchymatous degeneration, are very much more severe if the two are fed at the same time.

He carried thru these tests in order to produce an opacity of the cornea, which in its appearance, resembled absolutely the arcus senilis in the human eye. To produce these appearances it took six weeks and the indicator for

the increase of the lipoids in the blood serum was found in a change of the cornea entirely similar to the arcus senilis in the human. It appears with a combined cholesterin oil feeding in the course of three to four weeks.

Histologically, the beginning of this infiltration can be shown to occur as early as eight days after the beginning of the feeding. It is caused solely thru serum rich in fat and cholesterin, being produced by the marginal vessels of the cornea in the interstices of which the cholesterin substances in consequence of the slow circulation, are deposited quite rapidly. Changes in the vessel walls were not found in the rabbit. Versé, because of these findings, suggests that the name be changed to arcus lipoides sive cholesterinicus.

Histologic Preparations.—**Gräff** describes a new histologic method for the fixation and staining of the eye, in that he uses gelatin, first recommended by Gaskell. For fixation he uses 4 to 10 per cent formalin and injects approximately 1 c. cm. into the vitreous. After 24 to 48 hours in the incubator the bulbus is freed of excess fat and a rather large window cut into the temporal and nasal sides. It is then placed in the embedding material, which is to be composed as follows:

A measured quantity of gelatin tablets are dissolved in 1 per cent carbolic acid in the proportion 1 to 3 and put into the incubator at 37 degrees, the gelatin melting there and producing a homogeneous thick substance. At this stage it is diluted again with carbolic acid in the proportion of 1 to 1. The eyeball is then laid for 24 hours into the thin solution and for 24 hours into the thick. After this it is allowed to cool so that 30 minutes afterward the block can be cut in the usual fashion and allowed to dry in the air until the gelatin acquires the consistency of a medium hard eraser. The block is then fixed in 10 per cent formalin solution 1 to 2 days.

The preparation is now ready to cut. The block is preserved in 4 per cent formalin. The pieces are cut with a freezing microtome and with good fixation embedding and cutting, the preparations may be cut to a thickness of as little as 5 $\mu\mu$. The sections are put into water or 30 per cent alcohol, and remain in this for some time to remove the formalin.

The staining takes somewhat longer than the other methods and the solutions for this purpose must be diluted. Concentrated alcoholic solution must in every case be diluted. The staining takes a correspondingly longer time. The differentiation must be carried out thoroly in order to obviate producing a stained gelatin. With this method one may produce in 6 or 7 days a stained preparation of the entire eyeball.

Gräff admits that the pictures are not as beautiful as those produced by other methods, and that the gelatin can not be removed from the sections, and that an edema may be diagnosed which is produced thru the gelatin, but recommends the method in general as a rapid, easy and satisfactory one, provided that one does not wish to stain after von Gieson, the one stain which he has not succeeded in producing successfully after using this method.

GENERAL DISEASES.

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This review of the subject carries the literature from October, 1918, to December, 1919. For previous references see A. J. O., November, 1918, p. 222.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE.

TYPHOID FEVER AND ANTITYPHOID VACCINATION.—As ocular symptoms of typhoid fever **Dantrelle** includes hyperemia of the conjunctiva, falling of the lashes, myopia, photophobia, and hyperemia of the optic disc. During convalescence occur iritis and optic neuritis, in addition to abscess of the lids, orbit, and corneal ulcers. **Moure** and **Sorrel** also write upon the ocular complications of typhoid.

The effects of antityphoid vaccination were discussed last year (A. J. O., November, p. 222). Since then **Bell** has reported a case in which deep keratitis left opacities, that continued after the eye became quiet and the patient had been discharged from the army. **Calhoun** has reported three additional cases, all of which presented iritis, and in discussion Lancaster alluded to the corneal herpes frequently seen in this connection.

Among 22,000 troops vaccinated against typhoid, **Bussy** reports 5 developed ocular lesions. Three of these developed corneal herpes. Two of them were suffering from latent renal disease; and following the vaccination one developed albuminuric retinitis

and the other severe hemorrhages in both retinas. **Pacheco Luna** reports the case of a man, who suffered from photophobia lacrimation, conjunctival and ciliary hyperemia, and anesthesia with dendritic ulceration of the cornea, miosis and diminished tension.

Typhus Fever. — **Zankowich** found that a noncarbolized serum containing typhus bacilli caused a slight conjunctivitis, in the secretion of which colonies of the bacillus were found in pure culture. Four days later the bacillus had disappeared.

Infective Jaundice.—Iritis affecting one or both eyes is counted a characteristic of this disease by **Strasburger** who found it in 44% of the lighter cases, and more than half of the severe ones. It appears at the end of the first or the beginning of the second week of the disease; sometimes a day before the jaundice, but usually later.

Cerebrospinal Meningitis.—In his survey of the symptoms of this disease **Rolleston** finds the pupils are usually dilated from irritation of the sympathetic, and may be sluggish from increased intracranial pressure. In some acute cases the pupils are contracted, and inequality is fairly frequent, especially in bad cases. Photophobia is rare, and this contrasts with its frequency in tuberculous meningitis. Conjunctival engorgement is common, but conjunctivitis is not. Conjunctival hemorrhage is unusual. Panophthalmitis is rare, seven cases among 502 patients. Of these two were bilateral and the others all affected the right eye.

Suppuration in the orbit is very rare, optic neuritis is infrequent, again in contrast with tuberculous meningitis. Nystagmus may occur; strabismus, usually from sixth nerve lesions, is present in nearly 12% of the cases, and of these strabismus cases 52% were fatal. Ptosis occurred in 3.6%, but of 18 such cases 13 were fatal. **Zarzycki,** who reports 5 cases, observed in addition to the above, neuroretinitis, hypertension of the eyeball with glaucomatous atrophy, and suppurative dacryocystitis.

Fifty patients, convalescent from this disease, were examined by **ten Doesschate.** Half of them showed spontaneous nystagmus, eight had paralysis of accommodation, which in three had lasted ten months or over. In ten there was concentric contraction of the fields of vision, four of them for colors only. In three there was enlargement of the blind spot, choroidal changes were found in five, and indistinctness of the disc in four. Three patients showed diminished light sense.

Influenza. — The world-wide epidemic of influence gave rise to an extensive literature, but comparatively little of this refers to the ocular symptoms and complications. **Menacho** at Barcelona observed 13 cases. These include acute glaucoma becoming absolute in one case, hemorrhagic neuroretinitis with extension of the hemorrhage into the vitreous, partial paralysis of the third nerve, neuritis of the ophthalmic branch of the fifth nerve, keratitis, conjunctivitis, dacryocystitis, and accommodative asthenopia. In all these cases the attack of influenza seems to be an essential factor in the causation. **Urra** added to the above, cases of tenonitis, phlegmon of the orbit and panophthalmitis.

Stieren reports that of 325 cases 54 were referred to the eye department. The usual lesion was acute congestion of the conjunctiva, which was relieved by cold moist compresses. One patient developed a uniform haze of the corneal epithelium, which cleared up under atropin and dusting with calomel. Two cases of double orbital cellulitis recovered without abscess. Six pregnant women attacked with influenza all died. Four were examined with the ophthalmoscope; two showed marked neuroretinitis; one showed appearances resembling albuminuric retinitis, and the fourth an extremely cyanotic retina.

Fernandez reports 6 cases, presenting keratitis, iritis, secondary glaucoma, edema of the optic nerve head and incipient optic atrophy. The case of hypopyon keratitis yielded promptly to cauterization. **Guiral** found the influenza bacillus present in cases that

had the symptoms of acute contagious conjunctivitis. In a man of fifty, whose corneas rapidly ulcerated, the pneumococcus was also found.

The seven cases reported by **Green** and **Green** included metastatic ophthalmia and pseudoglioma leaving the eyeball very soft, iridocyclitis with a similar ending, acute glaucoma with restoration of normal vision after operation and acute glaucoma with recovery after miotics, retinitis with small hemorrhages, hemorrhage into the vitreous and paresis of accommodation. **Meisner** reports a case of keratitis disciformis, arising three weeks after the influenza attack.

Dengue Fever.—Attention is called by **Barkan** to ocular conditions that may arise from this disease. He reports one case of partial abducens paralysis, which caused diplopia on the ninth day from the onset of the disease, and which cleared up in a few weeks. In the second case paralysis of accommodation was observed, within two weeks after the attack. The paralysis appeared to be complete, 0.5 D. hyperopia reducing the vision which came up with that correction. Within six weeks the accommodation was wholly restored. The patient's age was 37. No other cause for such ocular conditions could be found. Such paralyses being temporary may readily be overlooked, among the ignorant tropical populations who are chiefly subject to this disease.

Erysipelas.—The case of a soldier is reported by **Pichler**; in which, with erysipelas of the nose and left eye, there was necrosis of the skin of the lids, and peripheral paralysis of the facial nerve. There was complete inability to close the left eye, and great reduction of vision from corneal inflammation and opacity.

Lethargic Encephalitis. — (Polioencephalitis with Narcolepsy, Epidemic Stupor with Ophthalmoplegia, Nona, Sleeping Sickness, Postinfluenzal Encephalitis, Epidemic or Basilar Encephalitis, Progressive Paralysis, Cerebral Toxemia, Botulism.) During the last two years cases of this disease have been observed in all parts of the world, in many localities being numerous enough to constitute an epidemic. The extensive literature regarding it is nearly all of interest to the ophthalmologist, the characteristic symptoms being lethargy and ophthalmoplegia. A patient slept for a week, then was taken to an oculist for her diplopia, went home and slept for ten days more. Occasionally the peculiar lethargy was lacking while in a minority of cases there was no evidence of ophthalmoplegia.

Most of the patients recovered; but a considerable proportion died, and in a larger number recovery was incomplete. It is a disease new to the present generation of observers, but records of similar cases in Italy and Austria in 1890 and accounts of similar conditions which claimed the attention of Virchow and were mentioned 200 years ago, are found in the literature. The discussion of this subject in the American Ophthalmological Society will be found in the current number of this Journal. The earliest literature of this epidemic was noted last year under epidemic encephalitis (A. J. O., Nov., p. 223).

It is a striking fact that the cases in 1890 and earlier were coincident with influenza epidemics, as is the recent outbreak. The discrimination of these cases from cerebral manifestations of influenza seems practically impossible; and many observers, as comes out in the discussion of the case reported by **Bergeron**, are disposed to regard these cases as a particular form of influenza. Spiller expressed the opinion that it be so recognized, Dercum thought that two cases of Gilpin, referable to grippe, presented changes suggesting encephalitis, and adduced cases of his own of similar character. Editorially the Journal of the A. M. A. (v. 72, p. 794) emphasizes this relationship.

Findlay points out that it must be distinct from poliomyelitis (infantile paralysis), because in the latter 90 per cent of the patients are children under ten years of age, while in the present epidemic 86 per cent were over ten years of age, and 77 per cent over fifteen years. He says that the patho-

logic condition found was characterized by a perivascular accumulation in the grey matter at the base of the brain, and that the virus is filterable. **Sachs** points out that fatal cases in this epidemic run a much longer course than those of poliomyelitis, as much as seven or eight weeks. He has noted a distinct history of influenza several weeks before the encephalitis, and that similar cases were reported after previous influenza epidemics.

Sharfin reports a case occurring in an infant of 15 months, with comment on its insidious onset, the child having been ill more than two weeks. **Heiman**, from a pediatric service, reports a series of cases, evidently of this character, under the title "postinfluenzal encephalitis." All had suffered from influenza; and all that series recovered. But in two of the eight the mentality was affected; and in three paralyses still remained at the time of report.

In **Tilney** and **Riley's** 20 cases only half gave a history of preceding influenza. In 14 patients the cranial nerves were affected. In half of them the oculomotor palsy was the only one noted; while in six the oculomotor and facial nerves were both involved; and one case, running a rapid course to death, involved the sixth, ninth, tenth and twelfth cranial nerves. **Lhermitte** and **St. Martin** point out that the ocular manifestations are found in the initial stage; and that the characteristic of the ophthalmoplegias is that they are disassociated and migratory.

Experiments of **Strauss, Hirschfeld,** and **Loewe** upon monkeys (Macacus) showed infection by intraperitoneal and subdural injection of emulsion of human brain, and transmission from this to two other monkeys, producing characteristic symptoms. The same symptoms were similarly produced by washings of the naso-pharynx, in a patient sick with epidemic encephalitis. No important bacteriologic findings are reported.

Neal reports that among 40 cases coming to the attention of the laboratory of the New York City Health Department, 27 had a history of a preceding attack of influenza. The histologic findings resemble those of trypanosomiasis. From poliomyelitis they differ by more extensive infiltration of meninges and larger vessel walls. They also resemble syphilis, except that in the latter disease the infiltration sticks to the vessels, and there are endarteritis and gummata of the vessel walls.

Belin's case, (a four year old child) first regarded as one of influenza, terminated fatally in 15 days, with the symptoms and course of encephalitis. **Schnoor** reporting 3 cases thinks the most common error in diagnosis is to attribute the condition to tuberculous meningitis. His cases all had a gradual onset and none had suffered from influenza. **Allen** warns of the danger of confusion with hysteria. **O'Carroll** and **Nesbit,** who report 4 cases, agree that the prodromal symptoms point toward this disease when headache, vertigo, diplopia and diminished visual activity, symptoms to which **MacNalty** called attention, are included. According to the latter progressive lethargy was the salient symptom in 80 per cent of the cases. It was commonly accompanied by the ocular symptoms.

Of **Stawell's** cases both apparently had influenzal attacks, one of them suffered no cranial nerve involvement, but the other saw double when he attempted to go back to work, and afterwards ran thru a typical attack of encephalitis with recovery. **Monger**, thru the Ohio State Bureau of Statistics, brought together 10 cases that were fatal, 9 of which had a history of previous influenza. In 4 no eye symptoms were mentioned, but the patients were infants or seen in stupor, and some had the mask-like face of facial paralysis.

Vest in his three cases noted photophobia, ptosis, palsy of the external rectus, and inequality of pupils. In **Gordon's** three cases there were paralyses of the upper lids and internal rectus, unequal pupils, palsy of the external rectus and nystagmus. These patients all recovered. Two began with attacks of influenza. **Grenet's** patient began with the symptoms of mumps and strabismus, but later exhibited the usual symptoms of encephalitis. The

symptoms brought out in the discussion at the Royal Society of Medicine (London) included strabismus, nystagmoid movements of the eyes, and localized and wandering palsies.

Tucker, who reports 11 cases, can see no relation to infantile paralysis. One of his patients had *choked disc*. **Hall** reports a case in which the swelling of the optic disc amounted to 5 D., but the patient recovered after about ten weeks. A youth of 17 seen by **Karyophyllis** was able to leave the hospital after four weeks, but without complete use of his legs, and with vision reduced to light perception by atrophy of the optic nerve. In **Baird's** case there was paralytic ptosis. In one of **Etienne's** cases, ending in death after three weeks, there was complete ptosis.

Batten in reporting 2 cases inclined to the view that they were related to botulism, but could not be due to food poisoning. In the discussion Paton pointed out their likeness to alkaloidal poisoning. Parsons thought it wise to suspend judgment as to their nature. Bilateral involvement of the cranial nerves was unusual but **Pothier** in a fatal case saw both 3rd and 6th nerves involved. Of his 8 cases 6 showed some involvement of ocular muscles. **Winner** from a study of 60 cases, found ptosis in 20, divergence of the eyes and ocular rigidity in 18, diplopia in 16, nystagmus in 11, and pupillary disturbances in 11.

Ely points out that the lethargy is more apparent than real, consisting largely in the mask-like, expressionless face, which resembles that seen in Parkinson's disease. **Bassoe**, who reports 12 cases, emphasizes the gradual onset, and says the first suggestive symptoms were usually blurring of vision, diplopia, and the listlessness which has been called lethargy. There is not so much real sleep as a sleepy expression of the face. **Wegeforth** and **Ayer**, who report 9 cases, say the onset is always insidious with headache, malaise, weakness and vertigo, and the earlier symptoms of probably greater significance, are a sore throat, diplopia and always fever. They emphasize the recurrent incomplete nature of the paralyses.

The symptoms that should suggest this disease seem to be a gradually increasing fever malaise, and headache, with ptosis, diplopia, or vertigo, probably associated with paresis of the ocular muscles, passing on to lethargy and more complete palsies; a group of symptoms that will often puzzle the ophthalmologist who has not this disease in mind.

Herpes Zoster Ophthalmicus.— This disease should probably be classed with acute infections, and considered among general diseases; altho the ocular lesions cause it to be noticed chiefly among affections of the lids and cornea. **Elliot** reports upon a series of 21 cases observed in the Madras Hospital in three years and four months; or about one patient in twenty-five hundred. But he has the impression that it is more frequent than this would indicate, in Madras.

He notes that 14 cases occurred in the colder season from November to March, and 5 in the rainy season between June and September. April and May, hot months, and October had none. Vision was seriously affected in nearly all, only one escaped with vision of 6/6. In 8 it ranged from 0.5 to 0.1. In 5 it was "very deficient," 2 could count fingers, 2 could distinguish hand movements, and 3 were blind or nearly so. Two patients had paralysis of the external rectus, and one had a dilated pupil. In one case there was marked increase of intraocular tension; diminished tension was frequent.

He found Donovan's solution of the greatest value in the treatment of the excruciating pain. It should be given at first in 10 minim doses thrice daily, in water, three quarters of an hour after a meal. After three days the dose should be increased 2 minims and after that a single minim added at intervals of a few days. Many patients will stand 20 to 30 minims without the nausea, vomiting or diarrhea, that are indications to stop the medicine, and start again with a smaller dose.

Gallemaerts reports a case occurring in a girl aged 5 years. The nose was

not affected, but a large central ulcer of the cornea occurred. **Klinedinst,** who reports 3 cases, calls attention to the severe general symptoms, fever, neuralgic pain, etc., which may mark the outbreak. These, and the herpes, tend toward spontaneous recovery in two or three weeks. In discussion Shumway called attention to the fact that herpes occurs in an epidemic form; and Stieren has come to regard it as a more or less common condition, not always recognized.

Aphthous Ulcers.—**Illig** calls attention to the involvement of the conjunctiva in a severe form of stomatitis with fever and angina, occurring after the use of uncooked milk. Ulcerations occur on other mucous surfaces, and the mouth ulcers are very painful. For the conjunctival condition hydrogen peroxid, boric solution and a weak solution of silver nitrat were employed.

Syphilis.—**Schurmann** finds that in spite of the general interest in the question of hereditary syphilitic eye diseases in the second generation, the question is not solved and two opposite viewpoints are sharply contrasted. According to Finger this heritance is possible in three ways: first as a manifest lues, second as a toxic, syphilitic dystrophy, and third as an absolute immunity. A case to be positive must fulfil the following three postulates: The lues of the first generation must be proved to be hereditary, an acquired form must be excluded, and lastly, the lues of the second generation also must be proved to be not acquired.

It is very difficult to meet these demands; especially difficult to exclude an acquired lues of the first generation, and the reinfection of heriditary luetics is of great importance. Fournier mentions a number of such cases, but many of them are not without objection as they are composed of dystrophies which in many cases are certainly not absolutely indicative of lues. The author examined children of hereditary luetics. It was remarkable how many of such unions remain sterile. Thirty-six children of seventeen families were examined. A general pediatric examination, then that of the eye and ear, an X-ray of the epiphyses of the knee and foot joints, and the Wassermann reaction. The examination disclosed the complete absence of all signs in these children that might have been interpreted as being due to hereditary lues.

Charles and **Lamb** had performed a routine Wassermann test on 112 of 137 pupils in the Missouri School for the Blind. Of 30 ophthalmia neonatorum cases, 1 was positive; 6 corneal ulcers negative; the only case of interstitial keratitis was strongly positive; 6 cases of sympathetic disease were negative; 4 refused the test; 12 congenital cataracts were negative; progressive uveitis 6 negative; retinitis pigmentosa 2 declined, 3 negative; retino-chorioditis 5 cases all strongly positive; optic atrophy 9 negative, 5 positive out of a total of 16. They concluded that from 10 to 15 per cent of the inmates of the blind asylum are syphilitic, these figures corresponding approximately to the percentage as it is supposed to exist among the population at large.

Among 830 cases presenting at the eye dispensary at Camp Sevier, **Blackwood** found 36 were syphilitic. These included 4 cases of optic neuritis, choroiditis 3, neuroretinitis 2, Argyll-Robertson pupil 2 (with positive laboratory findings), iritis 2, and disciform keratitis 1.

Lafon calls attention to *false hemeralopia* occurring as a symptom of tabes. He reports 3 cases coming under observation for the hemeralopia, but in each instance revealing satisfactory evidence of tabes upon careful investigation. In writing on the pathogenesis of tabes dorsalis **Schaller** accepts the views of Stargardt that optic atrophy is not primary in tabes but like other tabetic symptoms is due to a preceding inflammatory meningeal involvement. Specific treatment he finds beneficial applied thru the spinal fluid during the inflammatory stage.

Simpson states he has encountered the primary lesion in the conjunctiva in 2 cases. Iritis he regards as the most frequent ocular lesion, the interstitial keratitis, scleritis and episcleritis

are all observed as late symptoms of acquired syphilis. He calls attention to the resemblance between the lesions of syphilis and those of tuberculosis, especially the granulomas.

Bulson thinks that 10 per cent of the cases of interstitial keratitis are due to acquired syphilis. He points out that periostitis, chronic, with deep seated pain, usually worse at night, occurring in the orbit is most often a late manifestation of syphilis. **Merlo** writes on the syphilitic eye; by which he means one with slight unilateral ptosis, slight strabismus, and a peculiar expression, by which he thinks he has been immediately able to recognize the presence of the disease.

Greene in a general review of syphilis of the eye, in the acquired form, finds that in treatment the best results thus far obtained with *arsphenamin* have been observed in uveal inflammations, particularly nodular iritis. In syphilis of the retina and optic nerve there is great diversity of opinion as to its value, and the same is true of the ocular palsies. In interstitial keratitis the results have not been satisfactory. **Bulson** points out that repeated administration of this remedy is usually required, and that it should be supplemented by mercurial treatment. **Early** has written a general paper referring to syphilis of the cornea, iris, and choroid.

Tuberculosis. — **Fernandez** points out that because of its insidious onset, tuberculosis is likely to escape recognition. Its ocular manifestations are generally secondary; but rarely secondary to pulmonary tuberculosis. Any eye affection distinctly chronic in its course is open to suspicion. He finds tuberculin treatment his main reliance.

Weeks holds that to establish a diagnosis of tuberculosis in the eye the subcutaneous injection of old tuberculin is generally considered best. He begins with 1 mg. in the adult, and one-half that amount in children, repeating the dose in 48 to 72 hours, if no reaction is produced, using 2 mg. for the second and 3 mg. for the third dose. The focal reaction so produced is increase of hyperemia of the conjunctiva, the appearance of an exacerbation in iritis with haziness of the aqueous. In choroidal disease the haziness over the affected area is increased, and vision may be farther impaired. The same is true of lesions of the retina or optic nerve. The reaction may last from 6 to 48 hours, and usually leaves the eye better when it subsides. For therapeutic purposes other tuberculins may be employed. He prefers a dose just short of that sufficient to produce a systemic reaction. The range of doses is very wide 1/250,000 mg. has produced a strong reaction, while 3 mg. has been given without any appreciable constitutional effects. He continues the injections at least two months after all signs of activity of the focus has subsided.

For the diagnostic use of tuberculin **Peter** considers only the cutaneous and the subcutaneous tests; and for himself has abandoned all but the latter. He gives old tuberculin the rank of the best preparation for this purpose, and holds the focal reaction to be the most convincing evidence. He believes that the negative result obtained in some cases depends on the absence of some special toxin ingredient, and a variation of the preparation may give better results. For therapeutic use he places the initial dose at 1/10,000 mg., for either adults or children, and if this gives a marked reaction the dose must be diminished. The necessity for using small doses to avoid a febrile reaction and continuance of the treatment over long periods is emphasized by **Gardini.** He too, begins with an initial dose of 1/10,000 mg.

Török points out that the conjunctival test has been absolutely abandoned. The cutaneous reaction only indicates the presence of a focus in the body, and possesses large elements of danger. The subcutaneous method has been absolutely void of danger in an experience of 1,000 injections; and yields focal and general as well as a local reaction. He reports the statistics of 100 cases. His method is to begin with 1/10,000 mg. increasing the therapeutic dose an equal amount with each

administration, until it reaches 1/100 mg. then increasing by that amount until 1/10 is reached, and by 1/10 up to the maximum dose of 1 mg. The duration of treatment must be long; the best results have been obtained where it was continued several years after apparent cure, by an injection of the maximum dose once every three or four months.

Basterra y Santa Cruz reviews the general subject of the treatment of ocular tuberculosis. He employs the bacillus emulsion, beginning with 1/500 mg. and increasing by that amount until 1/50 is reached; then more rapidly up to a maximum dose of 2 mg.

Krysolgan, a proprietary gold preparation with sodium and a complex acid radical, is exploited by **Hessberg** for the treatment of ocular tuberculosis upon the basis of an experience with 43 patients. **Gjessing** reports favorable results with the tuberculin treatment, in keratitis, conjunctivitis and uveitis. **Baer** reports 2 cases of ocular disease associated with pulmonary tuberculosis. One was of choked disc ending in partial atrophy of the optic nerve; the other was a parenchymatous keratitis which followed trauma. The title of pseudotuberculosis of the eyes is used by **von Hippel** for a case of disease due to the embedding of caterpillar hairs in the eyeball; in which the hairs were discovered after enucleation. **Purtscher** reports a case resembling Parinaud's conjunctivitis in which the tubercle bacillus was not demonstrated altho probably responsible for the condition.

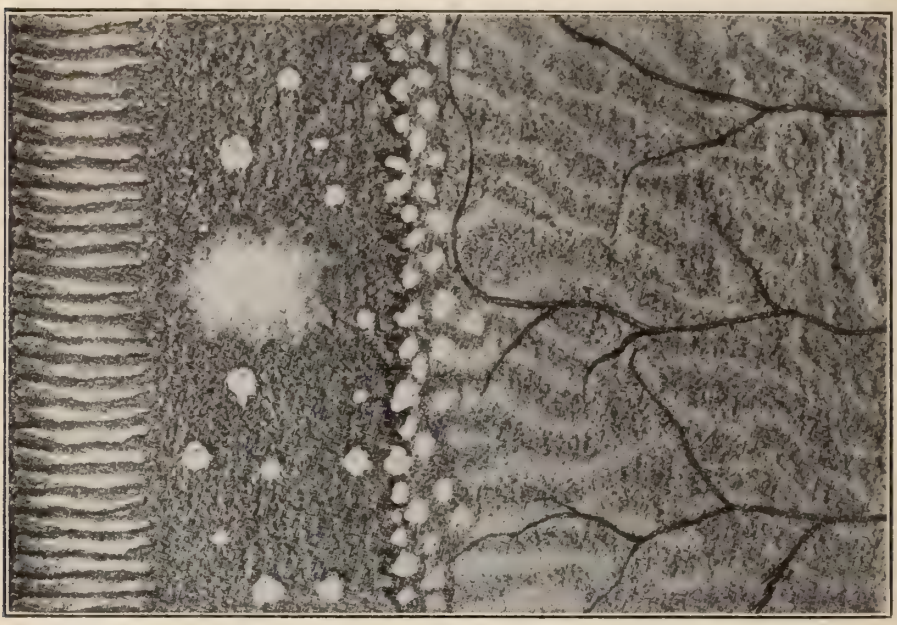


Fig. 1. Lesions of Leprosy in the extreme periphery of the fundus. (Valettas).

Leprosy.—In reporting a case **Valettas** expresses the idea that the ophthalmoscopic changes in leprosy usually begin in the region of the ora serrata and anteriorly where they are only to be discovered by pressing in the ciliary region as suggested by Trantas. The ophthaloscopic picture found in his first case is shown in Fig. 1. Approximately similar conditions were present in his second case. He quotes Trantas' statistics of 81 cases examined of which 55 showed ophthalmoscopic changes, 26 being those of typical anterior retinitis, 16 of atypical

changes at the ora serrata and 13 showing disseminated choroiditis.

Malaria.—From a large experience in India, **Kirk** concludes that the malarial lesions of the eye depend on damage to its nerve supply; causing dendritic keratitis, malarial neuroretinitis, paresis of the external ocular muscles. Conditions ascribed to malaria he thinks due to intense glare of the sun, dust, heat and other general diseases. He found these as common in tropical regions where malarial infection was not usual as where malaria was rife. At Malta the complaints of night blindness were always associated with anemia. Other patients suffered from uncorrected ametropia. Retinal hemorrhage was not common and he suspected was due to overdosage of quinin, in susceptible individuals.

Carlotti in Albania, Macedonia and Salonica observed that while malaria caused no special form of conjunctivitis, it gave a hemorrhagic character to trachoma and vernal conjunctivitis. Keratitis is generally dendritic, ulcerous, or pseudointerstitial. Scleritis sometimes accompanied herpes and sometimes rheumatic keratitis. Among 636 cases there were only five of iritis. Chorioretinitis with optic neuritis was not seen. Neuralgia affected all branches of the trifacial, or only the ophthalmic. There were four cases of paralysis of the extraocular muscles in two of which the abducens was at fault, while the exact localization of the others was not determined.

The observations of **Agricola** on malarial eye disease include one case of parenchymatous keratitis, one of typical supraorbital neuralgia, one of optic nerve disease in which there was absolute central scotoma followed by recovery, and two of disturbance of the visual centers. **Lauber** reports a case in which there was optic nerve atrophy, with loss of most of the nasal field and concentric narrowing in the right eye and reduction of vision to counting fingers with the left. There was also some paresis of the external ocular muscles.

Blood Conditions.—Studies of the condition of the blood were made by **Brückner** in connection with a large number of ocular infections, and sympathetic ophthalmia. He concludes that the conditions found, lymphocytosis, neutrophilia eosinophilia, etc., throw no light upon the ocular conditions.

Endocrine Organs.—A case of hemangioendothelioma of the pituitary body, is reported by **Good** and **Ellis** The seat of the pituitary was occupied by a globular mass 4.7x4.x3.5 cm. in diameter. There remained but a remnant of the right clinoid process, the left having entirely disappeared. The ocular symptoms were narrowing of the field of vision, most marked upward and outward, with a scotoma and enlargement of the blind spot; and grayish pallor of the optic disc which first affected the temporal halves. **Osborne** has written a general paper on the ductless glands in relation to the eye. He advises caution; in the administration of glandular extracts, as to the selection of cases, restriction of dose and quality of the preparation.

Diet.—**Sztark** reports the case of a child 27 months old fed exclusively on vegetable soup. Xerophthalmia developed, but disappeared when cow's milk was given, and later cod liver oil.

Pregnancy.—**Platero** advises opthalmoscopic examination every four weeks after the sixth month, supplemented with determination of blood pressure and the secretion of urea, to guard against a sudden outbreak of toxemia. If vision is impaired, and does not return to normal under medical treatment within five days, pregnancy should be interrupted. He reports 2 cases in which vigorous medical treatment and free ingestion of water and venesection gave relief, with spontaneous delivery.

Induced abortion and sterility are discussed by **Adam** from the standpoint of ophthalmology. He takes up ocular lesions due to pregnancy and those previously existing and aggravated by it. Among the former, in addition to albuminuric retinitis, are mentioned keratoconus, corneal ulcer, cataract, pulsating exophathalmos, glaucoma, retinal embolism. detachment of the retina and disease of the

optic nerve. **Kraupa** and **Wolffberg** also take up this subject.

Focal Infection.—Under the heading of focal infections of the eye from the intestinal tract **Dwyer** discusses some conditions heretofore considered under autointoxication. The points to be noted with reference to the intestinal contents are the reaction, the food detritus and the relative number of putrefactive bacteria and colon bacilli. For excessively acid stools strict diet, laxatives, irrigation of the colon with weak sodium carbonat solution, are recommended. The paper of **Ide** is a general review of the literature of the subject. From a similar review **Faith** concludes that focal infections are a very prevalent cause of eye disease. The focus is usually chronic and often quiescent. More than one may be present. The common organisms are the streptococcus and pneumococcus group and turbercle bacillus and gonococcus. They most frequently affect the uveal tract.

Cullom had a patient with recurrent iritis and a specific history who insisted on having his tonsils removed and from that time had no further recurrence. Another case with dental infection grew worse until the next day after his teeth were removed, and in a week was practically well. Another with recurring corneal ulcers immediately grew better after the removal of the tonsils. Two other cases of iritis showed immediate improvement from the same operation. In another, obstruction of the retinal circulation seemed to clear up after the removal of the tonsils. **Stallings** discusses, in connection with focal infection, scleritis, and episcleritis, herpes, ulcer and neuroparalytic inflammation of the cornea, and iritis.

Dental Disease.—**Martin** reports the case of a man with impaired visual acuity and irreguiar variable narrowings of the periphery of the visual fields of his right eye. A focus of infection was demonstrated at the apex of the right upper incisor, the pulp having been removed some years previously. Three days after its extraction the vision had improved, and at the end of six weeks central acuity and the field were normal. Four months later the same symptoms recurred. There was tenderness over the site of the former dental lesions and minute fistulous openings back of the right upper incisor. This lesion was exposed and thoroly curetted. Next day vision was better, and in three days the field was largely restored. **Dor** reports the case of a soldier with lowered vision and edema of the optic nerve head. The eye had been red and painful, and there was uveitis. **Terson** comments upon the above communication, both these writers referring especially to the American literature.

Sinus Disease.—The ocular evidences of disease in the ethmoid are divided by **Turner** into objective and subjective. He believes that intimate relationship between the parts, both vascular lymphatic and nervous, are such that the ocular structures seldom escape involvement in ethmoidal disease. Inspection shows fullness of the vessels of the bulbar conjunctiva down and in, which in marked cases extends to other parts of the globe. There is reduction of convergence power; as the fixation object is approached to the eyes, the eye on the affected side ceases to turn in, and diverges relatively or absolutely. In these cases orthoptic exercises give satisfactory results after cure of the nasal condition.

The ophthalmoscope shows fullness and tortuousity of the retinal veins; and, in severe exacerbations, of the retinal arteries. The granular fundi of children he regards as due to long continued congestion. He has also observed a progressive change toward increased myopia, permanently checked only by treatment of the ethmoids. Glaucoma, and lens opacities always found in the lower nasal quadrant, are ascribed to this same cause; and general diffuse opacities of the corneal stroma are evidence of nasal trouble.

Among subjective symptoms Turner mentions *headache,* especially that present on awakening in the morning. There is heaviness and soreness about the eyes, tenderness on pressure

Hyperesthesia, inability to use the eyes for any considerable amount of work is also due to this cause. His views with regard to phlyctenular disease have been elsewhere referred to. (See p. 48.)

Uribe-Troncoso describes a *tumor of the sphenoid* accompanied by ocular manifestations in a girl of eleven; poor vision was noticed with the left eye, followed one year afterward by severe headaches during which the mother noticed that the eyes crossed.

Zade reports a case of unilateral exophthalmos without clear evidence of sinus disease. Treatment with potassium iodid failed to produce an improvement. There was no pus found in the nose after cocainization, and no other evidence of sinus involvement. However, an exploratory incision opened a mucocele of the ethmoid cells, and gave relief. **Galtung** reports a case of bilateral retrobulbar neuritis of nasal origin with marked reduction of vision, and central scotoma. Immediately after operation, opening the sinuses, vision fell to R. counting fingers at 2 meters, and L. 5/30. But six months later the fields were normal, with vision of 0.5 or better in each eye, although some red-green color blindness remained. **Dabney's** remarks on headache point out that the headaches of nasal origin may be due to pressure on the septum, nasal polyps, sinus disease, and chronic hypertrophic rhinitis.

Disease of Central Nervous System.—In a series of cases of *multiple sclerosis,* **Bolten** reports 2 that began with nystagmus along with spastic paresis and hemiparesis. One of these, several years later, became suddenly blind. The optic discs were white, but after a time vision of ⅔ was recovered. In 2 other cases optic neuritis was an important early symptom. The suspicion of brain tumor raised in one of them was only dissipated by watching the course of the disease.

Crossley draws attention to the prevalence and early appearance of ocular symptoms in multiple sclerosis mentioning a case which developed diplopia in 1917, followed 1 month afterward by right side facial paralysis and a numbness of the fingers and weakness of the wrist and forearm of the left side. Nystagmus then became marked and of intentional character. The vision right and left was 20/50 with a pale disc, more so on the temporal half, altho no central scotoma could be demonstrated. Crossley notes that 50 per cent of all cases of multiple sclerosis show early ocular lesions, these cases being exceeded in this respect only by cases of brain tumor and equalled only in cerebral syphilis and hemorrhagic meningitis.

In a paper on the eye complications of *Little's disease,* **Eyer** reports a case in which there was bilateral atrophy of the optic nerve. The pupils reacted promptly to light and convergence. Vision was reduced to 5/15.

An editorial in the *New York Medical Journal* calls attention to increased sensibility of the eyeball to pressure in *locomotor ataxia.* This is ascribed to a ciliary neuritis of the class of tabetic peripheral neuritides. Loss of corneal sensibility is also an important symptom in this disease.

Stevens thinks the predisposing cause of *chorea* is unsymmetric development of the cerebrum, and nonconformity to the growth of the cranium causing pressure on points controlling movement. The indications for treatment are correction of errors of refraction and declinations of the eyes.

Penichet has tabulated the ocular complications of 41 cases of peripheral *epilepsy.* Twenty-eight had subjective symptoms and disturbed visual sensations. Among objective symptoms were deviations of the eyes, 18; pupil changes, 26; fundus changes, 9; muscular, 6; disturbance of vision, 17; field of vision, 9; conjunctival ecchymosis, 3.

Functional Nervous Disease.—**Pagniez, Vallery-Radot** and **Nast** from the success of similar treatment in urticaria tried for migraine the ingestion of peptone, in half gram doses one hour before meals when headache was threatened. In some cases the treatment was fairly successful and in others a complete failure.

In the treatment of *"nervous asthenopia"* **Fuchs** advises in addition to the usual medicines (musk, valerian, potassium bromid, quinin, etc.), the psychic treatment of the nervous condition, hypnosis and suggestion. In the latter direction using plane glasses, weak colored glasses, unusually weak glasses "as used in America," electricity, supraorbital massage and conjunctival applications are suggested.

Kehrer describes the treatment of *hysteria* with spasms and paralyses of the eye muscles as follows. After a suggestive preparation, encouragement and injection into the skin about the region of the temples of some indifferent substance, one massages slowly with one's right hand thru which there is being conducted a faradic current just to be felt, toward the direction of the movement which one wishes to restore—in the case of contractures then, toward the antagonist, in the case of paralysis in the opposite direction until the motor effect becomes apparent. At the first sign of the return of function it is demonstrated to the patient in a mirror; following this the eyes are exercised in various directions, the patient controlling these in the mirror until the remnants of the contracture or paralysis have disappeared. In this way he succeeded, for instance, in curing in one session a bilateral ptosis. The most frequent visual disturbance in hysteria is, according to his experience, the contraction of the visual field.

In a case reported by **Guijarro** bilateral amaurosis under severe emotional stress was the first symptom of hysteria. Vision returned under suggestion, but it was several months before recovery was complete. Among 1,000 cases of hysteria, **Raether** saw only 8 with ocular symptoms. Two had lid palsies, 2 spasm of convergence, 2 bilateral amblyopia, and 2 hysteric amaurosis.

Exophthalmic Goiter.—Among the nervous and mental symptoms of this disease, **Barker** classes the v. Graefe sign, Dalrymple sign, protrusion of the eyeballs, and epiphora in some patients, abnormally dry eyes in others. He thinks the behavior of these patients is always more or less abnormal, the affective connotive processes being more disturbed than the intellectual.

Bram ranks tachycardia the most important symptom, but ranks exophthalmos among the four cardinal signs of the disease. **Lian** urges that in every case of tachycardia of doubtful origin the ocular signs of exophthalmic goiter should be looked for. Sometimes only the behavior of the upper lid will give the clue to the condition. **Bär** reports three cases developing in soldiers in active service. **Loeper** calls attention to the importance of flatulent dyspepsia in exophthalmic goiter.

Oculocardiac Reflex.—**Voisin** and **Benhamou** call attention to the therapeutic value of the oculocardiac reflex, reporting 2 cases in which paroxysms of tachycardia, without organic disease, subsided under the reflex pressure, kept up 2 or 3 minutes to ensure a permanent result. Where the tachycardia was constant, pressure modified it for two or three hours. **Ferrannini** points out that Dagnini of Bologna first called attention to this reflex in 1908.

General Papers.—**Odeneal** in a paper on close relationship between the general practitioner and ophthalmologist and otolaryngologist, reviews some of the conditions in the management of which it is especially important for them to cooperate. **Welsh** calls attention to the importance of the eye in connection with general diseases. **Kearney** has written on distressing affections traceable to eye conditions.

HYGIENE.

JOHN GREEN, JR., M.D.

ST. LOUIS.

This section carries the literature of the subject from September, 1918, to November, 1919. For previous references see A. J. O., November, 1918, p. 236.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

LIGHTING: The general requirements for factories, mills and other working places are thus stated: (Public Health Report, Jan. 24, 1919)

(1) Sufficient illumination for each workman, irrespective of his position or working space.

(2) The lamps should be selected

and installed so as to minimize the strain on the eyes.

(3) The source of the supply should insure continuity of service and steadiness of light.

(4) Adequate illumination from overhead lamps should prevent sharp shadows.

(5) In addition to overhead lamps, individual lamps close to the work should be provided when necessary. In such cases the lamps should be provided with opaque reflectors.

The advantages of good light are: (1) Reduction of accidents. (2) Accuracy in workmanship. (3) Decreased spoilage of product. (4) Increased production with the same labor cost. (5) Less eye strain. (6) Better working and living conditions. (7) Greater contentment of the workmen. (8) Better order, cleanliness, and neatness in the plant. (9) Easier supervision of the men. In this list it will be noted that items 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 all have a bearing on accident prevention. The report covers, in detail, the requirements of adequate daylight as well as artificial illumination and hence does not lend itself to abstract.

Clewell believes that the development of new and improved window arrangements in Industrial Buildings, and electric and gas lamps possessing high efficiency of light production, have centered the attention of employers more and more on standardized lighting and the attainment of effective illumination. Good lighting is a factor in the health, working efficiency and conservation of eyesight of employees and is also a preventative of accidents. Humanitarian employers will provide good lighting on the general principle of bettering the physical condition of their employees. Others will do so when shown that good lighting is closely related to increased production, less spoilage and more satisfactory conditions of shop management.

Compensation laws lead employers to consider good lighting as an important factor in minimizing accidents and in reducing workmen's compensation insurance rates. In order to protect the eyes from the high degree of light concentration of modern lamps, it is necessary to employ adequate shades. "The greatest single error in the use of lamps for the artificial factory lighting system, is in neglect of the proper devices for shielding the eyesight from these pernicious bare lamps." Accidents occur more frequently under artificial than daylight illumination, thus great care should be taken to have the best system.

Monasch defines and explains his title, "Technique of Lighting," as being understood to include the relation of illumination to efficiency and conservation of vision. The cooperation of technicians and ophthalmologists will bring about a demand for higher standards. There are many problems to be solved, the most important at present being the elimination from artificial light of rays, which are harmful to the eye. He mentions not only ultraviolet rays, but infrared rays. The phenomenon of color blending deserves a wide and thoro investigation. Numerous examples are cited to show the close relation of theory to practice, e.g., the use of opalized glass on lights that resemble daylight, thus securing a diffusion of rays.

Weiss states that the most convenient method of light measurement is photography. One must take into consideration, however, the photochemic and physiologic actions of light. That a camera and the eye do not receive light in the same manner or degree is quite evident; the retina is adjusted for yellow-red rays and the photographic plate for the short rays. The destructive action of the shorter rays on the retina has long been recognized. This adjustment seems to be a chemical one, by means of the visual purple. As the organ of sight is a nervous apparatus, the adjustment must be a physiologic one as well.

The action of light on the retina is influenced by several factors: The width of the pupil, the type of light used, the condition of the media, etc. If we wish to measure the proper amount of light to be thrown on the retina, by photometric methods, we

must take all these factors into consideration. Special methods of preparing the film, of photographing thru an albuminous medium, special scales for grading results, and of regulating the size, form, color, etc., of the objects or charts to be photographed, have been worked out.

Protective Glasses: **Sheard** quotes Hartridge and Hill, who affirm as a result of experiments, that the infrared or long wave lengths of energy may be sources of irritation, leading to the development of cataract. These infrared rays are transmitted by the cornea, and "are absorbed in large part by the iris, which, lying close to the lens and being the seat of the absorbed energy, will cause nutritional changes in the lens by virtue of the abnormal stimulus to the processes controlling the secretion of the humour." The iris sphincter responds chiefly to long wave lengths and not to the shorter or blue lengths.

The mercury vapor lamp is not a good source of illumination, because the pupil is not stimulated to respond and thus protect the eye. Large pupils, contracting insufficiently under light stimulus, admit excessive light; thus irritating the ciliary processes, the lens and even the retina. Sheard believes that not only the elimination of the ultraviolet and infrared ends of the spectrum is needed but a "general reduction of all the energy transmitted to an eye." He thinks that the function of the ultraviolet in producing ocular discomfort is exaggerated; affirming that sunlight has a higher percentage of ultraviolet rays than any other source of illumination. Glare may evoke photophobia, irritation and excessive fatigue in shop and office workers.

The trouble with most illumination is excessive lighting in limited areas, too often in the direct field of view, with violent contrasts. A glass elimnating most of the radiation not needed for vision, toning down light to minimize glare and reduce the demands on the sphincter of the iris, will promote ocular comfort and efficiency. Crookes A. glass absorbs more energy in the yellow-green region than in the red or violet ends of the spectrum. Crookes B. glass absorbs a very great deal of energy.

McPherson gives a number of instances of soldiers who found relief by discontinuing the use of glasses given to protect them from the glare of the tropics and the desert. He advises the wearing of such glasses only under exceptional circumstances, and not as a matter of routine, and then only moderately tinted glasses.

Oppenheimer states that for *shooting glasses* monocular and not binocular correction and prescription is recommended. The shooting eye must be especially carefully fitted. In consideration of the monocular vision called into play in shooting, binocular vision less than the standard is permissible.

Krückmann and **von Kern,** discussing shooting glasses, differentiate between those constructed for the ametropic eye and those for the emmetropic eye. An important factor is the intensity of light in which they are to be used. In very intense light a glass that is opaque around the margin, leaving only a small round clear space in the center, or glasses of the stenopaic variety have been found efficient. Yellow glasses heighten the intensity of color contrasts and hence are useful for vision in twilight. For the ametropic eye the correction of the refraction is most important. A paper descriptive of the various types of glasses that have been found useful in Polar Expeditions, has been written by **Holth.**

Greeff reviews the history of stenopaic glasses and describes a pair designed by the optician Mueller. The present form of stenopaic glasses was originally thought of in connection with motoring. The lenses are made out of rolled iron, plated with nickel; are mounted in leather, after the manner of goggles and are fastened in the back. They give a free field of vision. Each "lens" has three stenopaic slits. The first is horizontal, a little below the middle of the "lens," is 45 mm. long and 1 mm. broad. The second in

the inner half of the lens is vertical and is about 33 mm. long. The third runs temporally from the center, is placed below the horizontal slit and forms an angle of 10° with it. It does not extend nasally to join the intersection of the vertical and horizontal slits. It is 25 mm. long. The only drawback is limited convergence for near objects. For shooting they have the advantage of being nonbreakable and do not splinter upon being hit by a bullet. They are useful also in traversing snow covered fields.

"It is known that one sees fewer details by radioscopy than on the photographic plate, even if the examination is prolonged." **Trendelenberg,** while examining an abdomen, by radioscopy, placed on the screen a black card perforated with holes, one-fourth cm. in diameter. Observing the screen at a distance of 50 cm. he noted that he did not see the hole he fixed but the one next to it. The quantity of fluorescent light which passes thru an abdomen is not sufficient to reach the threshold of macular perception. This light is not seen by the cones; but by the perimacular rods, which by adaptation, can lower their threshold. As the acuity of the rods is not as great as that of the cones there are details which can not be seen by radioscopy but which come out in the negative. The adaptation glasses should shut off the rays which act on the rods,—those of 530 $\mu\omega$ (yellow-green)—and let pass the rays of 600 $\mu\omega$ wave lengths (orange) which act on the cones. Trendelenberg has put in a chauffeur's goggles a red glass which permits rays of 700 to 590 $\mu\omega$ to pass and arrests the yellow-green rays of about 530 $\mu\omega$ which act on the rods and absorb the visual purple. With these glasses he can leave the dark chamber without losing time to regain adaptation.

School Hygiene: The Maryland Department of Health has appealed to parents to correct, during the summer months, physical defects in 8,000 school children. Defective vision causes 400 to be back in their grades. During the summer the school nurses are at work continuously. Each child is given a card specifying the defects to be corrected and advising parents to secure medical attention.

Thompson points out that myopia is a mysterious disease, perhaps as mysterious as glaucoma, in the matter of etiology. He sees a parallelism between the incidence of myopia and a tendency to strumous affections. It has even been held that the essential cause of myopia is a weakness of the sclera caused by tubercle. Contrary to the general belief, Thompson has found that those attending the rural schools presented a higher percentage of myopia and myopic astigmatism than those attending the city schools. He states that in the County of Lanark "the children of agriculture are not less myopic than the children of industry. The children of miners are more subject to myopia than those of the other two classes."

The part played by heredity is very uncertain. There were some cases of high and dangerous myopia occurring in children without myopic parents or relatives. By adding together the highest meridians of myopia in all the myopic children and dividing the sum by the number of myopic children the "mean myopia" was ascertained. He found that there was no striking difference between the mean myopia in urban and rural districts. There was an apparent tendency for myopia to be higher in the right eye than in the left. In a series of 790 myopes, squint was found 65 times, doubtful 9 times. Divergent squint was found 27 times, doubtful twice. Convergent squint 38 times, doubtful 7 times. **Gowens** in a general paper, discusses the care of the eyes of children.

School Inspection: **Metzger** makes a plea for the examination of children's eyes prior to their entrance into school. Measures, aimed to prevent grave errors by caring for minor ones, are much more valuable than attempts to remedy after permanent damage has been done. The potential myope should have proper attention and an exact refractive correction, prior to the development of his myopia. The final

status of each eye is well established before the error is detected by routine school inspection.

At the present time our estimate of the relation between vision and education rests largely on the tests for acuity in school, little account being taken of fatigue, functional troubles, the ocular results of various kinds of work and the risks of visual deterioration. **Kerr** noted great variation in different districts, the percentage of poor vision varying from 4.4% to 19.5%, the variations being due, largely, to preventable causes such as poor surroundings and variations in general health.

Hogarth in discussing Kerr's paper said that by using extreme care to fix the attention in 800 very young children, she secured normal vision in 86%, only 3.2% showing poor vision. Ocular fatigue, tho masked by great accommodative range in the young, was a contributor to nerve fatigue. Up to the 14th year 7% to 8% were myopic; but after that age myopia jumped up to 15% to 19%. There was an increase in myopia during convalescence following acute illness. The avoidance of glare and light contrasts and proper notions of hygiene and nutrition were all important as preventive measures.

Harman, in discussion, stated he had examined, under homatropin, the refraction of young children from 4 to 7. Of 368 children, 8 were emmetropic, 232 had hyperopia and 38 had more than 2 diopters of astigmatism. Only a very few had myopia, altho he noted one instance of myopia of 18 diopters. Seven children had scarred corneas and there were 23 cases of anisometropia of over one diopter. There were 8 squint cases. Kerr concludes that one in three was unfit to do school work under ordinary conditions and he demands preliminary examination, and that these children be graded on the basis of this examination.

School for Amblyopes: **Green** states that, for the purpose of classification, defective sight has been defined as "vision not more than one-third nor less than one-tenth, with the best glasses obtainable." There is a very large group of children who fall into this class. Such children may have vision enough to struggle thru several of the earlier grades, but sooner or later their ocular handicap prevents advancement. Unless their defect is discovered they are compelled to leave school long before the grammar grades are completed. When this problem first began to take shape in the minds of educators it was assumed, erroneously as experience proved, that the semisighted child was to all intents and purposes a blind child and was to be educated as such.

Classes for semisighted children are now in operation in a number of Massachusetts, Ohio, New York and Wisconsin cities. As far as possible, instruction is given in the class rooms with other children but special methods have to be employed such as text books, printed in 36 point type, the use of blackboards attached to the desks, large yellow sheets of paper with large pencils, etc. Special attention is given to manual training and handiwork of various kinds. The selection of children for semi-sighted classes should be made by a competent oculist and he should reexamine the child from time to time, so that, if conditions warrant, the child may be restored to full standing in the ordinary classes, or on the other hand, if vision fails, he may be transferred to the school for the blind. A survey of a large number of children in Massachusetts showed that between 0.1% and 0.4% of the whole school population required teaching in sight saving classes.

Prevention of Epidemics: **Crain** writes of a recent visit by Surgeon McMullen of the United States Public Health Service who made a survey of the trachoma situation in Bell County, Texas. Among 1,200 rural school children he found 13% had trachoma. In one township of 1,000 white school children, 7% were infected. By order of the City Health Officer, parents of the infected children were told that the children would not be allowed to go to school unless treated and cured.

Treatment at a clinic was provided on a specified day. On this day, and subsequently, nearly 100 children were operated by scarification and scrubbing the conjunctiva with bichlorid. Less than 10% of those operated required any further treatment. Seventy-five per cent of those that were operated were back in school in one week, all but 2 or 3 were back in 10 days.

Criticizing the inadequacy of mouth and nasal masks in general use during the influenza epidemic, **Hill** states that the eyes exposed to mouth spray may convey infection thru the tear ducts to the nose, throat and mouth. In the pneumonic form of bubonic plague it is well recognized that the mask must cover the eyes as well as the nose and mouth, to serve as an adequate protection.

Prevention of Injuries: An editorial in *Modern Medicine* refers to a paper by **Sharp** who states that carelessness, leading to injury, may rest: (1) in the employe; (2) in the employer, who fails to provide proper safeguards; and (3) in the attending physician, who by his carelessness or lack of skill, may cause the loss of an injured eye. "Why do we have so many eye injuries?" When we sum up the thousands of eye injuries that only physicians and liability companies know of, and the hundreds of more serious accidents brought to trial before the Industrial Board, we need use but one word in answering this question—carelessness.

Nance states that owing to the widespread adoption of safety appliances, there are fewer injuries in industry than there were ten years ago. He regards the *toy air-gun* as especially pernicious. There is a prevailing notion that the air-gun is harmless, due to the fact that, owing to the relatively low velocity of the shot, injuries from air-guns are usually trivial. But the ocular tissues are less resistant and many eyes have been lost by air-gun injuries. Chicago has recently passed an ordinance prohibiting the sale or gift of these weapons.

Nance strongly urges the wider adoption of rimmed spectacles. In case of injury to lenses thus mounted, the rims will probably hold the fragments and thus prevent ocular damage. One large Steel Company has reduced the number of accidents in its plant 75% in 2 years, by the use of protective goggles; and insists that these should be made as comfortable as possible by proper fitting. Glasses should be changed as soon as scratched and there should be free play of air to prevent moisture condensing on the glass and thus obscuring sight. In place of glass a gauze screen, 32 mesh to the inch, may be used when acute vision is not required. Suction fans, intended to free the air of dust, incidentally are useful in getting rid of foreign bodies which might otherwise strike the eye. The proper arrangement of screens will prevent flying particles striking fellow workmen.

Scott, who practices in a coal and timber region, finds that most of the injuries which come under his observation, could have been prevented by suitable protectors. The primary essential of any protector is that it should afford complete protection. Comfort, light weight and ventilation are important. For miners, chippers and riveters, goggles of double-strength glass, with wire side screens, are required. To prevent steaming of the glass, he advocates the use of anti-sweat pencils. Other industrial workers may wear lighter goggles which may be worn over the workman's own correction. Scott insists on the absolute necessity of a workman who has lost one eye, or whose vision in one eye has been impaired, wearing protective glasses or goggles. The danger of injury to the eye from breakage is very slight.

Prevention of Blindness: The conclusions drawn by **Stricker**, from a careful survey of the blind in Hamilton County, Ohio, are probably applicable to many other localities. He found that a vast majority of the blind that had received an education or learned a trade were unable to apply it practically, and that there was no connecting link between the State School and gainful industry. One-half of the

80 who attended the State School were unemployed, and the average wages of 40 employed ranged from $1.50 to $4.00 a week. This explains the need for a supplemented wage. Individual effort on the part of blind workmen is almost bound to lead to failure, some institution must be open to them to which they may come daily to follow their trade.

Another handicap is that employers of labor dislike to employ the blind, fearing accidents and lawsuits. Many of the educated blind drifted into mendicancy. He estimated that from one-third to one-half of blindness could have been prevented. Blindness from ophthalmia neonatorum has been eradicated. The control of infectious diseases, school inspection and conservation of vision classes, have greatly reduced blindness in young persons; and the efforts of the State Industrial Commission have resulted in the reduction of blindness due to accident. The pension of the blind ($150 per annum) has been a great benefit as more than one-half of the blind were too old to help themselves or to accommodate themselves to their new surroundings. In Ohio the State Treasurer makes a grant of $250 for each blind or semiblind child educated in the Public Schools, thereby relieving local school boards of the expense of educating such children.

In formulating a standard the following *degrees of blindness* were established; under which the applicant for a pension would be entitled to consideration: (1) Light sense abolished. (2) Movement of hand (but not finger counting) at 3 feet. (3) Moving objects at 9 feet, with greatly contracted field. (4) Only those will be considered blind who are hopelessly and irremediably so. Census figures show that in Ohio there has been a decrease of 10% in the number of blind, altho the population has increased 14.7%. "The principal fact developed is that more than 60 per cent of those who have applied for pensions and who are now on the pension list, have passed the meridian of life. Those under 20 years are rapidly growing less from year to year, which is the most encouraging and hopeful fact to be deduced from the statistics."

Stricker believes that the day is not far distant when the number of blind will be reduced at least 35%. In speaking of the conservation of vision classes, Stricker gives the standards of admission to these classes as: (1) Children who cannot read more than 6/60 at a distance, and who cannot read No. 2 at 20 cm. (2) Myopes under the age of 14 who have more than 8 diopters. (3) Hyperopes who have symptoms of asthenopia, and who have more than 8 D. (4) Children who have an astigmatism of more than 3.5 D., and whose vision cannot be brought up to more than 6/36. (5) Children with maculae, nebulae, or leukomata, which interfere with sight and lead to eye strain. (6) Children with interstitial keratitis, uveal or corneal disease and under treatment, and who have been withdrawn from regular classes. It is assumed that these conditions exist after the proper correction of glasses has been made.

Friesen advocates the compulsory use of a prophylactic against *ophthalmia neonatorum* in every birth and states that there is at present not a state that has a comprehensive and efficient law in regard to this dreaded disease. Some of the essential points that should be included in such a law are the following: (1) The agent of prophylaxis should be specified. (2) It should be compulsory to use it on every living child that is born, whoever the attendant at birth may be. (3) Birth reports should be made within 72 hours after birth and should state that the proper prophylactic has been used and used immediately after birth. (4) The State Board of Health should furnish, free of cost to the registered attendant, a specified prophylactic means, and instructions.

A note in the JOURNAL A.M.A. states that a vigorous prosecution of midwives and physicians who do not observe the requirements of the law in the care of eyes of the newly born, has been begun by the Attorney General of Illinois.

Carhart writes on the care of the eyes of school children in New York City, and **Beeman** writes on the care of the eyes in infancy.

Conservation of Vision: **Spalding** points out that conservation of vision really begins before the child is born, thru eugenic marriages. He discusses ophthalmia neonatorum, injury to the eye from obstetric forceps, squint school hygiene, accidents to the eye in childhood from scissors and knives, and injuries likely to occur in vocational schools. He deprecates the practice of some anesthetists of touching the cornea to determine whether the corneal reflex has been abolished—a practice which has sometimes led to an abrasion and ulcer of the cornea. He discusses the relation between dental caries and eye strain and ocular inflammation. **Moulton** and **McCurry**, in general articles, discuss the conservation of vision.

Instruction in Ocular Hygiene: In a general article on Hygiene of the Eye, **Halbertsma** reviews the work of the American and British Illuminating Engineering Societies, commenting on the excellent work done by them in cooperation with ophthalmologists. He regrets that German ophthalmologists have not cooperated more earnestly with the Illuminating Engineering Society in his own country. He hopes that now that the war is over that there will be more cooperation.

Heilborn states that *myopia* has become a very wide spread evil in Germany, each year seeing in the neighborhood of 9,000 recruits to its ranks. The war necessitated the correction of myopia in order that the number of fighting men might be increased. In the fiscal year, beginning August 3, 1914, Heilborn prescribed glasses for 6,553 soldiers. As about 13,000 soldiers were examined by him in that year, it would appear that about 50% were suffering from myopia and myopic astigmatism. The increase in efficiency due to improved vision was to some extent offset by certain drawbacks, such as frequent breakage of glasses, failure to wear them, increasing myopia in individual cases, and a certain amount of clumsiness, due to previously poor eyesight and lack of observing powers. It was finally required that soldiers wear their correction and carry a reserve pair of glasses.

Bates points out that 21.68% of all rejections in the army (13% more than for any other single cause) were for eye defects, even tho the requirements were 20/40 in one eye and 20/100 in the other. Affirming that "defects for which lenses are worn are functional and curable" it is not surprising that he thinks the "usefulness of correcting lenses has been greatly over rated." Soldiers and sailors are to obtain normal vision without glasses by the following method: The Snellen test cards are to be read several times daily, first with both eyes open then with one covered by the palm of the hand. Small objects such as buttons, cartridge belts may be used as "points of fixation." Another method for improving the sight is to cover the closed eyes with the palms of the hands and to remember or visualize the "sensation of black" for half a minute. When the letters are again observed, the acuity is supposed to be better. Glasses, of course, are to be discarded before the trial is begun. In the long run "central fixation" and "seeing black with the eyes shut" is supposed to cure patients of refractive errors. Not only are these remarkable results obtained but the ability to see black or the memory of perfect sight is a wonderful analgesic.

[Bates' views are so entirely at variance with the accepted dicta of physiologic optics, that the reviewer desires to state his conviction (which he believes must be shared by ophthalmologists generally) that most of the statements quoted above are untenable.]

Miscellaneous: **Coulomb** has found that a new artificial eye is more easily sterilized than an old one. The method recommended is immersion for one minute in a solution of one part iodin, two parts potassium iodid and three hundred parts of water.

OPHTHALMIC EDUCATION AND SOCIOLOGY.

CLARENCE LOEB, M.D.,

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

This section covers the literature from October, 1918, to October, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., vol. 1, December, 1918, p. 241.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

Ophthalmic Education.—This question has been the subject of many communications during the year. The American Journal of Ophthalmology urges American universities to provide instruction to replace that formerly obtained at German universities, which should consist of training in the fundamentals of ophthalmology as well as clinical instruction. **Jackson** believes that the beginner should first thoroly acquaint himself with the anatomy, physiology and pathology of the eye, after which he can profitably take up the study of ocular defects and diseases. **Heldman** approves of Jackson's position, and **Parker** would like to see a school similar to the Army School of Ophthalmology established in one or more of the larger cities.

The British Journal of Ophthalmology says that after an extensive consideration of the question of teaching and examining medical students in ophthalmology, and after investigation of conditions in England, on the continent, in America and in Japan, the Council of British Ophthalmologists found that England was almost the only country granting diplomas to practice medicine without evidence of adequate ophthalmic knowledge. It recommended (1) that no student shall be admitted to the final examination, qualifying to practice medicine, unless he shall have attended an ophthalmic clinic for not less than six hours a week during a period of three months, and shall have attended a course of systematic instruction in ophthalmology; (2) that no student shall be considered to have passed the qualifying examinations unless he has shown sound knowledge of practical ophthalmology in an examination conducted by ophthalmic surgeons.

The British Medical Journal commends this report and hopes that the General Medical Council will reconsider its last decision. However, acknowledgement of the justice of the claims of ophthalmology must not bring about a burdening of the curriculum by other specialties. The British Journal of Ophthalmology thinks that the recommendations of the Council are modest enough, but their adoption would go a long way towards establishing a condition of knowledge which would ensure early treatment of diseases local to the eye or in the associated systems. The General Medical Council, however, recommended that students be required to attend a course of practical instruction in ophthalmology of not less than 10 weeks' duration, which the Journal thinks is a step in the right direction altho regretting that the G. M. C. did not adopt the full recommendations of the C. of B. O. It also says that proper organization can make London the center of postgraduate work in ophthalmology, and suggests a union for teaching purposes of existing institutions. It notes that after a lapse of three years, examinations for diploma in ophthalmology are to be resumed at Oxford. In another editorial, it comments on a symposium in the Edinburgh Medical Journal (see below), and notes that all agree that (1) ophthalmology should form an essential part of the curriculum; (2) no attempt should be made to treat the subject of refraction seriously; (3) use of the ophthalmoscope should be obligatory; (4) clinical demonstrations should replace formal lectures. **Jackson** thinks ophthalmoscopy should be taught to every student in order that he may study pathology in living nervous, vascular, and connective tissue.

In the above symposium, **Collins** urged a special committee to consider

education and similar subjects. Elsewhere he points out that ophthalmology assists in the diagnosis and prognosis of general diseases; (2) it gives the capacity for recognizing and treating the commoner local conditions of the eye; (3) it gives training in attention to detail and exactness of observation. In regard to the first point, he names many conditions thus revealed; (2) doctors should not send every case to the specialist but should learn to treat the common diseases; there are other cases which it is absolutely necessary for the general practitioner to recognize and treat, e. g., ophthalmia neonatorum; (3) in this, it is superior to any other branch. He thinks practical demonstrations are superior to didactic instruction. Refraction should not be taught to all, but only to those showing special aptitude for such work. Examinations should be by those with special knowledge in ophthalmology and not by surgeons and physicians.

Fergus says no attempt should be made to teach more than the fundamentals. Twenty hours is not enough, at least forty is needed. The student should be taught the signs and symptoms of the more important diseases, and as far as practicable those symptomatic of general diseases. He should be able to use the ophthalmoscope as readily as the thermometer. Diplopia should be explained, also the development of strabismus, testing pupillary reflexes, visual acuity, perimetry, *glaucoma,* sympathetic ophthalmia, conjunctivitis, keratitis, iritis, trachoma, phlyctenulosis, and especially ophthalmia neonatorum. **Sym** thinks that eye diseases should be taught as a department of medicine and surgery and not as a special entity. He thinks 24 hours is the correct time to be assigned, and that students should be taught to understand how the ophthalmoscope should be used, but its use should be postponed until after graduation. Most practitioners will never use it anyhow. He suggests a plan whereby the student must be prepared to be examined on every subject, but is actually examined in only three. His general advice seems to be to allow the present hit or miss instruction in ophthalmology to continue.

Paterson says students should be taught the common ailments, so that they may learn their ability and recognize their limitations. The teaching should be mainly clinical. They should be taught the significance of diplopia in medical diagnosis. A few hours instruction in the use of the ophthalmoscope (6-9) should be given, also some elementary instruction in refraction, testing vision and visual fields, but no attempt should be made to teach how to test for glasses. The student should be as far advanced as possible in the medical course before receiving any instruction, in order that he may appreciate the relationship of the eye to general disease. The examination should demonstrate a satisfactory knowledge of eye disease, and should be written, followed by an oral one.

The report of the **American Board for Ophthalmic Examinations** shows that of 149 applicants, 120 were accepted, 11 refused, and 18 were still pending. The American College of Surgeons has made the Board its Ophthalmic Credentials Committee. **Woods** relates some of his experiences as a member of the Board for Ophthalmic examinations, and deduces from them the necessity for better teaching in undergraduate instruction, and the emphasizing of the interrelation of ophthalmology and general medicine.

The school for opticians established at Jena, January 1918, is described by **Henker.** The faculty includes the oculists Axenfeld, Hertel, Krückman and Stock, and a half dozen opticians. The curriculum covers the theory of lenses, their use, and applications. The theory, use and testing of optical instruments; and such related subjects as photography, mathematics, meterology, physics, a business course including the German language and letter writing, and a course on drawing.

Greeff has compiled a list of the existing journals of optics and for opticians. He finds nineteen are published, 8 being in Germany and Austria, 7 in the United States and England, 3 in France and one in Spain.

Economics. **Best** has written a book which **Crisp** says is a most thoro *exam-*

ination of the blind from an economist's standpoint. The Canadian Practitioner and Review, in an editorial, states that the National Institute for the Blind has been incorporated, and would open an industrial training school in Toronto. There would be a governing board of 18, one-third of whom must be blind men. **Snell** gives a formula for determining the loss of vision in terms of central vision and binocular. Central vision is determined by the Snellen chart; the field of vision by the perimeter or Walker's discs.

Rasquin states that traumatic cataract in soldiers, after absorption, should be evalued from an industrial standpoint the same as aphakia. The evaluation done soon after the injury requires reexamination later. **Sharp** states that the majority of industrial injuries to the eyes are foreign bodies in the cornea. These are usually unimportant, but may become very destructive if improperly handled. Wounds of the ciliary region are often followed by serious results. Foreign bodies may enter the eye leaving no visible point of entrance, but are always serious injuries. Contusions of the eyeball without visible rupture usually result seriously. Burns are followed by loss of vision or scar or both. There is much fraud attempted, such as claiming that a case of conjunctivitis was caused by an injury, where examination showed a gonococcic infection. These accidents are usually the result of carelessness. Large, strong, protective glasses should be worn. He reports 509 cases of eye injuries, of which 80% were of industrial origin. The Lancet comments editorially on Sir Arthur Pearson's view that 25% instead of 50% was the proper amount of disability to be allowed a man who had lost one eye. It is true that a one eyed man can see almost as well as one with two eyes, but it must be remembered that there is increased danger of total blindness, if the remaining eye is lost. The monocular field is much smaller than the binocular, a factor in avoiding accidents. A man who has had binocular vision and loses it is at a disadvantage compared to one who has never had it, especially at first.

In regard to the *education and rehabilitation of the civil or military blind,* **Van Cleve** gives a general description of the method of education at the N. Y. Institute for Education of the Blind, with remarks on the education of the blind in general in the United States. **Baker,** himself a blind man, in a symposium at the National Conference on Rehabilitation of the Blind, spoke of the work being done at St. Dunstan, England, and Hart House, Toronto. Blinded men are trained for massage, stenography, and several other branches of industry. The N. Y. Medical Journal says that the best results are to be obtained by a careful study of the psychology of the blind and a proper utilization of the results of this study.

Clinical Medicine refers to the work done at the Chicago Lighthouse for the Blind, especially in reference to the teaching of massage. It also praises Best's book, and refers to the good work of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness. It would seem that massage is supplanting piano tuning as the occupation of choice for the blind, for **McCallin** speaks of the great success in training them for this work, in Chicago, while **Knopf** says that many a blinded soldier might with a little training become a skilled professional masseur.

In Japan, masseurs are exclusively blind. The Boston Dispensary has a blind masseur who is very satisfactory. Several personal communications say that they give satisfaction. On the other hand Modern Hospital comments on an article in a German journal which shows about 100 new occupations for the blind. They are manufacturing of watches, mouth organs, electric goods, optical goods, airships, rifles, automobiles, metal works, cardboard boxes, paper, felt and straw hats, etc. The most ideal one is watch manufacturing, since it is not a noisy one, and there are interesting machine works. There is great satisfaction when the blind can work with or under the supervision of the seeing. Factory work is better than home work.

Segelken reporting a case of suicide following blindness from injury, reviews the literature of this subject and concludes that dependents should receive compensation as they would for the disability due to blindness.

Fergus puts forth his conclusions reached in a dozen years of work under the Workmen's Compensation Act supported by his experience in the recruiting office, including an extremely valuable table of 237 cases setting forth the occupation, ophthalmometer readings, vision without glasses, correction and vision obtained, and remarks. He calls attention to the very poor vision of some recruits passed by the Medical Boards; and points out that for many uses what he calls "form sense" is more important than the visual acuity, which depends upon foveal perception. He urges the wide variation in the economic capacities of persons, who have the same vision as ordinarily reported; and concludes it is impossible "to evaluate working efficiency in terms of visual acuteness." He cites instances supporting his contention, and others are to be found in his table of cases.

Haab says that the increase in industrial legislation makes it imperative for the general practitioner to have a knowledge of eye injuries. In regard to teaching, he lays great stress on wax models and demonstration microscopes. Some of the recent advances in ophthalmology are Vogt's red-free light, x-ray treatment of cancer of the eyelid, etc.

Wile commenting on Best's book, urges the necessity of establishing safeguards for the elimination of unnecessary accidents. **Best** gives the percentages of blindness due to various kinds of accidents and toxins, and sums up our present knowledge of blindness. In April, 1916, an Eye Clinic was established in Sing Sing prison. **Berens** gives an account of its work during the first year, with statistics of the conditions encountered and operations required. He concludes that such a clinic should be established in every penal insitution in the United States, both to prevent blindness and to assist the inmates. **Charles** reports that the energies of the Committee on Blindness, directed thru the newspapers, saved many eyes at the time of the recent eclipse, and suggests that the daily press could be utilized to great advantage in other departments of public hygiene. He believes that the laity reads health columns, and an official one would have great value.

Santos Fernandez thinks that the family of rich patients should be told of the latter's impending blindness, but they, themselves, should be encouraged to believe that their cases are not incurable. Working people should be told the truth, with some precautions.

HOSPITALS.—The LANCET says that at the Belfast Ophthalmic Hospital, 1694 new patients were treated, and suggests that it combine with the Ulster Benn Eye, Ear, and Throat Hospital. The MEDICAL JOURNAL OF AUSTRALIA comments on the annual report of the Victorian Eye and Ear Hospital. **Kirkpatrick** gives the statistics of the report of the Government Ophthalmic Hospital at Madras for 1917, which is quite lengthy and cannot be abstracted. In 1917, 19,372 patients were treated, with 3,163 operations, with 1,164 cataract operations.

OPHTHALMOLOGY AND THE WAR.—**Spalding** reviews the history of war injuries to eyes from antiquity to the late war. It is very interesting, but does not lend itself to abstracting. **Andrews,** in a letter to the late Col. Todd, says that, owing to the war, there is a great lack of nurses, doctors and supplies in Labrador. **Loeb** gives a plan for mobilizing the doctors of the United States. He would draft all physicians, put into military service all except those physically unfit, divide the country into districts, to which would be assigned these latter. The fees collected should be divided between those in military and those in civil service.

Würdemann gives a general statement of the course and personnel of the instructors at the Post-Graduate Medical School at Camp Lewis. **De Schweinitz** speaks of the buildings,

equipment, clinical material and course at the School of Orphthalmology, Medical Officers Training Camp, Camp Greenleaf, while **Wiener** gives its schedule of courses, with a few of his experiences with some of the so-called oculists. **Kershner** reviews the cases seen at Camp Sevier from Jan. 1, 1918, to Nov. 1, 1918. Owing to the close cooperation between the different services, very thoro investigation work could be done. There were numerous malignerers.

Military Ophthalmology.—**Parker,** of the Division of Surgery of the Head, office of the Surgeon General, describes its methods and success in supplying the army with trained ophthalmologists, and tells of the activities of the various members of the staff. **Duane,** speaking of the standards of the service, says that the regulations are not elastic enough. Visual requirements should correspond to the character of the work to be done. Factors like special technical ability, previous military training, etc., should be allowed to outweigh a defective vision, at times. Modern warfare is so complicated that there would seem to be room somewhere for men with even very defective vision. But the fitting of a man to his position is a complex problem, requiring much data and extensive investigation.

Greenwood tells of his experiences in France, giving lantern demonstration of operations and hospital scenes. **De Schweinitz** describes the British Expeditionary Force and the French Ophthalmic Service. He refers to the types of keratitis seen, the effects of "gassing" on the eye. He discusses enucleation, with and without implantation, use and kinds of magnets, extraction of foreign bodies from the orbits, and plastic work.

McKee, speaking of the British Army, says that the standard of vision has been changed from 6/24 in each eye without glasses, (b) 6/24 r. e. without glass and 6/60 other eye without glass, and (c) for certain services the left may be 6/24 and the right 6/60, at the beginning of the war, to the following at the end; 6/24 without glass in one eye and 6/12 with glass in the other. He prefers the old standard, since lowering the standard increases the number of men available but lowers the efficiency of the army. Several men have been admitted with vision below requirements and ocular lesions. Wearing glasses gives excuse for malingering, shirking on account of breaking them, headaches, etc. Detection of malingering is sometimes difficult on account of bona fide amblyopia, war neurosis, etc.

Trachoma has practically disappeared from the army, to reappear as a problem in alien labor companies. The use of gas in war has brought ophthalmology into the foreground, especially mustard gas. This conjunctivitis should be treated with oil, cocain-adrenalin, and finally zinc. No dark glasses should be worn. Night blindness is frequent; sometimes it is due to retinitis pigmentosa, sometimes it is functional, and sometimes it is malingering. He saw two cases of sympathetic ophthalmia in 3,000 cases. There were many interesting congenital fundal conditions, and concussion lesions of the fundus. He frequently saw a form of traumatic retinochoroiditis, never described, consisting of a diffuse cloudiness of the retina, numerous small exudates in the choroid, and fine dust like opacities in the vitreous. He thinks surgery should be only of the necessary character.

Derby describes the eye service of the British Expeditionary Force, the location of the hospitals,, character of cases treated, use of magnets, handling of the trachoma problem in the alien labor companies, etc. He thinks that the eye work should be done only by oculists. **Stuelp** gives the formation of trachoma companies as a means of limiting the spread of trachoma in military forces.

Ormond gives an analysis of 8,670 cases mostly treated at the Second London General Hospital. The cause of blindness was usually either the bursting of a shell or bomb in front of the face, or the passage of a bullet or

piece of shrapnel thru the orbit. Malingering was very rare, but there were 30 cases of concussion or psychic blindness. The prognosis is good in the latter cases if the diagnosis is made early.

Barrett describes the conditions in Egypt from Jan. to Nov. 1915, the greater part of the work being done at Heliopolis. There was a large number of patients from the Dardanelles. The BRITISH JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY states that the Army Spectacles Depot had provided 290,000 pairs of glasses. Shell frames were made for use in climates where metal should not touch the skin. **Pockley** said he daily saw men rejected because of deficient eyesight, which, however, was good enough for military service, at least in certain branches. **McMullen** gives the report of the committee on the conditions affecting the standards of vision in the British Army, with proposals for their modification. **Traquair** and **Paterson** suggested that unaided vision should be regarded as of secondary importance, provided the refractive error was not too great, and corrected vision was adequate for the various grades. If the medical authorities would not accede to this, 6/60 should be substituted for 6/24 for general service.

AVIATION.—**Jackson** believes that scientific men should learn the facts of physical necessities for aviation, and then influence public opinion in the direction of supporting rigid requirements, especially as regards the eye. **Wilmer** states that good sight is essential. Sometimes there may be increased visual acuity during the act of flying, due e. g. to the rarefication of the atmosphere. Of almost equal importance is good muscle balance and strength. Exophoria and hyperphoria are more serious than esophoria. Other important factors are the power of stereoscopic vision, good color vision, good visual fields, normal retinal sensitivity, the latter being essential for night flyers. The eyes must be protected from wind and bright light by protective goggles with good optical glasses. Sometimes a greenish yellow glass is necessary, for flying over water or snow or facing the rising sun, etc. There is no sense of dizziness such as is felt on the top of tall buildings.

Spearman discusses a method of testing stereoscopic vision of aviators and gives suggestions for improving this. It is important to try to find out how the ocular movements tested the balance of the muscles. Tho the eyes take the proper position for seeing, if given time, it does not necessarily follow that they will do so when speed is essential. A test embracing the following of a moving field is necessary.

Lancaster describes the effects of asphyxiation and fatigue on the sensory functions, the adjusting mechanism, and the psychic side of vision. Of these the first is the least likely to break down, while the second is the more likely.

Fisher and **Lyman** state that 5.9% of candidates were rejected because of visual defects, as follows:—lack of visual acuity, 3.3%; defective color vision, 1.0%; muscle imbalance 0.7%; defective stereoscopic vision, 0.5%; all other eye defects, 0.4%. **Loeb** calls attention to the fact that requirements for peace time aviation may be different from those of war time, and suggests that medical societies take up the question and make recommendations while aviation is still in its infancy.

REHABILITATION.—**Wood** speaks of the plans of the government for taking care of soldiers and sailors in order to make every blinded soldier and sailor able to take care of himself. **Ardan** gives the history of the founding and development of the Hospital and School for Reeducation of the Blind, at Evergreen, with a description of the course. In the discussion, Campbell showed several interesting cases. **Bordley** says that St. Dunstan, England, and Evergreen, in this country, are universities where the blind are taught hope and courage, trades and professions, ambition and success. He describes the course at Evergreen.

The BRITISH JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY says that at St. Dunstan men

acquire knowledge of several industries in one-fourth the time supposed to be necessary to teach blind men trades. The cause is short hours of work, cheery spirit of the men, and especially the free employment of the blind teachers. England discusses the French and English systems of care of the war blinded. In France they pass thru a regular routine of treatment and instruction before they enter civilian life. The English also take care of their health, and instruct them in various occupations. **Merle** and **Schaidler** think that the wishes of the patient should be considered as much as possible. Frequently he can take up his old occupation. Instruction should be given in well established schools as much as possible and not in new ones, but the blind should not mingle with the seeing. Quarters should be provided for married men. Instruction consists in learning orientation, writing, typewriting, and in former or new occupations. The worst cases are those who have been injured elsewhere in the body.

The Glass Supply.—The British Journal of Ophthalmology discusses the strides made in the manufacture of optical glass in England and America, so that sufficient glass for military fire control instruments was produced during the latter part of the War. Neither country need ever again be dependent on Germany for this material. In this work, the National Physical Laboratory was of great assistance. Speaking of artificial eyes and other optical articles previously imported from Germany, **Allport** urges that we do without them until we have learned to make them.

Optometry.—**Ingram** says that defects of sight are due not only to need for glasses but also to pathologic lesions, and therefore the care of the eyes and prescribing of glasses should be only in the hands of those well trained in ophthalmology. This is especially apropos in those states which license optometrists to test for refractive errors and prescribe glasses, for many of them think that they have a right to treat diseases also. Thus many eyes are lost as the result of delay in obtaining proper treatment.

The Texas State Journal of Medicine says that the State Medical Association has demanded the following as part of any optometry bill—:(1) Sufficient education to secure efficiency and high standing; (2) examination and license; (3) restriction of work to making lenses and optical instruments; (4) regulations to prevent fraud and extortion practiced by itinerant spectacle venders. It objects to putting opticians on the same plane as physicians. An editorial in the British Journal of Ophthalmology states that there is no way to prevent the "beauty specialists" from operating, unless fatalities occur, and urges ophthalmic surgeons to report such cases, so that action can be obtained.

Professional Relations. — **Lewis** discusses the question of *group study,* and makes the postulates: (1) most serious intraocular diseases are due to an etiology elsewhere in the body; (2) oculists should associate themselves in groups representative of every branch of medicine, so that every case may be given thoro attention; (3) this will come sooner or later by public demand, and oculists should be in the van of the movement. He suggests that the Medical Advisory Boards could act as consulting bodies for the civil population, somewhat after the manner they acted for drafted men in the War.

In the discussion, Parker approved of group study, but thought that group "practice" was not always successful. He doubted whether the use of the Medical Advisory Boards as suggested would be advisable. Duane thought group study was especially desirable for patients who were not well to do, and who have not the time to go from one office to another. **Bulson** stated that there were three classes of patients—(1) those fully able to pay, who can be referred to the proper men; (2) those of moderate means, who can be referred with the understanding that the service must be partly gratuitous; (3) poor patients, who should be referred to hospitals or clinics. Tivnen agreed with Lewis, but

thought the profession would need to be educated to this point. Tydings thought that the government should be at the head of every national board, and every school should be under the control of state or national institutions. Derby stated that a patient could be sent to a diagnostic clinic for $10.00, with extra charge for x-ray work. Price drew attention to the fact that smaller communities have not the facilities of larger ones for group study.

Emerson, an internist, said that while eyestrain causes neurasthenia, sick headache, insomnia and phobias, there may be other etiologic factors present which must be taken into consideration. He insists on the use of atropin in determining refractive errors. He believes that the oculist and the internist should discuss the conditions of such patients. **Loeb** stated that there are many diseases of the eye where the etiology is an infective process elsewhere in the body. The oculist must call on the internist, radiologist, dentist, etc., for information. **Crisp** believes that in some cases where the general practitioner refers cases to an optician, it is simply a question of division of fees. In others, the physician is honest but in error. If the patient can afford to pay an oculist's fee, there is no excuse. If he cannot, the physician must remember, in the first place, that the patient may need treatment instead of glasses, a decision the optician is not qualified to make; and secondly, that an oculist will always reduce his charges in proper cases.

In the discussion, **Thompson said** that cycloplegia was always necessary in refracting a patient, and since opticians are not allowed to use drops, they shoud not refract. Black stated that the opticians made patients for the oculist. Practitioners should never refer cases to the optician. Nossaman did not believe that many physicians referred cases to opticians. Wallace mentioned a case where wearing of concave glasses prescribed by an optician caused blindness. Blotz thought that the law requiring children to have their eyes examined should be amended to require examination by qualified men.

Fergus says that panel practice tends to atrophy of the medical practitioner, and therefore no one should be allowed to do this work until he has been three years on the Medical Register. An oculist is desirable for this work, but he must be a real oculist, and not merely the possessor of a trial case. Refraction as now done is terrible. One man claimed that he could refract 12 children in an hour. A course should be given in the schools leading to a diploma in ophthalmology, and the graduate should be put in charge of ophthalmic panel work, doing whole time with adequate compensation. Special equipment and hospital conveniences are necessary. In an editorial, the BRITISH JOURNAL OF OPHTHALMOLOGY objected decidedly to panel ophthalmic practice, and said that the solution proposed by Fergus was inadmissible on account of the cost and the amount of time consumed.

MEDICO-LEGAL.—Several decisions of interest to ophthalmologists have been rendered during the past year. At Newcastle-on-Tyne, England, a physician was fined 50 pounds for failure to report a case of ophthalmia neonatorum. One eye of the child was lost, and it was doubtful whether the other could be saved. On July 31, 1918, reporting of ophthalmia neonatorum was made compulsory in Scotland. The notification must be made as soon as any discharge is noted, but no strong germicidal application may be made except under the special direction of a medical man. In Massachusetts, in a suit for damages for negligence in treating the eyes of a child, the physician stated that he used silver nitrat but the father claimed that he did not. The court held that this was a question of fact, to be decided by the jury. The evidence showed that notice of the disease was mailed to the Board of Health 13 days after the birth of the child. Since the state laws require prompt notification of blennorrhea neonatorum, the defendant's failure was evidence of neglect. On the other hand, the defendant's failure to order

the child to be removed to a hospital was not evidence of neglect, as he could only advise and not compel such removal. The comparison of the relative merits of home and hospital treatment in the case was properly excluded from the evidence.

The Supreme Court of North Dakota decided—(1) that a question of negligence is one of fact for the jury to decide; (2) that a layman is competent to testify to the size of an abscess which can be observed with the naked eye. **Shastid** comments on the dangerous precedent established by this decision.

The vexed question of whether the loss of an eye is equivalent to or greater than the loss of sight of an eye was decided in the Kentucky Court of Appeals. It was held that the loss of sight was not as great an injury as one requiring removal of the eye, and therefore the latter did not come within the schedule of loss of sight, but within the general provisions awarding compensation in all other causes of permanent partial disability.

Druault, discussing the estimation of incapacity for labor resulting from ocular accidents concludes that vision of 1/100 is equivalent to industrial blindness; vision of 1/10 is worth about one-fourth the normal vision. In general the estimation of damage by the ordinary scale of visual acuity is better than some of the scales proposed to replace it but gives too much importance to slight impairment of vision. He concludes that if 33 per cent is allowed for loss of an eye, 30 per cent would be the proper estimate for loss of the sight of one eye.

The Supreme Court of New York held that a person whose eye was injured, but with a powerful glass obtained 1/3 vision provided he closed the other eye, thus never being able to use more than one eye at a time, had suffered permanent loss of use of the eye, which was to be considered as equivalent to loss of the eye. It further held that a near-sighted person, with 1/2 vision, who lost the use of an eye, should have full compensation and not one-half, since the law does not specify that vision must be normal. In the case, in spite of the low vision, the patient's work had apparently been satisfactory, and therefore she was entitled to full compensation, based on her earning capacity.

A man was traveling on a logging railroad in Washington when he suffered an accident, subsequent to which he lost the sight of one eye, and sued for damages. The defendant's physicians stated that the plaintiff had primary optic atrophy, which could not have resulted from the accident. The plaintiff's physicians claimed that the atrophy was due to an injury to the nerve. The plaintiff's own testimony and that of his neighbors was that the sight in both eyes was good before the accident. The Supreme Court held that the physical facts together with the testimony of respectable oculists proved that the condition might have resulted from the accident, and gave judgment for the plaintiff.

The Supreme Court of Nebraska decided that complete and permanent loss of the use of sight of both eyes for purposes of the insured's vocation was equivalent to complete and permanent loss of sight. Later, however, it reversed its decision, and now holds that color-blindness resulting from an injury is not equivalent to total loss of sight within the meaning of the constitution of the defendant's association. Total disability means total disability and not total disability to do railroad work. Color-blindness with otherwise normal vision does not mean complete loss of sight, and cannot be so construed without perversion of the ordinary meaning of the word blindness. In New York, the loss of a lens was held not equivalent to loss of the eye. In a case the defendant, an oculist, had bought the business, good will, instruments and furniture of a deceased oculist from the plaintiff. The latter was an optician and later solicited the former patients of the deceased oculist to come to him and have their eyes examined for glasses. The defendant thereupon refused to pay the balance of the purchase price, on the grounds of breach of contract, and

the plaintiff brought suit for this amount. The lower courts decided in favor of the plaintiff, but the Supreme Court held that there was no conflict between oculist and optician so long as the latter merely filled the prescriptions of the former. When, however, the latter undertook to prescribe glasses for the patients of the deceased oculist, he violated his contract.

The optometry law of Illinois was declared unconstitutional. In Canada, the Ontario Medical Association protests against the proposal to create a quasi profession of optometry, and says that the true solution is to furnish medical students with better instruction in refraction. In Virginia, the Supreme Court decided that a non-itinerant person or manufacturer who mechanically fits or sells glasses is not guilty of practicing without a license even if he calls himself a "Doctor."

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

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This section carries the literature of the subject from October, 1918, to October, 1919. For previous literature see A. J. O., December, 1918, p. 241.

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DIGEST OF THE LITERATURE

History of Spectacles.—**Von Rohr** reviews the development of spectacles in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, under the headings: material for spectacle lenses; changes in appearance of nose glasses, temple and ear spectacles; the monocle; and binocular spectacles of the eighteenth century. The essay is accompanied by a valuable bibliography.

The comprehensive work of **Greeff**, on the history of the use of lenses for the correction of ocular defects, is extended in a series of brief monographs. He investigates in a volume entitled de Beryllo, published in Latin by Nicolas Cusanus in the year 1565, the origin of the belief that Cusanus was responsible for the statement that the word "Brille" (the German word for spectacles) was derived from the use of the semiprecious stone beryl for optical purposes. Cusanus apparently made no such statement.

Greeff's translation of the "Vegilia" of Carlo Dati concerning the invention of spectacles contains the opinion of this early writer (1619 to 1675) that the existence of spectacles in antiquity was improbable, since the word or the concept of spectacles is nowhere to be found in ancient literature. **Greeff's** translation of a letter from Francesco Redi to Carlo Dati is of subordinate interest, since Redi appears to have adhered closely to the opinions of Dati.

Another paper by **Greeff** reviews at considerable length a work published at Seville in 1623 by Daza de Valdes on the use of spectacles. This Spanish author's first book deals with the anatomy and physiology of the eye, and with defects of vision; while the second book discusses the improvement of vision by means of spectacles. Three interesting cuts are reproduced from the original publication. In a discussion of the character of the lenses found in various parts of the world during the excavation of ancient sites, **Greeff** states the conclusion that the ancients knew nothing of the use of convex lenses in presbyopia, and indicates that the principal use of the very short focus lenses which have been discovered was probably as burning glasses.

Von Rohr reviews the development of telescopic spectacles. In another page he discusses the history of the development of the optician from the keeper of a small shop for the grinding of lenses to the present position of the average optician as a middleman between the wholesale optician and the public, and the recent development of the tendency to more or less thoro training of the optician in the art of refraction.

Ophthalmic History and Relics.—**Musy** discusses the question whether senile cataract was known to the Babylonians. The writings of ancient India, 1500 to 2000 years younger than the Babylonian civilization, are usually mentioned as the eldest in which reference is made to cataract and its operation. But Musy was able to find in a collection of the laws of the Babylonian king Hammuradis, which was unearthed in 1900 and translated by Scheil in 1902, a seemingly distinct reference to the use of a needle for the removal of an opacity from the human eye. For the successful performance of this operation the surgeon was rewarded with ten shekels of silver; whereas destruction of the eye was atoned for by cutting off the operator's hand.

Hirschberg cites from a work entitled "Problems of Aristoteles," a writing on natural history of the post-Aristotelian era, a passage which seems to refer to congenital absence or small size of the eyeball; and further quotes as apparently referring to a case of congenital cataract the passage from the gospel of St. John which relates the miracle of the cure by Jesus of the man born blind.

Stephenson has given the history of the Oxford Ophthalmological Congress.

A note in the *Lancet* announces the existence of two Roman oculist seals whose inscriptions have not hitherto been published. Both are in German museums, one at Rothweil in Wurtem-

berg, and the other at Cologne. **Terson** makes mention of and illustrates three ocular votive images in metal which have recently been placed in the museum of Saint Germain. These images were bought and donated to the shrine by sufferers who either wished to thank the divinity for a cure or to ask for one.

Biographic.—**Van Herwerden's** essay on the friendship between Donders and von Graefe, which has been translated into English, summarizes and quotes extensively from the more personal parts of a series of letters written by von Graefe to Donders during the years 1852 to 1870. These letters are preserved in the Graefe Museum in Heidelberg. "The value of these letters from Graefe is not, however, purely scientific. They speak from one great mind to another, they awake by means of single sentences interwoven with a learned discussion such stirrings of the mind that not only the sympathetic personality of him who wrote them, but also the picture of the friend who received them, arises before our mind's eye."

Pekelharing's address on Donders describes the celebration of Donders' seventieth birthday held in 1887, and then relates the steps taken a quarter of a century later by the Dutch Society for the Advancement of Science for the provision of a monument to celebrate the centenary of Donders' birth. The plan was interrupted by the great war of 1914-1918, and more recently, altho the work of the sculptor was almost completed, it was found impossible to obtain metal for casting the statue in bronze. An interesting account is given of the character and life work of Donders, who is referred to by the author as "one of the greatest and best men Holland ever produced."

"In his paper on the scientific relationship between Borri, Bartholin, and Henry Skriver, **Lundsgaard** relates an experiment in which Borri claimed to have pressed all the humors out of an animal's eye and to have subsequently restored the eye and its vision by instilling within it a fluid invented by himself; suggests that Bartholin's adhesion to the doctrines of antiquity prevented his appreciating the full significance of the experiment as regards the relation of the lens to cataract and vision; and points out further that Skriver barely missed the discovery that the crystalline lens was not essential for vision.

Jackson gives an account of the life of Julius Homberger, an ophthalmic adventurer who came from Germany to New York in 1861, and who, altho decidedly irregular in his professional relations, was founder, editor, and publisher of the first ophthalmic journal published in the United States. It was also the first journal to bear the name "American Journal of Ophthalmology," the present journal being the third of that name.

The British Journal of Ophthalmology's "British Masters of Ophthalmology" series is continued with papers on Sir William Lawrence by **Collins,** Frederick Tyrrell by **Tyrrell,** George James Guthrie by **Grimsdale,** and Thomas Reid by **Buchanan.**

War History.—**Wood,** writing on diseases of the eye during the American Civil War, reproduces some of the more important of the statistical figures contained in the medical and surgical history of the war. **Wood** also describes a plan which has been set on foot for the preparation of the ophthalmic section of the medical and surgical history of the European War. **Würdemann** writes of the effects of the war just closing on ophthalmology. **Rukop** reviews the new clinical and pathologic data in the department of ophthalmology which have been derived from the European War. **König's** extracts from his diary kept while on service as a German oculist in Syria (1902-1914) contain observations concerning the miscellaneous eye diseases encountered.

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